Journal of Language Teaching and Research

Contents

The Effectiveness of Repetition as Corrective Feedback

Seçil Büyükbay
School of Foreign Languages, Gaziiomanpasa University, Turkey
Email: buyukbayscl@hotmail.com

Azizollah Dabaghi
Department of English, Faculty of Foreign Languages, University of Isfahan, Iran
Email: dabaghi@fgn.ui.ac.ir

Abstract—**This study investigated the effectiveness of repetition as corrective feedback in terms of its contribution to student uptake and acquisition. Thirty students in two classes, one control and one experimental participated in the study. In order to discover the effectiveness of repetition as corrective feedback, the classes of the control and the experimental group were observed and videotaped. The feedback episodes in the two classes were transcribed, analyzed, and coded. Grammar tests were created based on these feedback episodes. The test results of the two classes were compared. The results revealed that the experimental class, which was exposed to repetition as corrective feedback, achieved higher scores. The findings of the study indicated that repetition as a correction technique is effective in terms of its contribution to uptake and acquisition.**

Index Terms—**repetition, corrective feedback, feedback episodes, uptake, acquisition.**

I. INTRODUCTION

Corrective feedback is described by Lightbown and Spada (2003) as "an indication to a learner that his or her use of the target language is incorrect."(p.172), and it falls into two categories, explicit or implicit, depending on the way the errors are corrected. Explicit feedback, as Kim and Mathes (2001) stated in their article, refers to the explicit provision of the correct form, including specific grammatical information that students can refer to when an answer is incorrect, whereas implicit feedback, such as elicitation, repetition, clarification requests, recasts and metalinguistic feedback (Lochtman, 2002), allows learners to notice the error and correct it with the help of the teacher. Dekeyser (1993), Lyster and Ranta (1997), and Nassaji and Swain (2002) investigated the effectiveness of corrective feedback; Havranek (1999) aimed to identify the factors that may promote or impede learning through corrective feedback; Kim and Mathes (2001) conducted a study to see whether explicit and implicit feedback benefits learners more, and explored the range, and types of corrective feedback. Long, Inagaki and Ortega (1998) and Lochtman (2002) also investigated the role and effectiveness of implicit feedback in second language acquisition.

Uptake, as Lyster and Ranta (1997) define, is "a student's utterance that immediately follows the teacher's feedback and that constitutes a reaction in some way to the teacher's intention to draw attention to some aspect of the student's initial utterance" (p. 49). In other words, it is simply "learner responses to corrective feedback in which, in case of an error, students attempt to correct their mistake(s)" (Heift, 2004, p. 416). In the domain of language acquisition, which refers to the cognitive process of learning a language, the relationship between uptake and acquisition has been widely explored by language researchers. Uptake is seen as an indicator of students' noticing (Ellis & Sheen, 2006; Sheen, 2004)) and is considered to be a facilitator of acquisition. The reason that researchers argue that uptake contributes to acquisition depends on their hypothesis that uptake provides students with the opportunity to practice what they have learned and helps them fill in the gaps in their interlanguage (Carroll and Swain, 1993).

There have been some studies conducted to examine the success of uptake and its relation to feedback or acquisition. For example, Ellis, Basturkmen and Loewen (2001), in their study, focused on the success of learner uptake in communicative ESL classrooms. Also, Loewen (2004) examined which characteristics of corrective feedback predicted uptake and successful uptake in terms of learner's noticing or not noticing the error and correcting it as a response to feedback. Ellis, Basturkmen and Loewen (2001), in their study, focused on learner uptake in communicative ESL classrooms, and Tsang (2004) examined the relationship between feedback and uptake in his study.

In addition, one form of corrective feedback, recasts, defined as "the teacher's reformulation of all or part of a student's utterance, minus the error" by Lyster and Ranta (1997, p. 46), has been investigated more than any other type of corrective feedback by researchers (Long, 1996; Mackey, Gass, & McDonough, 2000; Nabei and Swain, 2002; Philp, 2003). Nevertheless, it was found that recasts were the least effective form of feedback in terms of successful uptake and second language acquisition. Lyster and Ranta (1997), too, studied corrective feedback and learner uptake and the effectiveness of such feedback types as explicit feedback, recasts, elicitation, metalinguistic feedback, clarification requests, and repetition. Their study showed that, although recasts were the most commonly used type, again, it was the

least effective in terms of uptake and acquisition. Conversely, even though the remaining types were rarely used, they were more likely to be effective.

II. PURPOSE AND RESEARCH QUESTION

Despite the fact that repetition has been found to be an effective type of corrective feedback, along with metalinguistic feedback, elicitation and clarification requests (Heift, 2004), its effectiveness has not been investigated separately. Therefore, there is a need to investigate the possible effects of this type of corrective feedback Such an investigation may shed light on the effectiveness of repetition as one corrective feedback type and its possible impact on successful uptake and acquisition. Therefore, the present study aims to shed light on the answer to the following research question:

To what extent does repetition as a form of corrective feedback lead to successful uptake and acquisition?

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

A total of 30 pre-intermediate level learners of two university classes were the participants in this study. The classes were randomly assigned as the control and experimental group. There were 15 students in the control class, and 15 in the other which served as the experimental class. Their age   ranged from 17 to 21. The control group included seven female and eight male students. The experimental group included seven male and eight female students in the experimental group. In order to increase the validity and reliability of findings, the study was conducted with the same teacher for both the control and experimental classes. The teacher was chosen because he is the only teacher who gives grammar courses in two different classes at the same level, which allowed the researcher to compare two classes.

B. Instruments and Data Collection Procedures

Each class was videotaped for ten hours, and the feedback episodes were identified and coded. After being identified as being focused on grammar, pronunciation, discourse, or vocabulary, the feedback episodes that focused on grammar were coded as student-initiated FFEs or teacher-initiated FFEs (Ellis et al., 2001).Tailor-made grammar tests were constructed based on the feedback episodes observed in the participating classrooms. Grammar items addressed the errors that had prompted the feedback episodes. They focused on the errors for which feedback was provided during the observation period. The main purpose of these items was to find out whether the students successfully learned from the errors that were the focus of the feedback episodes.

The feedback episodes were also used to compare the responses of the students to the feedback and to find out whether repetition as corrective feedback led to more successful uptake and, consequently, more correct answers in the test.

C. Data Analysis Methods

The feedback episodes in both classes were identified according the teacher's response to error and the student's response to the feedback. They were then transcribed and coded qualitatively. While identifying, transcribing and coding, the feedback episodes and teacher-student turns were examined according to three categories: error, feedback, and uptake. The episodes were transcribed according to whether the student turns had an error or not, what kind of correction the teacher used, and whether the students repaired or not. The division of the categories was as follows:

Error	Error	No error	
Feedback:	Feedback	No feedback	
Feedback:	Explicit feedback	Implicit feedback (recasts, elicitation, clarification requests, metalinguistic feedback, repetition)	
Uptake:	No uptake	uptake	successful uptake

Figure 1. Categories of focus on form episodes

The sentences that the students uttered were identified to see whether they erred or made a grammatical mistake. If the students erred, then the researcher identified the way the participating teacher responded to the error, whether he corrected the errors or not, and how the students responded to the feedback. The feedback types that the teacher used were identified according to Lyster and Ranta's (1997) following feedback types:

Explicit correction	Teacher provides the correct form explicitly
Repetition	Teacher's repetition of student's erroneous utterance
Recasts	Reformulation of student's utterance
Metalinguistic feedback	Comments, information, or questions related to the student's utterance
Clarification requests	Indication to students either that their utterance has been misunderstood by the teacher or that their utterance is ill formed
Elicitation	Eliciting of what the student has meant or uttered
Multiple feedback	Combination of more than one type of feedback

Figure 2. Types of corrective feedback

After identifying the feedback type, the researcher transcribed and coded the episodes according to the student's response to feedback, or uptake. Students' uptake was sorted into three categories: no uptake, uptake and successful uptake, as mentioned before. After the identification, transcription and coding process that was applied to episodes in both classes, grammar tests based on these feedback sequences were prepared.

The grammar tests of both classes were quantitatively analyzed and compared to find out whether repetition made a difference in their knowledge of the tested structures. Mean scores of both classes were identified and then compared.

In order to discover whether the students provided the correct answers to the items that originated from their errors, individual students' responses to the questions that were prepared based on their errors in the class were identified. Their responses during teacher-student turns and their answers to that question in the test were compared. The relationship between student uptake and acquisition both in the control class and in the experimental class was explored.

The quantitative data were gathered from grammar tests. The grammar tests were created based on the feedback episodes in both classes, and they were then compared to discover whether repetition is significantly more effective on students' uptake and acquisition.

IV. RESULTS

In the control class, the observation and the transcription showed that there was a total of 17 errors. The frequencies and classifications of the feedback types in response to these errors can be seen in Table 1. Three of the errors were ignored by the teacher, and given no feedback, whereas the teacher responded to 14 errors by some kind of feedback. Five of the feedback episodes resulted in 'no uptake', four of them required uptake, and five of them ended in successful uptake. Uptake here refers to "what the student attempts to do with the teacher's feedback" as Lyster and Ranta (1997, p. 49) define. If there is no uptake, then there is no topic continuation. If there is uptake, there is topic continuation; the student errs, and then corrects the error without reformulation of the entire utterance. Successful uptake, on the other hand, refers to the correct reformulation of the sentence by the student.

TABLE 1.
IDENTIFICATION OF FEEDBACK TYPES IN THE CONTROL CLASS AND EXPERIMENTAL CLASS

	Control Class	*Experimental Class*
Number of errors	17	23
Number of errors ignored:	3	2
Feedback type: Explicit feedback Recast Clarification requests Elicitation Metalinguistic f. Multiple feedback Repetition	6 0 1 1 2 4 0	2 0 0 0 0 0 19
No Uptake: *Uptake:* *Successful:*	5 4 5	3 8 10

In the experimental class, 23 errors were identified, as indicated in Table 1. Although the teacher was supposed to use repetition in all of the feedback episodes, he ignored two of the errors. The feedback episodes consisted of repetition provided by the teacher. It was also realized after the coding process that the teacher used explicit feedback two times in the experimental class. However, the feedback episodes in which explicit feedback was given were not used in the grammar tests. The results showed that three of the episodes in the experimental class resulted in no uptake by the students. Eight of the feedback episodes ended in uptake, and ten of them resulted in successful uptake.

V. ANALYSIS

A. Correction Episodes

The focus-on-form episodes in the control class were coded and analyzed according to Lyster and Ranta's (1997) identification of feedback types. The feedback types and the numbers that were used by the teacher are presented, along with the examples taken from the episodes:

TABLE 2.
FEEDBACK TYPES THAT WERE USED BY THE TEACHER IN THE CONTROL CLASS

		Frequency	*Percent*
Valid	clarification request	1	7.14
	elicitation	1	7.14
	explicit feedback	6	42.84
	metalinguistic feedback	2	14.28
	multiple feedback	4	28.56
	recasts	0	0
	repetition	0	0
	Total	14	100.0

The results, as indicated in Table 2, showed that explicit correction was used six times, which has a percentage of 42.84 %. The other feedback type that was used relatively frequently is multiple feedback. The teacher used this kind of feedback four times in the control class. He used a combination of explicit and metalinguistic feedback once, and he combined clarification request and explicit feedback three times. Below are some examples from the episodes in the control class.

1. Explicit correction:
a) S:What do you think about right now?
T: What are you thinking…
S: ….what are you thinking about. .[Successful uptake]
b) S: Preference to red mean
T: Preference to red means
S: Means [uptake]
c) S: She don't know what Tokat is famous for?
T: She doesn't know..
S:She doesn't know.. [uptake]
d) S: Does she study in the library in the evening? [They are studying The present progressive]
T: Be careful 'in the evening'.
S: […silence]
T: Is…
S :Is she studying in the library in the evening? [Successful uptake]
2. Recasts
No recasts were observed.
3. Metalinguistic feedback
S1: Is she a good player?
S2: Yes, she is. She is playing pool a lot…
T: Just a minute! Be careful. Is she playing right now, or in general?
S: …Not playing now..
T: So…?
S: She plays pool a lot. [successful uptake]
4. Clarification requests
T: What are you doing there Semra?
S: ….hmm.. He gave me a letter.
T: And?
S: I tear the letter..
T: Sorry, I could not understand you. You tore the letter?
S: …..yes [no uptake]
5. Elicitation
T: Who is sitting next to İlker?
S : Eray is next to İlker.
*T: Be careful who is **sitting** next to İlker?*
S: Eray.. is… sitting… next to İlker [successful uptake]
6. Multiple feedback
a) explicit feedback + clarification request

S: I am agree with you
T: You agree with me?
S: Yes [no uptake]
b) explicit feedback + metalinguistic feedback
S: Do we say ' Are you needing something else to paint the tables' in a sentence?
T: No, we use 'need' , because it's a non-action verb, and we cannot use it with –ing.
S: ...hmm, OK. [no uptake]
c) explicit feedback + clarification request
T: Where is Selin?
S: She is late . She taken the wrong bus.
T: She took the wrong bus?
S: Yes, took. [uptake]
 d) explicit feedback + clarification request
T: Why are you laughing Koray?
S: I spell 'happened' when you ask. But wrong!
T: You spelled the word happened incorrectly?
S: Yes! [no uptake]

There were 23 errors that were committed in the experimental class. However, because the teacher ignored two of the errors, only 21 of the errors were transcribed and coded. The only feedback type that was transcribed, coded and used in the grammar test was repetition. Two examples of repetition from the episodes are presented below:

Examples:

1. *T: What's your favourite team?*
S: My favourite team Beşiktaş
T: Your favourite team? Beşiktaş? Your favourite team Beşiktaş?
S: My favourite team IS Beşiktaş [successful uptake]
2. *T: Have you ever been to a Chinese restaurant, Erman?*
S: Yes I have. Last night, we have eaten there.
T: Be careful Erman. Last night, we have eaten there? Have eaten?
S: ...
T: have eaten.. last night?
S: No, we ate there last night.[successful uptake]

B. Grammar Tests

The quantitative data of the study were gathered through grammar tests, the purpose of which was to measure the effectiveness of repetition on acquisition. The tests were given to both classes after their one-week observation period. Although there were more than 14 feedback episodes in the experimental class, in order to provide equal conditions, the researcher eliminated nine of the episodes, two of which involved explicit feedback in order to provide the classes with the same number of items. Therefore, each grammar test comprised 14 questions created based on the feedback episodes in the respective classes.

However, the students in the two classes were not asked about the same structures due to the discrepant observation periods of the two classes. The questions, which for the control group tested the mastery of present simple, past simple, present perfect, and present progressive tenses, were gap filling questions, some samples of which are presented below.

1. *What _____ about right now? You look really happy! you,* ***think***
2. *A preference of blue to red _____ that you are a calm person.* ***mean***
3. *A: _____ in politics?* ***you, interest***
      B: Yes, I love politics!
4. *A: Game is over!*
      B: Who_____the game? ***win***
      A: Of course, the teacher!

The questions above show the type of questions that were asked in the grammar test of the control class (the complete test can be seen in Appendix A). The contexts used in the test were the ones in which the students erred. However, the researcher provided some words or sentences when it was difficult for students to find out the answer from the context.

On the other hand, the type of test items used for the experimental class were different from used in the control class. This was due to the fact that the feedback episodes in the control and experimental classes, based on which   the grammar tests were made, were different, added to the fact that the experimental class was observed two weeks later than the control class. Moreover, the questions in the experimental class' grammar tests included more difficult structures for the students to master, and/or recognize and, therefore, the grammar test of the experimental class comprised more complex items such as choosing among present perfect, past perfect and simple past, whereas the test of the control class did not. Below are some questions from the grammar test of the experimental class (the complete test can be seen in Appendix B):

*1. Before I came here, I _____ anyone from Zimbabwe. **never, meet***
*2. _____ an elephant? **you, ever, ride***
*3. I have been at this school since the beginning of January. My classes _____ January 6th. **begin***
4. A: Have you eaten in the new Chinese restaurant?
  *B: Yes I have. We _____ there last night. **eat***

In order to analyze the data, the scores, the mean scores on the two grammar tests and their standard deviations were calculated and are presented in Table 3.

TABLE 3.
MEAN AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF CLASSES

	Class	*N*	*Mean*	*Std. Deviation*	*Std. Error Mean*
Score	Control class	15	45.22	13.94	3.60
	Experimental class	13	69.21	20.90	5.80

Here, it is important to note that the numbers of the students who took the test were not the same. Although the researcher designed the classes so that the number of students would be equal, by asking three students in the control class to attend the classes in the experimental class during the study, two students in the experimental class were not present in the class when the test was taken, which might possibly have affected the results. Because of that, there were 13 students in the experimental class, whereas there were 15 in the other.

As indicated in Table 3, the mean score of the experimental class was higher (69.21) than that of the control class (45.22). In other words, the grammar tests of the two classes showed that the students in the experimental class did better on their test even though their test items were more complex than the items in the test of the control class.

C. Individual Students' Responses

In both classes, individual students' responses on the test items were investigated to discover whether they had learned from their errors in the class and the subsequent feedback. In order to reveal this, their errors in class (i.e. the feedback episodes they were directly involved in) and their answers to the test items based on those errors were compared. In order to discover whether the students responded correctly in the grammar test, their names, the feedback type they were exposed to, and whether the episodes they were involved in resulted in uptake or not were identified. After comparing the students' own responses to the question that originated from their own errors, the results of the two classes were also compared to see whether repetition is more beneficial for students to learn from their errors.

The results show that, in the control class, the students who were involved in the episodes that formed the basis of the questions responded to ten out of 14 questions incorrectly. It was also discovered that seven out of the ten test items answered incorrectly had resulted in uptake (whether uptake or successful uptake) during the feedback episodes in classes, as indicated in Table 4.

The table also shows that nine different students made the fourteen errors. The student who made the highest number of errors had a total of five errors. The results of the test showed that he answered three questions incorrectly in the test even though he had corrected these errors during the episodes. More interestingly, his two right answers had resulted in one 'no uptake' and one 'successful uptake'. Another student in the class, who made two errors in the class during the observation period, did not give correct responses in the grammar test either, even though his turns with the teacher resulted in uptake in both episodes. Five out of seven other students who made errors did not respond correctly to the corresponding items on the grammar test, although three students' episodes resulted in successful uptake.

TABLE 4.
INDIVIDUAL STUDENTS' RESPONSES TO FEEDBACK AND ON TEST, CONTROL CLASS

Control group				
Error	*Student*	*Feedback type*	*Result of feedback*	*Result on test*
1	A	Multiple(exp.+meta.)	No uptake	Correct
2		Explicit feedback	Successful uptake	incorrect
3		Explicit feedback	Uptake	incorrect
4		Explicit feedback	Uptake	incorrect
5		Multiple(exp.+ clari.)	Successful uptake	Correct
6	B	Explicit feedback	Uptake	incorrect
7		Metalinguistic f.	Uptake	incorrect
8	C	Explicit feedback	Successful uptake	incorrect
9	D	Multiple (exp.+ clari.)	No uptake	Correct
10	E	Metalinguistic f.	Successful uptake	incorrect
11	F	Elicitation	Successful uptake	Correct
12	G	Explicit feedback	No uptake	incorrect
13	H	Multiple(exp.+ clari.)	No uptake	incorrect
14	I	Clarification request	No uptake	incorrect

It can be concluded from Table 4 that there is not a clear and significant correlation between uptake and acquisition when the teacher gave his usual responses to errors. In addition, it can also be seen from the table that none of the explicit feedback episodes ended in correct answers in the grammar test. Moreover, the feedback types used in the episodes that resulted in correct responses to test items were elicitation, and multiple feedback consisting of explicit feedback and either metalinguistic feedback or clarification request.

In the experimental class, the errors of the students and their responses to the questions based on their errors were also compared. The feedback episodes of the experimental class consisted of twelve students' errors. However, only ten students' errors were used for designing the test so that the number of the questions could be equalized. As shown in Table 5, the results revealed that four students who committed seven errors in class were able to provide correct answers in the test. Moreover, five of the seven errors that were answered correctly had resulted in uptake (successful uptake or uptake) during the feedback episodes. The results also indicated that the student who made the highest number of errors committed three errors, two of which ended in successful uptake, and one of which resulted in uptake. He responded to two questions correctly, and gave a wrong answer to a question that had resulted in successful uptake in class. As two of the students did not attend the class and take the test, three of the errors could not be analyzed concerning the result of feedback and the result on the test. Interestingly, four questions that were responded to incorrectly in the test originated from the episodes that had ended in two uptakes and two successful uptakes. More interestingly, the students correctly answered the questions that originated from the episodes which had resulted in no uptake in class.

TABLE 5.
INDIVIDUAL STUDENTS' RESPONSES TO FEEDBACK AND ON TEST, EXPERIMENTAL CLASS

Experimental group				
Error	Student	Feedback type	Result of feedback	Result on test
1	A	Repetition	Uptake	Correct
2		Repetition	Successful uptake	incorrect
3		Repetition	Successful uptake	Correct
4	B	Repetition	Successful uptake	*
5		Repetition	Uptake	*
6	C	Repetition	No uptake	Correct
7	D	Repetition	No uptake	*
8	E	Repetition	Successful uptake	incorrect
9	F	Repetition	Uptake	incorrect
10	G	Repetition	No uptake	Correct
11	H	Repetition	Uptake	Correct
12		Repetition	Successful	Correct
13	I	Repetition	Uptake	incorrect
14	K	Repetition	Successful	Correct

It can be seen from Table 5 that even though the feedback episodes resulted in uptake or successful uptake in class, the students were not always able to provide correct answers to the items originating from these episodes in the test. However, the test items that originated from the feedback episodes which resulted in no uptake were correctly answered in the grammar test. In the light of these findings, as indicated in Table 5, it can be argued that there is not a clear correlation between the result of feedback and the result on corresponding test items.

In conclusion, the results showed that repetition as corrective feedback ended in ten correct responses in the experimental class whereas the number of correct responses is four in the control class, in which other types of feedback were used by the teacher. Therefore, it can be concluded that although there is not a clear relationship in terms of the result of feedback and the result on the test, repetition as a correction technique appeared to benefit the students more than other types of feedback did.

VI. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

The results revealed that the students in the experimental class, who were exposed to repetition as corrective feedback in response to their errors, did better on their grammar test than the students in the control class, who received the teacher's usual responses to errors, did on their grammar test.

Repetition ended in more uptake moves in the experimental class than the other types of feedback that were used in the control class. It is highly likely that this difference in the two classes was due to the difference in feedback types that were used in the two classes. These results are consistent with the results of Lyster and Ranta's (1997) study in which repetition was one of the feedback types that led to more uptake moves compared with the explicit feedback. These findings are also similar to those of Tsang (2004). In his study, it was also discovered that explicit feedback was the most frequent type of feedback used by the teacher, but repetition was the type of feedback which ended in the highest number of uptake moves.

As for repetition and its relation to acquisition, it can be concluded that repetition led to more correct answers in the test, which showed that when it is compared with other types of feedback, repetition contributes more to acquisition.

The findings of this study are similar to those of Havranek's (2002) study, in that his study also revealed that implicit feedback contributed to better results on on the test. However, the present study contradicts with Kim and Mathes' (2001) study, in that their study did not result in a difference in terms of acquisition between the group who received explicit feedback and the group who received implicit feedback. This contradiction may be due to the fact that explicit feedback was followed by metalinguistic explanation, and implicit feedback was provided in the form of recasts in their study. As the findings of the present study also indicated, the one time that explicit feedback was accompanied by metalinguistic explanation, it resulted in a correct answer on the grammar test, while explicit feedback alone never resulted in a correct answer.

It can also be argued that, when compared with the control class, not only the students who erred in their utterances but also their peers benefited from repetition as corrective feedback in the experimental class, even though they were not involved in the feedback episodes that formed the basis of the test items. This result is consistent with Havranek's (2002) study, in that his study showed that not only the student who was involved in the feedback episodes but also his/her peers benefited from the episodes and gained high scores in the grammar test. More interestingly, his study also revealed that corrective feedback benefited the peers more than it did the students who were involved in the feedback episodes.

The reason for the higher scores in the experimental class might be due to the time allotted for error correction. When repetition was used as feedback, students were allowed to think, notice their errors, and correct their errors after noticing. This result is consistent with McGuffin et al.'s (1997) study. The findings of their study al so indicated that self-correction benefited the students more than explicit correction did. In the control class in the present study, however, the students were not able to think about their errors, because they were not given the time required, and their teacher corrected their errors whenever they erred. Moreover, it is possible that they were not even aware of the errors they made until they were corrected by their teacher. As the results suggest, explicit feedback was the most frequently used feedback type in the control class, and always resulted in incorrect answers on the test. Explicit feedback alone may have negatively affected the students' ability to learn the structures, which can be the reason for the scores of the students in the control class; however, the one occasion when explicit feedback was combined with metalinguistic feedback ended in a correct answer in the control class. It might be beneficial for students to be corrected by their teacher if he/she uses metalinguistic feedback instead of explicitly correcting the errors without an explanation.

This study also revealed that uptake cannot be regarded as a good predictor of acquisition; i.e. uptake does not necessarily lead to acquisition. The findings showed that not all the successful uptake moves resulted in correct answers in the test, and some 'no uptake' moves ended in correct answers. The results of the present study, in this respect, contradict with Lyster and Ranta's (1'S 997) and Loewen's (2005) studies. The former study revealed that uptake was a good predictor of acquisition as most of the feedback episodes that resulted in uptake moves ended in acquisition. Moreover, Loewen's study also showed that successful uptake was the most significant variable of acquisition among others, such as response, emphasis, timing, complexity and so on. The contradictory results described here are drawn from an extremely small scale study, and the conclusions were drawn based on a small number of feedback episodes, whereas the above-mentioned studies were based on more episodes.

VII. IMPLICATIONS, CONCLUSION, LIMITATION, AND FURTHER RESEARCH

In the light of the findings mentioned above, some pedagogical implications can be drawn: The first implication is that repetition leads to students' own repair. This is considered to be more beneficial and effective for students' learning (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Tsang, 2004) and increases students' critical thinking ability. Also, it can be concluded that instead of explicitly correcting the students' errors and hindering their thinking process, repetition can be used as an implicit correction technique by teachers that might possibly end in success. Furthermore, the teacher repetition may lead to more uptake moves in class. And, in the light of the results of the grammar tests, it can be inferred that when repetition is used as a correction technique in class, it positively affects the results of the tests, which means the students learn better and achieve what they are expected to achieve. In addition to this, grammar tests also revealed that peers also benefited from the students' errors, though they were not actively involved in the feedback episodes which formed the basis of the test items. Because of the fact that repetition is effective in terms of contributing to uptake and acquisition, the teachers can be encouraged to use it more often, and they can be trained to effectively use repetition.

In this study the effectiveness of repetition was explored concerning its benefit to learning grammar. However, repetition can also be used as feedback when the focus is on vocabulary or pronunciation. When the student fails in choosing the correct word or pronouncing it, it will possibly help the student to make her/him aware of the incorrect vocabulary or pronunciation when the incorrect word is repeated by the teacher.

The main limitations of the study resulted from the duration of the study, the number of the participants used, the number of the feedback episodes in classes, and the difficulty of training the teacher to use repetition as corrective feedback in the experimental class. Moreover, different test items were used in both classes; the items were more complex in the experimental class. Furthermore, the students' proficiency levels, although they were thought to be similar, may have also caused different results in the two classes, and it was possible that the learners' learning styles, preferences and abilities may have also affected the results.

However, studying the effectiveness of repetition as corrective feedback with a larger number of participants and over a longer period of time could be the focus of further research. In addition, studying repetition with students from different proficiency levels might also be an interesting area of further research. Moreover, providing the participating teacher with more time to practice repetition in order to prevent ignoring the errors and wrong use of feedback types could be another alternative for further research. Alternatively, problems in training a teacher to use repetition might be avoided by enlisting a teacher who already uses repetition as corrective feedback.

APPENDIX A THE GRAMMAR TEST OF THE CONTROL CLASS

Complete the questions and/or sentences, using the verbs (and pronouns) given, in their proper form:
1. _____ something else to paint the tables? *you, need*
2. What _____ about right now? You look really happy! y*ou, think*
3. A preference of blue to red _____ that you are a calm person. *mean*
4. A: When the weather is sunny, I feel happier.
   B: I _____ with you. *Agree*
5. _____ at the library in the evening? *she, study*
6. A: Is she a good player?
   B: Yes, she _____ pool well. *play*
7. A: Who is that person next to Isa?
    B: Fatih _____ next to Isa. s*it*
8. A: _____ in politics? *you, interest*
   B: Yes, I love politics!
9. She _____ what Tokat is famous for. *not, know*
10. Unfortunately, she _____ the wrong bus, and she was late for the class this morning. *take*
11. I _____ the word 'happened' when the teacher asked me to. s*pell*
12. I saw a wounded bird in the street, I ___ it in my hand, and took it to a vet. *hold*
13. He gave me a letter, but I _____ the letter. *tear*
14. A: Game is over!
    B: Who _____ the game? *win*
    A: Of course, the teacher.

APPENDIX B THE GRAMMAR TEST OF THE EXPERIMENTAL CLASS

Complete the questions and/or sentences, using the verbs (and pronouns given, in their proper form:
1. A: What did you do in Egypt?
   B: I _____ horses. *ride*
2. _____ an elephant? *you, ever, ride*
3. _____ in love with her two years ago. *be*
4. A: When _____ you go to Brazil? *be*
   B: I went to Brazil in 2005.
5. A: What did you do in Scotland?
   B:I _____with the girls. *dance*
6. Since I _____ here, I have studied English. *come*
7. A: What's your favourite team?
   B:My favourite team ___ Beşiktaş. *be*
8. A: Why do you like Tarkan?
   B: Because he _____ very well. *sing*
9. I have been at this school since the beginning of January. My classes _____ in January 6th . *begin*
10. Before I came here, I _____ anyone from Zimbabwe. *never, meet*
11. I _____ tea in "teachers' house" at the weekend. *drink*
12. A: Do you have a car?
    B: No, I _____ . *not*
13. A: Have you eaten in the new Chinese restaurant?
    B: Yes, I have. We_____ there last night. *eat*
14. A: Do you like tea?
    B: Yes, I _____. *do*

APPENDIX C SAMPLE TRANSCRIPTION, CONTROL CLASS INTERVIEW

Researcher*: Hi Nilay! How are you?*
Nilay*: I'm fine, thank you, and you?*

Researcher: *Thanks, I am OK. First of all, I would like to ask why you think I have videotaped your classes. What do you think my aim was?*

Nilay: *Well, as far as I've heard you are doing your MA, I think that's why..*

Researcher: *Then, what do you think my study is about?*

Nilay: *It may be about our teacher's attitudes towards his students?*

Researcher: *Well, not that one! Now, I will ask you to watch these episodes from your class and another class that I also videotaped. Then, you may realize why I observed your classes. Ready?*

Nilay: *Yes.*

[...]

Researcher: *This was the episode from your class. What happened here?*

Nilay: *The teacher asked a question and Kerim answered it.*

Researcher: *What happened next?*

Nilay: *……*

Researcher: *Did he correctly answer it?*

Nilay: *No! He did not! He said preference to red mean..*

Researcher: *And what did the teacher do?*

Nilay: *He said "preference to read means". He put 's' there.*

Researcher: *Perfect! So what did he do?*

Nilay: *He corrected it.*

Researcher: *Good! He corrected it. How did he do this?*

Nilay: *He said 'means'.*

Researcher: *OK, now let's see the other episode from the other class. Ready?*

Nilay: *Ready.*

[.....]

Researcher: *What happened here,* Nilay*?*

Nilay: *The student made an error.*

Researcher: *And?*

Nilay: *The teacher corrected it!*

Researcher: *Let's watch it for the second time. OK?*

Nilay: *OK.*

Researcher: *What happened here?*

Nilay: *The student made an error, and the teacher said "be careful".*

Researcher: *And then, what did he say?*

Nilay: *He said "be careful Ahmet, .. we have eaten there last night?"*

Researcher: *And?*

Nilay: *Ahmet said "we ate there last night".*

Researcher: *So?*

Nilay: *He corrected it.*

Researcher: *Exactly! He said "have eaten there last night?" and Ahmet corrected it. Now, can you tell me what the differences between these two episodes are? What happened in the first episode?*

Nilay: *Kerim made an error and the teacher said "preference to red means.."*

Researcher: *So the teacher..*

Nilay: *..corrected it.*

Researcher: *And the second episode?*

Nilay: *Ahmet made an error, the teacher warned him, and said "be careful".*

Researcher: *And then, what did the teacher say?*

Nilay: *He said "we have eaten there last night!"*

Researcher: *Did he correct the error?*

Nilay: *No, he just repeated the sentence, and Ahmet corrected it.*

Researcher: *So, Ahmet corrected it, not the teacher, right?*

Nilay: *Yes!*

Researcher: *In the first one?*

Nilay: *The teacher corrected it.*

Researcher: *In the second one?*

Nilay: *Ahmet corrected it.*

Researcher: *How did Ahmet correct his error?*

Nilay: *Well, the teacher warned him, and repeated the sentence. Then, Ahmet corrected it.*

Researcher: *Yes, exactly! In your class, your teacher corrected Kerim's error, but in the second the teacher repeated the error, but Ahmet corrected it, right?*

Nilay: *Yes!*

Researcher: *So what do you think about these episodes, and the way your teacher corrected the errors?*

Nilay: *I think errors should be corrected so that we can realize that we made an error, otherwise we cannot learn. Is it what you wanted to learn?*

Researcher: *Yes, I just wanted to learn what your opinions were about error correction. Here, you saw two types of correction ,in your class the teacher corrected the error, and in the second he repeated the error, and Ahmet corrected it, in fact, I wonder which do you think benefits you more, or which one would you prefer as a correction technique?*

Nilay: *Well, I personally prefer the second feedback. When the teacher gives us time to think by repeating the same sentence, I can understand that there is something wrong with it. After a while I can realize my error. I think we can learn better when we are given chance to correct our own errors.*

APPENDIX D SAMPLE TRANSCRIPTION, EXPERIMENTAL CLASS INTERVIEWS

Researcher: *Hi, Meral, you look happy today!*

Meral: Yes, I am.

Researcher: *I will not ask why... Well, Meral, do you know why I have videotaped your classes?*

Meral: I think you wanted to see how the teacher teaches us.

Researcher: *Not exactly, but we'll see. Would you please watch these two episodes from your class and the other class that I also videotaped?*

Meral: OK.

[...]

Researcher: *This was the episode from the other class. So what do you think happened here?*

Meral: The teacher and the student were talking to each other.

Researcher: *Yes, what did the teacher say at the beginning of the episode?*

Meral: He asked a question.

Researcher: *Then?*

Meral: The student answered it.

Researcher: *And, what did the teacher do?*

Meral: He repeated the sentence.

Researcher: *Did he repeat the same sentence?*

Meral: No, he said the correct form of the verb.

Researcher: *You mean?*

Meral: He said "means".

Researcher: *So there was an error in the utterance, right?*

Meral: Yes, he said "mean" and the teacher said "means".

Researcher: *So, the teacher corrected the error.*

Meral: Yes.

Researcher: *Let's see the second episode.*

Meral: OK.

[......]

Researcher: *What happened here, this is the episode from your class. Do you recall this?*

Meral: Yes, Ahmet said "we have eaten there last night", he didn't take "last night" into account there.

Researcher: *You mean that there was an error in his utterance?*

Meral: Yes, he should have said we ate there last night.

Researcher: *Right, he made an error there and said "we have eaten there last night". Then what did the teacher do?*

Meral: He didn't say Ahmet that he made an error.

Researcher: *What did he do then?*

Meral: He said "be careful", and repeated the sentence a couple of times, and then Ahmet could correct it.

Researcher: *That's right. He allowed Ahmet to correct his error by repeating his erroneous utterance. What about the first episode, do you remember what had happened there? What is the difference between the episode from you class and the one from the other class?*

Meral: Well, in the first one, the student made an error and said "mean", and the teacher corrected it, but in this episode, when Ahmet made an error, the teacher did not say that he made an error, he just repeated the sentence so that he could understand he made an error.

Researcher: *Did Ahmet understand and correct his error then?*

Meral: Yes, he understood that he made an error when the teacher emphasized the words "have eaten" and " last night".

Researcher: *So, what is the difference?*

Meral: The teacher's response to the student, and the student's reply are the differences I guess..

Researcher: *So the way the teacher responds to the errors is the difference, and the student's response to the teacher's feedback, right?*

Meral: Yes, I guess so.

Researcher*: That's right! So what do you think about these episodes?*
Meral: They are different!
Researcher*: What else can you say?*
Meral: Well..I liked the way he highlighted the error in our class. He didn't say that he made an error. That's good!
Researcher*: Well, this leads us to another question then…Which one do you think is better for you, or which one would you prefer when you incorrectly uttered a sentence?*
Meral: I would prefer the one in our class.
Researcher*: The one with repetition you mean?*
Meral: Yes, of course, it is better for us to correct our own errors. So I liked what you asked our teacher to do in our class. He repeated, and repeated, and waited for us until we found the correct answer. In this way, he gave us time to think. He doesn't usually give us time to think about our errors. He corrects it and we correct it. But we often don't know how why, and what we corrected! And sometimes, when we have errors, our friends laugh at us, and correct our errors. It is humiliating for us. But in this way, we correct our own errors and that makes us successful in the eyes of our friends.

APPENDIX E TRANSCRIPTION, TEACHER INTERVIEW

Researcher: *Mr. Şener, you used different feedback types in the two classes, one of them was repetition, and in the other class you gave your usual responses to errors. What do you think about these feedback types you used?*

Mr. Şener*: In fact, in the past, I didn't use repetition as corrective feedback, and I didn't even think about our responses to students' errors. Now I realize that error correction is a very important part of learning, and we should pay enough attention to errors and to how we correct them*

Researcher: *So, which one do you think is better concerning the effect on learning?*

Mr. Şener: *I usually correct my students' errors explicitly, and sometimes provide the explanation of the structures but because of you, I think I will use repetition in the future, because I believe that they learn the grammatical structures by being corrected unconsciously in this way. And later, I talked to students after the observations. They said that they would prefer repetition, and it is beneficial for their learning. I also agree with them after seeing that in prep. 1* [the control class] *they still do the same errors, whereas in prep. 4* [the experimental class], *they seemed that they learned what we taught; as I repeated their errors and allow them correct their own errors.*

REFERENCES

[1] Carroll, S. & Swain, M. (1993). Explicit and implicit negative feedback: an empirical study of the learning of linguistic generalizations. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 15*, 357–366.
[2] Dekeyser, R. M. (1993). The effect of error correction on L2 grammar knowledge and oral proficiency. *The Modern Language Journal, 77*(4), 501-514.
[3] Ellis R., Basturkmen, H., & Loewen, S. (2001). Learner uptake in communicative ESL lessons. *Language Learning*, *51*(2), 281-318.
[4] Ellis, R., Loewen, S., & Erlam, R. (2006). Implicit and explicit corrective feedback and the acquisition of L2 grammar. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 28*(2), 339-368.
[5] Havranek G.(1999). The role of corrective feedback in foreign language learning. Retrieved December 5, 2006, from http://www.uni-klu.ac.at/iaa/Department/gh_correction.htm
[6] Havranek, G. (2002). When is corrective feedback most likely to succeed? *International Journal of Educational Research, 37*(3), 255-270.
[7] Heift, T. (2004). Corrective feedback and learner uptake in CALL. *ReCALL, 16*(2), 416-431.
[8] Kim, H. R., & Mathes, G. (2001). Explicit vs. implicit corrective feedback. *The Korea TESOL Journal*, *4*(1), 57-72.
[9] Lightbown, P., & Spada, N. (2003). How languages are learnt (Rev. ed.). Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.
[10] Lochtman, K. (2002). Oral corrective feedback in the foreign language classroom: How it affects interaction in analytic foreign language teaching. *International Journal of Educational Research, 37*(3), 271-283.
[11] Loewen, S. (2004). Uptake in incidental focus on form in meaning-focused ESL Lessons. *Language Learning*, *54*(1), 153–188.
[12] Loewen, S. (2005). Incidental focus on form and second language learning. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 27*(3), 361-386.
[13] Long, M. H. (1996). Handbook of second language acquisition. New York: Academic Press.
[14] Long, M. H., Inagaki, S., & Ortega, L. (1998). The role of implicit negative feedback in SLA: Models and recasts in Japanese and Spanish. *The Modern Language Journal, 82*(3, Special Issue: The Role of Input and Interaction in Second Language Acquisition), 357-371.
[15] Lyster, R., & Ranta, L. (1997). Corrective feedback and learner uptake. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition 19*(01), 37-66.
[16] Mackey, A., Gass, S., & McDonough, K. (2000). How do learners perceive interactional feedback? *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 22*(4), 471-497.
[17] McGuffin, M. E., Martz, S. A., & Heron, T. E. (1997). The effects of self-correction versus traditional spelling on the spelling performance and maintenance of third grade students. *Journal of Behavioral Education, 7*(4), 463-476.
[18] Nassaji,H. & Swain, M. (2000). A Vygotskian perspective on corrective feedback in L2: The effect of random versus negotiated help on the learning of English articles. *Language Awareness, 9*(1), 34-51.
[19] Nabei, T., & Swain, M. (2002). Learner awareness of recasts in classroom interaction: A case study of an adult EFL student's second language learning. *Language Awareness*, *11*(1), 43-63.

[20] Panova, I., & Lyster, R. (2002). Patterns of corrective feedback and uptake in an adult ESL class. *TESOL Quarterly, 36*(4), 573-595.

[21] Philp, J. (2003). Constraints on "noticing the gap". *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 25*(01), 99-126.

[22] Sheen, Y. (2004). Corrective feedback and learner uptake in communicative classrooms across instructional settings. *Language Teaching Research, 8*(3), 263-300.

[23] Ellis, R., & Sheen, Y. (2006). Exploring the relationship between characteristics of recasts and learner uptake. *Language Teaching Research, 10*(4), 361-392.

[24] Tsang, W. K. (2004). Feedback and uptake in teacher-student interaction: an analysis of 18 English lessons in Hong Kong secondary classrooms. *RELC Journal, 35*(2), 187-209.

Seçl Büyükbay (b. 1981) is currently an English language instructor at the School of Foreign Languages, Gaziosmanpasa University, Turkey, where she has been working since 2003. Before that, she worked as a high school teacher at Plevne High School following the completion of her BA in English at Gazi University (1999-2003). She received her MA in English from Bilknet University, Turkey in 2006. Her research interests include corrective feedback, form focused instruction and other issues related to second language acquisition.

Azizollah Dabaghi (b. 1960, Abadan, Iran) received his doctoral degree in second language acquisition and teaching in 2006 from the University of Auckland, New Zealand after having completed his MA and BA degrees at Isfahan University, Iran in 1996 and 1988 respectively. He also finished his high school and higher diploma education in Sheffield, England, where he spent his life for many years.

Dr. Dabaghi has many years of experience both as a teacher and as an international coordinator of Isfahan University. He has been awarded a number of scholarships and grants from different institutions, including Auckland University Full Doctoral Scholarship and Under Four Year PhD Completion Prize. In 1998, he was awarded with a prize for being the efficient civil servant of the year. He is an assistant professor of English, teaching variety of subjects related to second language acquisition and sociolinguistics as well as psycholinguistics; he is currently researching on the role of corrective feedback, focus on form(s) and task-based learning. He has authored two books and his third and fourth will come out soon.

Dealing with English Majors' Written Errors in Chinese Universities

Ping Wang

School of Foreign Studies, Jiaxing University, China 314001
Email: pwang886@hotmail.com

Abstract—Error correction, a common phenomenon observed in teaching activities, is closely studied in the present paper, with particular attention paid to teachers' usual practice and students' attitude. The study shows that while teachers and students share such common views as the importance of error correction and the types of errors that need correcting, there exist considerable discrepancies as to the techniques of error correction. For instance, students do not favour the overall correction, though practiced by most teachers. Such a controversy requires teachers to make possible improvements about their current error correction practice. A systematic strategy is then suggested in the paper, and relevant arrangement of the writing class is discussed, showing the theoretical and practical significance of the paper.

Index Terms— error correction, teachers' practice, students' preference, discrepancy.

I. INTRODUCTION

It is important for both teachers and students to accept the fact that errors are an inevitable part of the learning process (Davies & Pearse, 2002:78). It is through students' errors that "we can see what they are struggling to master, what concepts they have misunderstood and what extra work they might need" (Lavery, 2001). Therefore, errors are often a sign of learning in language acquisition process. However, teachers' behaviours in dealing with students' written errors vary, reflecting different attitudes they hold towards written errors. Some teachers tend to correct all the errors while some tend to be tolerant and still some others do not correct at all.

According to the relevant literature on error-correction (Brown, 1998; Tedick, 1998; Lee, 2005), the following techniques are generally practised by teachers of English to correct students' writing: Overall correction: The teacher corrects all mistakes and provides the correct versions; Error correction codes: The teacher underlines mistakes and uses a code to indicate the nature of the error. For instance, the teacher may use the symbol "Sp." to refer to "wrong spelling", WW for "wrong word", and the like; Peer correction: It is a technique where learners correct each other's work, rather than the teacher doing this; Self-correction: The students themselves, rather than the teacher or their peers, correct their own work.

Still there are other possible approaches for the teachers to give feedback to students' written work. To illustrate, the teacher may ask the students to refer to the textbooks or other reference books to find out correct versions of their errors. Whatever form the correction technique takes, it is acknowledged that each approach has its strengths and weaknesses.

Then key questions are, accordingly, which of the techniques English teachers frequently use, how students like them, and whether they are effective or not. This paper, based on a study, aims to investigate the correction of written errors in the context of Chinese universities.

The key questions raised by this research are borne out of gaps in existing studies and of the researchers' experiences as teachers of English. The questions addressed in the paper are as follows:

✓ What techniques are often applied by teachers to correct students' written errors?
✓ What do the students think of such correction techniques?
✓ What are the common points and discrepancies between teachers' practice and students' preference, if any?
✓ How can teachers improve the effectiveness of error correction? In addition, if necessary, how should teachers adjust the arrangement of the writing class?

This paper then, is an attempt to answer these questions in the following five sections. The first section reviews the background literature on written error correction. The second section outlines the research method, followed by the results obtained from the statistical analysis and evidence. The third and fourth sections provide a discussion of research findings, as well as highlighting their implications for teaching practice. The fifth section is a conclusion of the whole research and its limitations.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

As for the written error correction techniques, overall correction is generally acknowledged as one of the easiest ways to correct errors because the correct forms are provided, but students may not understand why they made those errors and tended to make the same errors when they wrote other sentences. Such cases have shown, to some extent,

that teachers' excessive attention to students' errors results in frustration for students and exhaustion for teachers. It is very disconcerting for students to see many words crossed out, new words added, and an array of marginal comments – all usually written in blood red letters. Thus "when they are faced with an outbreak of unsightly red scribble all over their neatly presented work, is it tempting for them to ignore the corrections and file under 'bin', or even lose heart altogether?" (Lake, 2002:16)

Hairston (1986:117) warns that writing teachers should not be "composition slaves". In accordance with Hairston, Hillocks (1986) and Knoblauch & Brannon (1981: 1-4) have cast doubt on the effectiveness of error correction. Unfortunately, Hairston' and others' advice do not seem to have been taken. The plain fact is that many teachers are still slaving over students' writing.

Ferris (1995:48) states, "Indeed, a hands-off approach to error correction may not work because students attend to and appreciate their teachers pointing out their grammar problems". Despite the controversy about issue of error correction, two factors remain clear. First, "writing teachers seem to believe that responding to student errors is a vital part of their job" (Ferris, 1995: 49). Second, "students are eager to receive teachers' feedback on their writing and believe that they benefit from it" (Leki, 1991: 204; Swales, 1998:151).

Until now, research on error correction has predominantly focused on teachers, for example, the techniques they use in providing error feedback (Ferris & Robert, 2001: 161). Much less has been done to find out what students' reflection is about error feedback. Cohen (1987: 57-69, 1991:13), Cohen & Cavalcanti (1990:16), Ferris (1995: 42, 1997:315-319), Hedgcock &Lefkowitz (1994:141-146) and Radechi & Swales (1998:355-365) have conducted studies to investigate student preferences about and reactions to teachers' feedback. Their research findings suggest that students wish teachers to correct errors for them. Both ESL and EL students expressed moderate preference for the use of correction symbols, and both disliked the teacher using the red pen. Brown (2000:253) puts a compromise view that student preferences should neither be ignored nor put on a pedestal. Any mismatches between teacher practices and student preferences must be examined because students' preferences are not necessarily more effective for being preferred.

How teachers might respond to students' written work to encourage improvements in their writing has been a matter of debate. It seems clear that once teachers have formed the right attitudes towards errors and examined student preferences regarding the feedback they have received, students will be helped and motivated in their writing and this will ultimately lead to higher English proficiency in writing.

Based on the Chinese university context, this paper compares teacher practices on written errors and student preferences rather than only criticise the overall correction, since understanding teachers' and students' views on written error correction can help teachers "predict expectation conflicts that may contribute to student frustration, anxiety, lack of motivation, and in some cases, ending of foreign language study" (Kern 1995:71). In other words, handed properly, teacher error feedback could address individual needs and motivate students.

III. THE STUDY

A. Research Method

A questionnaire and an interview were used to gather data mainly from teachers and students in Chinese universities. The research was designed mainly to discover whether there are discrepancies between teacher practices and student preferences in written error correction. Given the particular relevance, the educational context of Chinese universities assumes in the study, the deputy presidents are also included in the present study, as they are in charge of teaching affairs, and their requirements can be rather influential to teachers' teaching practice. However, the feedback from presidents will only be used for reference in that it may provide certain valuable explanations for our findings.

1 Research subjects

In order to obtain a complete picture of research objectives, the researchers conducted two phases of study, with the 1st phase in Xinjiang Uygur Autonomous Region and the 2nd phase Zhejiang Province and Jiangsu Province. The subjects of the research are 540 students of English majors, 59 teachers and 10 deputy presidents from different universities in the 3 provinces in China. Subjects are randomly selected from a larger sample. See the table below for more detailed information.

TABLE 1
RESEARCH SUBJECTS

Items	Students		Teachers			Deputy Presidents	
	Male	Female	Young	Middle-aged	Senior	Key University	Non-key university
1st phase	44	46	3	3	3	1	0
2nd phase	260	190	15	20	15	3	6
Total	540		59			10	

2 Research procedures

The research in each phase proceeded in the following four stages:

In the first stage, the students were tested on writing a composition entitled *Campus Life* of not less than 200 words. In the second stage, the students' written work was photocopied, and was given to be corrected by teachers with

different techniques. One copy was corrected with the overall correction technique. The students received another copy with no correction at all. The students received a third copy with the selective correction and finally a fourth copy was corrected with each kind of error underlined and coded with symbols. In the third stage, the students, teachers and deputy presidents were asked to complete questionnaires giving information about their attitudes to, and preferences for error correction. In addition, their opinions were collected about the kinds of techniques with regard to error correction and their writing class in general. When the students finished the questionnaires, half of the students were organized in groups of five using the no-correction copies, trying 'the peer-correction'. Another half was trying 'self-correction', that is, they had to edit their own work. In the fourth stage, the interviews were conducted with 60 students, 18 teachers and 9 deputy president in charge of teaching affairs. The results are reported below, with the percentage of responses beside each question.

3 Instruments

Two instruments (the questionnaire and interview) are adopted in the study with different research objectives.

A: Question items in the Questionnaire:

* How to correct?

* What to correct?

* Amount of correction?

* Amount of effectiveness?

* Attitudes towards errors?

* What do you think of your writing class? (For students only)

Since there were three kinds of subjects involved in the study, we made three versions of questionnaire for them respectively:

a.   Questionnaire for teachers

b.   Questionnaire for students

c.   Questionnaire for presidents

B: Interview questions:

* What do you think of the correction technique that you are currently using? (For teachers)

* What do you think of your writing class? & Do you like how your teacher corrects your compositions? (For students)

* Do you think it effective to use the overall correction technique in students' English compositions? If not, could you please offer some suggestions? (For deputy presidents)

4 Data Collection

The two phases of research were conducted in regular English class hours. To ensure that the participants give reliable answers, the researchers, together with the university English teachers, explained to the students that the data collected would be for research use only. The researchers then observed the whole responding process and collected the questionnaires within roughly 20 minutes. As for the interviews, the researchers asked the questions in the environment familiar to the subjects, like classrooms for students and offices for teachers and presidents. In this way, the subjects were generally relaxed, which helped to guarantee the reliability and validity of the study.

B.   Findings of Questionnaires

Question item 1: How to correct?

a. Which of the following techniques do you prefer when correcting students' written errors? (For teachers)

b. Which of the following techniques do you want your teachers to use when they correct your written errors? (For students)

c. Which of the following techniques do you expect the teachers to use when they correct students' written errors? (For presidents)

The findings of item 1 in Questionnaire are shown in Table 2 below.

TABLE 2
FINDING OF ITEM 1 IN QUESTIONNAIRE

Error correction techniques	Students	Teachers	Presidents
Underlining the error	1%	0%	0%
The teacher writes the correct answer.	11%	96%	100%
Self-correction: students receive no correction at all.	0%	0%	0%
The teacher underlines errors and each type of error coded with symbols introduced.	47%	4%	0%
The teacher only corrects certain types of error	37%	0%	0%
Just a cross written next to a line where an error occurs	0%	0%	0%
Peer-correction	4%	0%	0%

Question item 2: What to correct?

a. What kind of errors do you often correct in students' writings? (For teachers)
b. What kind of errors do you expect your teachers to correct in your writings? (For students)
c. What kind of errors do you think the teachers should correct in the students' writings? (For presidents)
The findings of item 2 in Questionnaire are shown in Table 3 below.

TABLE 3
FINDINGS OF ITEM 2 IN QUESTIONNAIRE
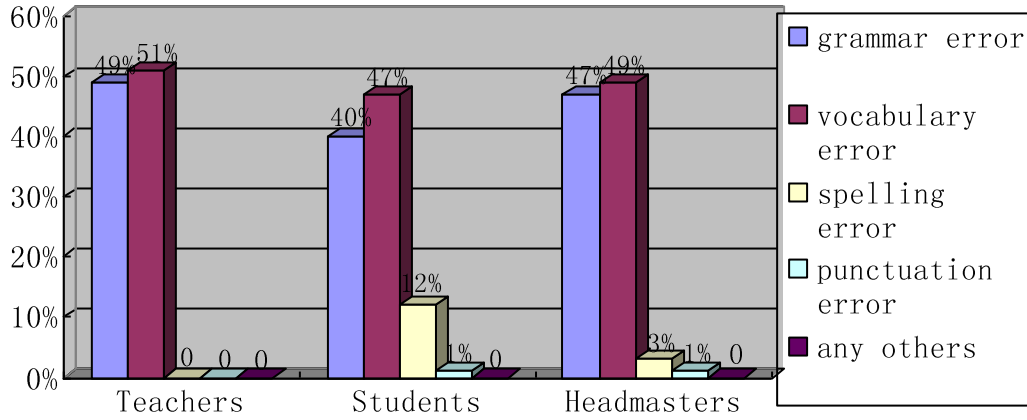
Question item 3: Amount of correction
(1). Attitudes towards present amount of error correction
a. For the present amount of error correction, do you think you need to correct more, less, or the same? (For teachers)
b. Would you like your teacher to correct you more, less, or the same? (For students)
c. As for the present amount of error correction, do you think the teachers should correct students' writing errors more, less or the same? (For presidents)
The findings of item 3 (1) in Questionnaire are shown in Table 4 below.
Table 4: Findings of Item 3 (1) in Questionnaire
(2). Frequency of error correction
a. How often do you provide feedback on the organization of the students' writing? (For teachers)
b. How often do you want your teacher to provide feedback on the organization of your compositions? (For students)
c. How often do you expect the teachers to provide feedback on the organization of students' writing? (For presidents)
The findings of item 3 (2) in Questionnaire are shown in Table 5 below.

TABLE 5
FINDINGS OF ITEM 3 (2) IN QUESTIONNAIRE
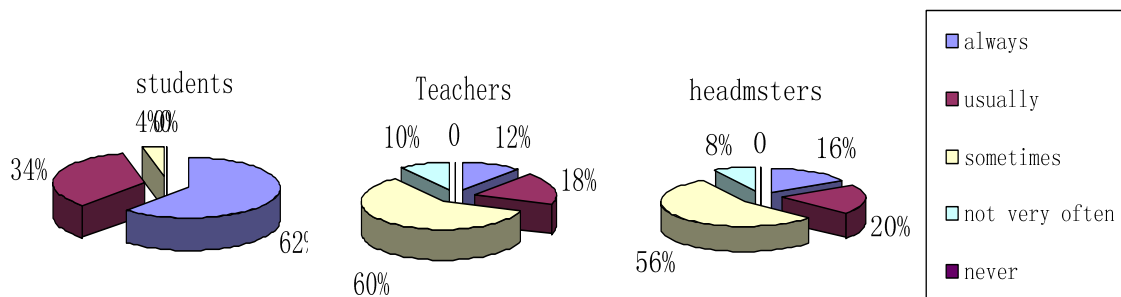
Question item 4: Amount of effectiveness
a. How effective do you think of your current written-error correction. (For teachers)
b. How effective do you think of your teachers' current written-error correction. (For students)
c. How effective do you think of the teachers' current written error correction. (For presidents)
The findings of item 4 in Questionnaire are shown in Table 6 below.

TABLE 6
FINDINGS OF ITEM 4 IN QUESTIONNAIRE

Question item 5: Attitudes towards written errors
a. How important is it to you that there are as few errors as possible in the students' writing? (For teachers)
b. How important is it to you that you have as few errors as possible in your writing? (For students)
c. How important is it to you that there appear as few errors as possible in the students' writing? (For presidents)
The findings of item 5 in Questionnaire are shown in Table 7 below.
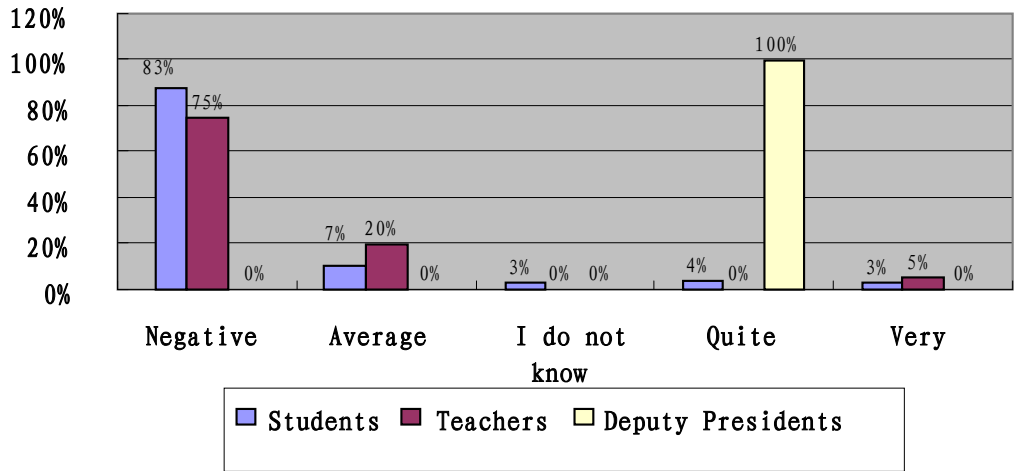
TABLE 7
FINDINGS OF ITEM 5 IN QUESTIONNAIRE
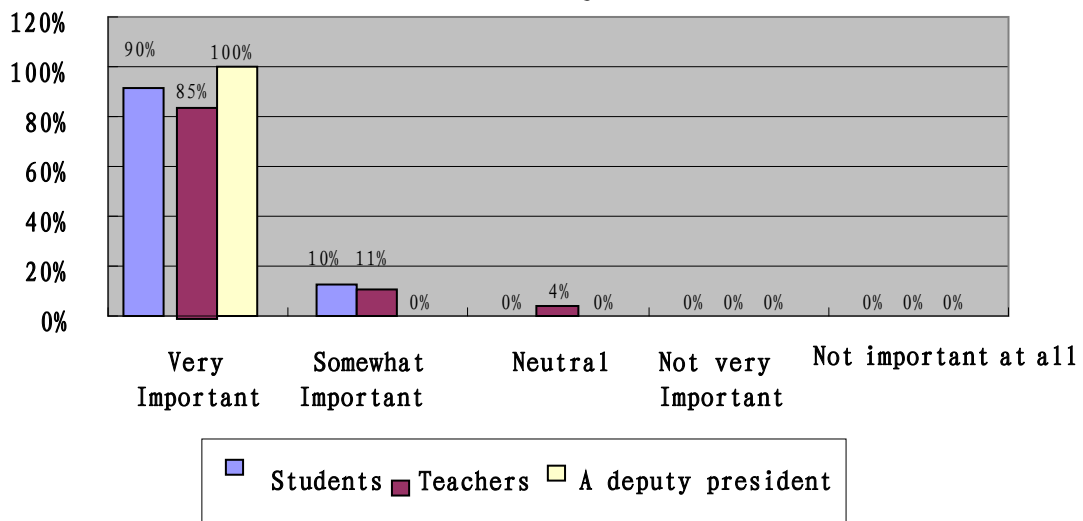
Question item 6: What do you think of your writing class? (For students)
The findings of item 6 in Questionnaire are shown in Table 8 below.

Items	Students
1. Your teacher always helps you to plan your writing in your writing class.	1%
2. Your teacher always helps you during your writing process.	2%
3. Your teacher just declares the topic and then sits down in the front.	99.8%
4. I am afraid of being monitored by teachers when I am writing.	99%
5. I like to be guided to write in writing class.	100%
6. I never feel sure when I am asked to write a composition in class.	89%
7. I like to write my ideas down in the English composition class.	2%
8. In class, I may get nervous because of the fear of making errors.	99.9%
9. I never seem to be able to write down my ideas in English clearly.	98%
10. I have a terrible time organizing my ideas in an English composition.	90.2%
11. I do not like my English composition to be evaluated by teachers of English.	99.4%
12. I like my English writing to be evaluated by foreign teachers.	100%
13. I often use computers and emails at home.	99.2%

C. Interview Evidence

1 Feedback from the teachers

The three groups of teachers, as classified in terms of age in Table 1, provided rather different feedback, showing their different attitudes towards error correction. For young teachers, they liked to correct differently after they saw the students' feedback. They hoped that the school would allow them to correct beyond the traditional ways, i.e. the overall correction. A typical example is Miss Yang, 26, with 2-year English teaching experience, who responded, "Overall correction is my general practice to deal with students' written errors. But since the students showed their dislike to this method, I may try other correction techniques in future work."

Most of the professors thought differently that the data collected was full of fallacy. They did not think that such an argument about error correction should be put to the vote. They would not acknowledge that the overall correction would demotivate students in learning to write. They refused to make any change.

"Discussing and justifying one's own correcting style is a challenging and rewarding experience, which can serve as a reference point for a future discussion", said a middle-aged teacher surnamed Zhang. After seeing the students' feedback, they chose to rethink it and they were eager to have dialogues with students.

2 Feedback from the students

Though the two phases of study were carried out in two different periods of time and in different parts of China, surprisingly, the students' feedback produced remarkably similar result.

a. Talking about their writing and their writing classes

The students never felt sure when they were asked to write compositions, because they were afraid of making errors. They had great fear of their writing compositions being evaluated by their teachers of English with punishments, while they enjoyed submitting their writing to foreign teachers for evaluation. They reported that they had never had a well-planned guided writing lesson, for their teachers would just give them a topic at the beginning of a lesson, and then he/she would sit in the front or wander in the classroom, disciplining the students. When the bell rang, announcing the end of the lesson, the group leaders of the students would collect their compositions and hand them to the teacher. During the interview, the researchers also noticed that the students had regular access to computers with web browsing and email capabilities, which suggested that it was feasible to use computers and Internet in their writing class.

b. Talking about correction techniques

Most students found it very dispiriting if their written work was covered in red ink, underlined and with words crossed out. The students' reactions to the techniques (errors underlined and each type of error coded with symbols) were very positive. They stated that it was very useful and that it was very easy to find their errors and to correct them because they were helped. Half of the students interviewed thought that general symbols were not particularly helpful.

The students said that some errors were too difficult to correct without any help. The majority said they had difficulties in spotting errors. They were emphatic during interviews that they needed help, but they did hate the overall correction plus teachers' punishment.

They liked the peer-correction or the pair-correction, but they were wondering if they would copy each other's errors. If the teacher only put a cross next to their errors, they might feel that the teacher did not spend sufficient time looking at their work.

During the interview with students, the general impression gained was that the students were crying out for understanding from their teachers, which meant that something must be done to prevent the overall correction. However, for academically weaker students, most of them emphatically stated their preference was for detailed and guided feedback and the questionnaires showed the same result.

3 Feedback from the deputy presidents

As the head in charge of school teaching issues, the deputy presidents expected all their staff and students to be admirably industrious and often in need of dissuasion from working too hard. After they looked through the statistics, they all promised that they would consider performing experiments of the approaches preferred by the students in one

or two classes or that they would discuss in a meeting. For written error correction, one of them suggested that teachers of English should take notes on common errors that students made, and during the correction session in class, teachers should focus on some of the common errors and do some re-teaching.

IV. ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

It is hoped that the investigations on the error correction techniques could represent a form of dialogue between the students and the presidents, between the students and the teachers and between teachers and the school. As the research shows, with regard to the topic of error correction, the teachers and students do share certain common ground, but there also exist discrepancies to their views. Accordingly, the following discussion will proceed from these two aspects.

A. Common Views

The first shared view is found among almost all research subjects as to the importance of written error correction. As item 5 in Questionnaire suggests, 89% of the students and 91% of the teachers and 100% of the deputy presidents surveyed thought that there should be as few errors as possible in compositions. Although it is certain that the framing of the questions influenced the results of the research, it was amazing for the researchers to observe total support for written error correction among the subjects. This may work as a prerequisite for studying the discrepancies, so as to improve the effectiveness of error correction.

The second common view can be observed in item 2 in Questionnaire, which is about the types of written errors that should be corrected most. All the students and 87% teachers thought that errors in grammar and vocabulary need most attention. Perhaps students tend to make errors easily in these two aspects, and it is reasonable that poor performance in grammar and vocabulary deserve more efforts in error correction.

Still another common view is outlined in item 4 in Questionnaire, which surveys the effectiveness of current written error correction. The findings show that 83% of the students and 75% of the teachers held negative attitudes towards the effectiveness of the overall correction. But why does the practice of the overall correction continue? The answer lies in the voice of the deputy president, that is, he who has the concluding voice in the school and consequently supports the overall correction technique 100%. This reflects another aspect of Chinese culture: the top-down or power-coercive approach. Moreover, overall correction is perhaps the traditional and habitual technique used by Chinese teachers, and it is not easy to alter such practice or replace it with others.

B. Major Discrepancies and Analysis

In contrast to the common ground shared by teachers and students, there also exist considerable discrepancies in their attitudes. Items 1, 3 and 6 in Questionnaires as well as the interview feedback all show such discrepancies in several different aspects. As shown in Questionnaire 1, for example, the overall correction is still shown as the teachers' and deputy presidents' favoured technique, while the students like to be active, to participate or to be involved in the feedback process.

This is matched with what Leki (1991:203) said, "Students wanted their teachers to show where the error was and to give a clue how to correct it". As James (1998:62) put it, "Note, they did not want the teacher to do the overall correction, but preferred to solve the correction problems at the aid of their teachers' indication or help: they were not looking for the easy way out, but expected to have to work in order to improve." This may well explain why they preferred the correction with symbols, which can provide information on correction, so students can figure out the correct forms by themselves. Students in the survey refuse pure underlining, because students may make wrong guesses about their errors.

Since students' beliefs about the written error correction are "of crucial importance to the success or failure of [their] efforts to master a foreign language" (Rifkin 2000:394), and their juxtaposition with teacher's beliefs highlight areas of conflict, pedagogical implications assume paramount importance. Bada and Okan (2000) argue that many teachers acknowledge the need to understand students' preferences, but may not actually consult learners in planning language classroom activities. This may be for a number of reasons.

Teachers may be restricted by their university policy, institutional practices, as well as personal perceptions about the appropriateness of such initiatives. On another level, teachers may simply be acting on their own beliefs and unwilling to compromise on what they believe to be true. Although Nunan (1988:177) claims that "no curriculum can claim to be truly learner-centred unless the learner's subjective needs and perceptions relating to the processes of learning are taken into account", a certain degree of controversy surrounds the issue on whether it is the teachers who should shift their beliefs in line with their students' views on the written error correction, or vice-versa. Yet, Block (1994) suggests that it is the teachers who should attempt to align their task orientation to that of students, because they have a greater awareness of what goes on in the classroom.

So far, little research on minimizing the discrepancies has been conducted that involves investigations into the effects of instructional interventions, based on Chinese university students' beliefs about the written error correction. No doubt, more research is needed in this area in order to determine the extent of belief change because of teacher intervention. Hofer (2001:372) argues that "there has been a presumption of all those working in this area that educational experiences play a role in fostering development or belief change. However, what types of experiences are most

conducive? What instructional strategies can be best employed? Although the literature is replete with advice, less research exists that clarifies the relation between methods and types of instruction and personal epistemology".

In the meantime, a number of measures or strategies could be taken to ensure that teacher-learner mismatches are minimized, though at the same time teachers need to be aware that Chinese university students have had a significant emotional investment in previous beliefs. Nonetheless, finding 'middle-ground' may not be an impossible task. However, for teachers, examining and re-examining their own assumptions and beliefs through 'internal dialogues' and reflection on their own practice is of particular importance. . In the Woods' (2003) study, teachers were able to reach a compromise, ensuring that both students' preferences and curricular requirements were met. They were able to do so, having re-examined their previous long-standing beliefs.

V. IMPLICATIONS FOR TEACHING PRACTICE

The efficacy of error correction is a central issue for the theory and practice of writing instruction. Particularly important is evidence regarding a serious problem found in items 3 & 6 in Questionnaires and interviews with students: no writing activities were organized in writing classes, which furthered our interests and led us into 20 periods of classroom observations of the writing class (the first 6 in Xinjiang, and the rest 14 periods in Zhejiang and Jiangsu). What we saw is no different from what was read in the questionnaires and heard from interviews with the students. Also in the questionnaire, we can see that the students held a negative and pessimistic attitude towards the writing. They were forced to write and they were afraid of their work being evaluated by the teachers of English, while they did not fear that their work was assessed and evaluated by foreign teachers. So the suggested way of dealing with students' written errors is to plan the writing classes well by designing coherent and guided classroom activities, to teach writing using task-based approaches and to train students to organise their paragraphs or sentences in a coherent way. When teachers are preparing for the writing class, they should ask themselves: "A) Why should we teach writing? B) How should the writing class be planned and organized? C) What is the teacher's role in the teaching of writing? D) What kind of writing should students do?" (Harmer 2000:168)

A. Minimising the Gap: a Process Approach to Writing with Systematic Correction Strategies

The product-oriented method of teaching writing pays a great attention to the accuracy of the final product but ignores the writing process, discouraging the students from learning to write. From the items 3 & 6 in Questionnaires, we can see what really matters is the help that the teacher provides to guide students through the process that they undergo when they are writing. This is called the process approach to writing (Wang 2006:86). In keeping with Wang (2006), Rivers (1986:1-7) argues that many writing weaknesses can be traced back to a lack of thorough, systematic training during the earlier stages of foreign language learning. She also notes that to be effective, systematic training in writing requires systematic correction of individual script.

In view of the present situation of written error correction, as revealed by the research, teachers need to detect the existing problems and solve them accordingly. Identifying and then minimizing the gap is crucial to providing teachers with defendable pedagogical practices that are in line with students' belief and expectations. Accordingly, the implications of the present study can be practically applied in two aspects: adoption of appropriate correction techniques, and systematic organization of the writing class.

B. Some Suggestions

Based on the research findings and analysis, we hereby propose several suggestions on the organization of the writing class and varied error correction techniques so as to provide some implications for English teaching activities in similar educational settings.

1 Suggestion 1: Raising students' awareness by using preventative / error-awareness activities

Based on the analysis of errors, some of the written errors, especially the errors caused by mother tongue interference, can be prevented from occurring. The purpose of using preventative /error-awareness activities is by and large "to encourage them to review and monitor their own written work more carefully; to encourage them to take responsibility for the standard of their own written work; and to help them develop self-help strategies for sorting out grammatical problems" (Brooks & Grundy 1998:146).

The reason why it is better to be aware of errors in written work and take preventative action is that it is very disheartening to students and teachers alike for a piece of work to be returned covered in red ink.

On Internet, a vast majority of websites consist of multiple-choice and fill-in-the-blank activities. For preventative purposes, the activities from the websites can be used before students start their writing. For remedial purposes, they can be used after students' work has been marked. The repetition of the same structure does not have to be mechanical and boring, and it can be a useful avoiding or remedial technique. It is useful because some errors seem to be the result of strong habit formation, and to break a bad habit, we need to reinforce or replace it with a good one.

2 Suggestion 2: Systematic correction strategies

In teaching practice, no matter how much we try to prevent errors with various strategies, no matter how much creative freedom we might like to give the student, or how much we dread the act of correction, ultimately we find ourselves with pen in hand, diligently scanning students' compositions in search of errors and analyzing errors. So,

finding effective techniques of correcting students' written errors is still a practical task for all EFL teachers, but for Chinese teachers of English it is particularly challenging. Five major ways of proofreading (marked A, B, C, D and E) are discussed as follows.

A. Using games

The games not only help to develop students editing skills in a fun way, but also enable the teacher to focus on key errors without individual students losing face.   "Students can catch more than 60% of their own errors if they are taught to proofread and held to appropriate standards of correctness" (Porte 1988:167-172).

B. The four-step strategy

Doff (1988:68) suggests the four-step strategy for systematic proof-reading. Doff suggests that students read the compositions four times but each time with a different focus.

a. Discussing common errors as a class

From Kroll (2001:219-232), teachers select some of the most common and significant errors students make. And write on the board the sentences that the students themselves have produced in written work containing these errors, which include one or two perfectly correct sentences, also produced by the students. Teachers keep all the sentences anonymous, asking the students to work in pairs, to identify the sentences with errors and decide what exactly is wrong, and correct them. Then teachers check with the whole class and discuss the errors and the rule. Another strategy is to establish "the error of the week" on Monday. It should be a significant error that most learners sometimes make that particular error; the other students should raise their hands. Note who raises their hands first and congratulate them. Of course, the student who makes the error can raise his or her own hand—we often notice our errors the moment we have made them.

b. The selective correction

Teachers may concentrate on one particular area to do error correction work. 36% of the students investigated in the research like this technique because of the following three possible reasons: one reason may be that students in the selective error correction might feel more confident about composing. A second reason is that the correction might fix corrections in students' long-term memory. A final reason is that the selective correction might improve students' attitudes towards writing and reduce students' writing anxiety more than the other techniques.

c. Using a corrective code

This is a very useful and time saving technique for the busy teacher. It may not be new for the teachers in the Western countries (the foreign teachers working in the university where I did the research frequently use this technique to correct students' written errors), but for the university teachers of English in China, it is perfectly innovative to the overall correction.

Teachers can use a code that indicates to students the types of error they have made and it will involve them in more conscious assessment of what they have produced. For instance, T. (tense), Sp. (spelling), W.W. (wrong word), P. (punctuation), W.O. (wrong order), S-V. (subject verb agreement), ˇ (omit) etc. For better students, teachers go further than this and simply give references to grammar books, software, or websites where the particular point that the student has improperly produced is dealt with.

The advantage of this technique is that it will lead students, if they are given adequate time, to work out for themselves what is wrong, and to go some way towards correcting it. Many students (48%) in the present research have shown interests in the use of a code of indications written in margins or over the error.

d. The peer correction

From Harmer (2000:140), teachers ask students to exchange drafts of their work in progress and supply one post-it sticker of each colour the teacher has available to each student. If the teacher only has one colour, he may give each student four post-it notes to start with. It is necessary to explain to the students that are going to make comments on each other's drafts on the post-its and stick them at the most appropriate places on the draft. If students are working with several colours, each colour should be used for a different category of comment. Possible categories include content, spelling, punctuation, accuracy, layout, vocabulary and structure. The teacher can specify which categories the students should use, the teacher can write a list of possible categories on the board and allow them to choose, or the teacher can insist that everyone comments on content and then chooses whichever other categories they think appropriate. Teachers must stress that the purpose is to provide the original writers with useful advice that they can use in a rewrite.

Many students in the research held negative views of the peer correction, because they had the same worry as Hughes J. (2005) did, "there is a danger that a student may be getting incorrect information from a peer, but careful monitoring on your part can resolve this." But we still claim that we should encourage our students to correct each other in pairs or in group work. It encourages team spirit and has the benefit of reinforcing the language in the other students' own minds as well.

C. The self-correction with error logs or checklists

Another strategy that we recommend is to ask the students to keep logs of their errors so that both teachers and students have a record of the errors that keep appearing. Teachers should look over the lists of errors in students' logs and talk to the students about their perceptions of what they were trying to do when they made the errors. If teachers

discover that they have students with problems that neither they nor their students can solve by keeping logs and discussing the patterns with each other, then consult other teachers or even language specialists for help.

D. The one-to-one correction

From James (1998:247), conferencing allows both students and teachers a chance to trace the causes of the problems arising from students' writing and feedback, and to develop strategies for improvement. During these sessions, teachers can ask direct questions to students in order to gain a deeper understanding of students' writings. In addition, students are able to express their ideas more clearly in writing and to get clarification on any comments that teachers have made. Finally, teachers can use conferencing to assist students with any specific problems related to their writing.

E. Writing encouraging comment*s*

Another thing that teachers must be sure of in teaching writing in Chinese university is that, while views on approaches to error correction may vary, the need to balance error-spotting with words and phrases like "Well done!", "Great!", "That's really good!", "You did very well!". Complementing students on successes and positive reinforcement of what they do well should be integrated in any approach to error correction. It may even have greater benefits than the tireless pursuit of what went wrong.

3 Suggestion 3: A suggested systematic training approach to teaching writing

Writing is a skill that has been neglected in English language teaching in universities in China. However, as more and more communication is necessary in all walks, more and more work is done through writing. As teachers of English, we should come to realize the importance of developing students' writing skills. We put forward three suggestions here (marked A, B and C below) to help university teachers of English better organize the writing class and furthermore, improve students' writing abilities.

A. Planning a lesson with integrative skills

The planning of a writing class with integrative skills is an important part of developing students' writing ability. Writing lessons can be planned as integrated skills sessions, moving, for example, from reading/listening, to discussion, to role-play and finally to writing. Of course, this kind of session is possible only if you have sufficient time, as well as in a collaborative group (Harmer 2000:141). Willis (1981:.206) says that before students start to write, teachers should make sure that students 1) can say it; 2) can read it; 3) can understand it; 4) know what teachers want them to do; 5) know how teachers want them to do it; 6) know how and why they are doing it. Such is true of the teaching writing in Chinese universities, because firstly we have found that teaching writing in Chinese universities is in a dilemma; secondly, if the four skills are involved in a writing class, not only will the writing class become active, but also students' writing ability may be improved. Accordingly, some of the students' errors can be avoided. A lesson plan briefly shows the process of teaching a writing class with the four skills integrated.

B. Teaching guided writing

Writing work done in the classroom falls on a continuum from copying to free writing (Brookes & Grundy 1998:146). Guided writing emphasizes to students that writing is a process with several stages: planning, drafting, revising and proofreading. In practice, firstly students are encouraged to think about the topic before they write. They 'brainstorm' ideas and approaches and discuss the topic with other students, getting new ideas and clarifying their own thoughts (Harmer 2000:140). Teachers can find some similar issues in books, magazines or Internet, and students can see the sample writings. Then the class works on a piece of similar writing together. Students do some preliminary writing exercises, namely, taking notes, answering questions, ordering ideas, linking sentences, etc. Then students can work through some language exercises containing the language that may be useful in their writing on the computers. Finally, they prepare a rough draft of writing for discussion, proofreading and revision.

Students often benefit most when the writing work of the semester can be conceived as one project, phased in stages or logical sequences. Moving through a logical sequence of assignments is one way to increase the level of conceptual difficulty gradually, and to ensure that students build on material they have studied in earlier portions of the syllabus (Harmer 2000:221).

In short, we believe the guided writing is a preferable alternative to simply giving students' titles and leaving them to get on with compositions in the classroom. It is a much more effective way of teaching a writing class.

C. Training students to learn to organise the composition

English (2005:10) stresses, "An important part of writing is awareness of how a text is organised and the impact of that organisation on the reader." Here, English is expressing a great need for organising compositions into coherent pieces of work. For example, she stresses the need for linking of ideas, i.e., within sentences, between sentences and between paragraphs. It is a key aspect of writing development and is typically her and other researchers such as Brookes and Grundy (1998:147) advocate a Western style of writing that. Not only will the teaching procedure in the lesson plan help the teachers, but also it will inevitably help students to understand the underlying processes of writing English compositions. It will moreover enhance students overall grasp of the English language.

VI. CONCLUSION

Errors are evidence of the learning process and therefore should be viewed with proper attitude. This study investigated teachers' practice of and students' preferences about error correction techniques in the settings of universities in China.

The research findings suggest that there are both common ground and discrepancies in the views of the two major groups of subjects: university students and teachers of English. Their shared views are revealed in the importance of error correction, the types of errors that need correcting, and the ineffectiveness of current error correction practice.

The discrepancies of their opinions, we believe, demand more of our attention. First, overall correction, though favoured and practiced by most teachers and presidents, does not seem to be popular with students, who expect to participate or be involved in the feedback process. Second, most students would like the teachers to correct their writings less, while teachers and presidents prefer to keep the current amount. Third, the students complained about their ill-structured English writing class and lack of guidance in the writing process.

Based on such findings, we further proposed some suggestions to minimize the gap between teachers' and students' viewpoints as to written error correction. First, the teachers may try to raise students' awareness by using preventative activities. Moreover, the teachers to enhance students' participation and involvement can adopt a systematic error correction strategy, like games, selective correction, using corrective codes, writing encouraging comments, etc. Finally, a systematic approach to teaching writing was put forward to help teachers better organize and guide students' composition writings. On the whole, it is believed that the discrepancies between teacher practices and student preferences will be narrowed when English majors in Chinese universities are given a more active role in teachers' dealing with written work errors and the writing classes.

However, the study has some limitations. On the one hand, the findings of the study are limited by the small sample size and the short period of time during which the study was conducted. Therefore, the findings may appear particular and its external validity may be affected. We also concede that the data collected was probably influenced by some internal (psychological) and external (environmental) factors. For example, a student or a teacher may be in a particularly good mood or be distracted by things that concern him/her outside the classroom.   Thus, a replication of this research on a larger scale would be appropriate in order to gain results that can be generalised beyond the sample of the study.

REFERENCES

[1] Bada, E., & Okan, Z. (2000). Students' language learning preferences. *TESL-EJ, 4* (3), A-1. Retrieved 17th January, 2007 from http://writing.Berkley.edu/TESLEJ/ ej15/a1.html
[2] Barkhuizen, G.P. (1998). Discovering learners' perceptions of ESL classroom teaching/learning activities in a South African context. *TESOL Quarterly*, *32* (1).
[3] Block, D. (1994). A day in the life of a class: Teacher/learner perceptions of task purpose in conflict. *System, 22*(4), 473-486.
[4] Brookes, A. & Grundy, P. (1998). Beginning to write. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
[5] Brown, C. (1998). Errors in language learning and use: Exploring error analysis. Longman.
[6] Brown, H.D. (2000). Principles of language learning and teaching. Longman.
[7] Cohen, A D, & Cavalcanti M C. (1990) Feedback on compositions: Teacher and student verbal reports. In B Kroll (Ed.), *Second Language Writing: Research Insights for the Classroom.* Cambridge*:* Cambridge University Press.
[8] Cohen, A.D. (1991). Feedback on writing: the use of verbal report. *Studies in second language acquisition.* Cambridge*:* Cambridge University Press.
[9] Davies, P. & Pearse, E. (2002). Success in English teaching. Shanghai: Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press.
[10] Doff, A. (1988). Teach English. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
[11] English, F. (2005). A handbook for university study. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
[12] Ferris, D.R. (1995). Student reactions to teacher response in multi-draft composition classroom. *TESL Quarterly 8*
[13] Ferris, D.R. (1997). The influence of teacher commentary on students' revision. *TESOL Quarterly 31*.
[14] Ferris, D. & Roberts, B. (2001). Error feedback in L2 writing classes: How explicit does it need to be? *Journal of second language writing, 10* (3), 161-184.
[15] Hairston, M. (1986). On not being a composition slave. In C.W. Bridges(Ed.), *Training the new teacher of college composition* Urbana, IL: NCTE.
[16] Harmer, J. (2000). How to teach English. Beijing: Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press.
[17] Hedgcock, J. & Lefkowitz, N. (1994). Feedback on feedback: assessing learner receptivity to teacher response in L2 composing. *Journal of Second Language Writing , 3* (2), 141-163.
[18] Hillocks, G. (1986). Research on written composition: New directions for teaching. Urbana, IL: ERIC Clearninghouse on Reading and Communication Skills and the National Conference on Research in English.
[19] Hofer, B.K. (2001). Personal epistemology research: Implications for learning and teaching. *Journal of Educational Psychology Review*, *13* (4), 353-383.
[20] Hughes, J. (2005). Find the right way to right the wrongs *Guardian Weekly* from www.guardianweekly.co.uk
[21] James, C. (1998). Errors in language learning and use-- Exploring error analysis. Longman.
[22] Kern, R. G. (1995). Students' and teachers' beliefs about language learning. *Foreign Language Annals*, *28* (1), 71-92.
[23] Knoblauch, C. & Branon, L. (1981). Teacher Commentary on Student Writing: The State of the Art. *Freshman English News, 10* (2), 1-4.
[24] Kroll, B. (2001). Considerations for teaching an ESL/EFL writing course. In M. Celce-Murcia (Ed.), *Teaching English as a second or foreign language* (3rd ed.) (pp.219-232). Boston, MA: Heinle and Heinle.
[25] Lake, J. (2002). Correcting written work. *IATEFL* Issues April-May 2002.
[26] Larsen-Freeman, Diane & Michael H. Long.(1991). An introduction to second language acquisition research. New York: Longman.
[27] Lavery, C. (2001). Language assistant from http://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/

[28] Lee, I. (2005). Error correction in the L2 writing classroom: What do students think? *TESL Canada Journal*, *22* (2).

[29] Leki, I. (1991). The preference of ESL students for error correction in college-level writing classes. *Foreign language annals*, *24* (3).

[30] Nunan, D. (1988). The learner-centred curriculum. Cambridge: Cambridge University.

[31] Press.Porte, G. (1988). Poor language learners and their strategies for dealing with new vocabulary. *English language teaching journa*l, *42* (3).

[32] Radecki, P. M. & Swales, J. M. (1988). 'ESL student reaction to written comments on their written work', *System,16* (3).

[33] Rifkin, B. (2000). Revising beliefs about foreign language learning. *Foreign Language Annals, 33*(4), 394

[34] Rivers, W.M. (1986). Comprehension and production in inactive language teaching. *The modern language journal*, *70*.

[35] Swales, J. (1988). 20 years of the TESOL Quarterly. *TESOL Quarterly*, *22*(1).

[36] Tedick, D. (1998). *Research on error correction and implications for classroom teaching* Longman. from http://www.carla.umn.edu/immersion/acie/vol1/May1998.pdf#search=%22error%20correction%20and%20error%20analysis%22

[37] Wang Q. (2006). A Course in English language teaching. Beijing: Higher Education Press.

[38] Willis, J. (1981). Teaching English through English. Longman.

[39] Woods, D. (2003). The social construction of beliefs in the language classroom. In P. Kalaja, & A. M. F. Barcelos (Eds.), *Beliefs about SLA: New Research Approaches* (pp. 201-229). Dordrecht: Kluwe Academic Publishers

Ping Wang is Associate Professor at College of Foreign Studies, Jiaxing University. His research interests are in applied language studies and the cultural awareness in language teaching. His work has appeared in a number of scholarly journals and edited Wiley-Blackwell, Routledge, or among others.

Professor Wang is a member of IATEFL and a member of World Chinese Association.

Conceptual Metaphor Theory and Teaching of English and Chinese Idioms

Xiuzhi Li

School of Adult Education, Dezhou College, Dezhou, China
Email: lcdxlxz@163.com

Abstract—**This paper talks about the relationship between conceptual metaphor and semantic motivation of English and Chinese idioms from three aspects, namely, structural metaphor, orientation metaphor and ontological metaphor. Based on that, the author puts forward applying conceptual metaphor theory to English and Chinese idiom teaching.**

Index Terms— **conceptual metaphor theory, semantic motivation, English and Chinese idiom**

I. INTRODUCTION

Traditional view of idioms holds that idioms are not motivated and their formation is arbitrary. However, cognitive linguists shed new light on this problem. Cognitive linguists including Keysar and Bly (1999) suggest that some idioms make sense because they are motivated by conceptual structures that exist independently of language. Lakoff and Johnson (1980) argue that "the concept is metaphorically structured, and the activity is metaphorically structured, and, consequently, the language is metaphorically structured" (1980: 5). From the statements, we can perceive the metaphorical nature of language and pervasiveness of metaphors. Idioms as an important part of language also take on the feature of metaphor. Based on a large quantity of English and Chinese idiomatic expressions, we find that many idioms are generated from the underlying conceptual metaphors. In this thesis, the linguistic expressions refer to the idiomatic expressions or idioms as the study objects. The author aims at illustrating the cognitive motivations of English and Chinese idioms based on the conceptual metaphor theory, based on which the author will illustrate how to implement the teaching of cognitive motivation of English and Chinese idioms.

II. CONCEPTUAL METAPHOR AND SEMANTIC MOTIVATION OF IDIOMS

According to the cognitive semantics, metaphor is no longer considered merely as an ornamental device that is restricted to literature and poetry. They nonetheless are part of our knowledge of how people talk about abstract concepts, and play a role in our comprehension of figurative expressions about these concepts. The major contribution of the CMT (Conceptual Metaphor Theory) is that conceptual metaphor enables us to organize metaphorical expressions, including idiomatic expressions in a systematic way. The conceptual metaphor hypothesis assumes that many motivated idioms are based on conceptual metaphors. Lakoff and Johnson (1980) distinguish three fundamental types of conceptual metaphors: structural, orientational, and ontological. In the following sections, the three types will be discussed respectively as to how they are related to the motivation of idioms.

A. Structural Metaphor and Idioms

A structural metaphor refers to a conceptual metaphor that is constructed from one conceptual structure to another. In other words, in structural metaphor, one concept is understood and expressed in terms of another structured, sharply defined concept. With the help of the structural metaphor, we can use the words concerning one concept to talk about another concept. For instance, war is a concept that is frequently mapped onto the target domains such as argument and love. As we know, war is a concrete concept that we are very familiar with, so we often talk about argument and love in terms of war. Everyone knows that war is a very complex process that involves plan, attack, defense, counterattack, fight, win, lose, truce etc. Argument and love are all complex and abstract concepts. As a result, the knowledge of war can be used to talk about the unknown abstract concepts, that is argument and war, because they share many similarities. Consequently, we have idioms motivated by the structural metaphors ARGUMENT IS WAR. Let's first look at some idioms motivated by the structural metaphor ARGUMENT IS WAR:

(1) Criticisms were *right on target*.
(2) *Shot down* all of my arguments.
(3) Is he not entitled to *hit back*?
(4) *wu di fang shi* (shoot an arrow without a target; speak or argue without purpose)
(5) *chun qiang she jian* (cross verbal swords; intense debate)
(6) *she zhan qun ru* (tongue beat a group of intellectuals; debate with group of intellectuals and win)
(7) *yan ci feng rui* (sharp words; intense debate)
In the above idioms, we can see that words in war such as *target* and *shot* are mapped onto argument in (1) and (2);

hit back onto argument in (3); *di* (target) onto argument in (4); *qiang* (gun) and *jian* (arrow) onto argument in (5); *zhan (beat)* onto argument in (6); *feng rui (sharp)* onto argument in (7). This is an example of what it means for a metaphorical concept, namely, ARGUMETN IS WAR, to structure (at least in part) what we do and how we understand what we are doing when we argue. Arguments and wars are different kinks of things and the actions performed are different kinds of actions. But we can use our knowledge about war to understand and talk about argument. Here, war is the source domain, and argument is the target domain. Therefore the knowledge from the source domain is mapped onto the target domain. Thus the understanding of argument.

B.   Orientational Metaphor and Idioms

Unlike the structural metaphors, orientational metaphors do not structure one concept in terms of another but instead organizes "a whole system of concepts with respect to one another" and "Spatial orientations arise from the fact that we have bodies of the sort we have and that they function as they do in our physical environment" (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980:14). In the following parts, I will take up/down orientation as an example to illustrate how orientational metaphors can motivate idiomatic expressions.

GOOD IS UP; BAD IS DOWN

Lakoff & Johnson mentioned "the physical basis for personal well-being: happiness, health, life, and control-the things that principally characterize what is good for a person-are all up" (1980: 16). Let's look at the examples of idioms motivated by this orientational metaphor.

(1) Things are *looking up*.
(2) It's polite to *yield up* your seat on the bus to an old lady.
(3) Bernard has *fallen on evil days* since he lost his job and his wife left him.
(4) He lives *down and out*.
(5) *li zheng shang you* (aim high; strive for the first place)
(6) *zheng zheng ri shang* (becoming more prosperous every day; flourishing)
(7) *gan bai xia feng* (to be willing to play second fiddle; to candidly admit defeat)
(8) *mei kuang yu xia* (go from bad to worse)

All in all, the above mentioned UP/DOWN metaphors can motivate many idioms both in English and Chinese describing such abstract concepts as good and bad. Such metaphorical orientations are not arbitrary. They have a basis in our physical and cultural experience. This view is supported by Wang Yin as following: What do we experience? Of course it is our body. What is the first thing we experience? It is the space which includes place, orientation and movement. So the experience of the body and space is the origin of human concepts and language. Human's cognition is based on the understanding of their bodies and space, developing from far to near, from concrete to abstract, from the domain of body and space to other domains (Wang Yin, 2005: 50).

C.   Ontological Metaphor and Idioms

Our experience of physical objects and substances provides a further basis for understanding—one that goes beyond mere orientation. Understanding our experiences in terms of objects and substances allows us to pick out parts of our experience and treat them as discrete entities or substances of a uniform kind. Container metaphor is the most typical kind of ontological metaphors. We are physical beings, bounded and separated from the rest of the world by the surface of our skins, and we experience the rest of the world as outside us. "Each of us is a container, with a bounding surface and an in-out orientation. We project our own in-out orientation onto other physical objects that are bounded by surfaces" (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980: 29). Thus we also view them as containers with an inside and an outside. Let's look at examples from Chinese and English idioms:

(1) He is *out of sight*.
(2) We're *out of trouble* now.
(3) He *fell into* a depression.
(4) She *fell in love with* him.
(5) *zhi shen shi wai* (to be out of things)
(6) *zhui ru qing wang* (fall in love with)

In the above examples, *sight*, *trouble*, *depression*, *love* in English and *shi* (things) and *qing* (love) in Chinese are all abstract concepts which are metaphorically viewed as concrete concepts bearing boundaries. According to our subconscious knowledge, the meaning of these idioms can be grasped easily. In example (1) from the literal meaning "*out of sight*", we can get the metaphorical meaning "can not see anything".

III.   USE OF CONCEPTUAL METAPHOR THEORY IN IDIOM TEACHING

According to Kǒvecses & Szabo's experiments, the teaching effect is much better when the cognitive motivation teaching is adopted in idiom teaching and learning. However we should not abandon the traditional method completely. Conceptual metaphor teaching method can be treated as an effective complement in idiom teaching and learning, for not all idioms are semantically motivated just as mentioned earlier. Concretely speaking, we can do from the following aspects.

A.   Improving Teachers' Metaphorical Competence

If we want to apply the conceptual metaphor theory to idiom teaching and learning, we should improve teachers' metaphorical competence in the first place, for teachers are the practical implementer of the theory. Both English and Chinese teachers should grasp the conceptual metaphor theory expertly and be good at summarizing the new conceptual metaphors they encounter during the teaching process. Lakoff and Johnson can not generalize all of the conceptual metaphors that meet the needs of idiom teaching and learning because language is undergoing changes continually. This situation puts forward severe challenges for both English and Chinese teachers. Therefore, schools should make every effort to provide opportunities for teachers to further their study of metaphor theory. Only in this way can we laid a solid foundation for the cognitive motivation teaching of idioms.

During the teaching practice process, teachers should make it clear to students how a series of idioms are related to their conceptual metaphor motivation accordingly. Moreover based on the conceptual metaphor motivation, teachers need to encourage students to deduce the metaphorical meaning of idioms, but not list the idioms together simply. Otherwise the desirable teaching results can not reach. Let's take the conceptual metaphor ANGER IS THUNDER as an example. Both in English and Chinese, there exists a minor structural metaphor ANGER IS THUNDER. An angry person reminds both English and Chinese people of a natural phenomenon-thunder, as they are equally alerting and threatening. Moreover, by comparison we find some idiomatic expressions in both languages motivated by this structural metaphor. The following examples can illustrate this point:

ANGER IS THUNDER
(1) When I stood up to him, his face was *as black as thunder*.
(2) He scolded his son, *with a face like thunder*.
(3) *da fa lei ting* (burst into a rage)
(4) *bao tiao ru lei* (stamp with rage)
(5) *lei ting zhi nu* (so angry just as powerful as a thunderbolt)

Seen from the above example, the teacher can give students conceptual metaphor ANGER IS THUNDER first, which is used to express one emotion "anger" both in English and Chinese. Next, teachers should explain the relation between the conceptual metaphor and the series of idioms such as " *black as thunder*; *with a face like thunder*; *da fa lei ting*; *bao tiao ru lei* ; *lei ting zhi nu*". Moreover, it is necessary for teachers to encourage students to guess the idioms' meaning according to the given conceptual metaphor ANGER IS THUNDER. It can be easily inferred that the above mentioned idioms all mean " very angry" generally speaking.

B.   Cultivating Students' Metaphorical Awareness

In the ordinary teaching activities, teachers should cultivate students' metaphorical awareness consciously. Concretely speaking, teachers should carry out the job from two aspects. For one thing, teachers should make students know that metaphors are not only considered to be poetical or rhetorical embellishments, but "in essence, a means of understanding and experiencing one kind of thing in terms of another" (Lakoff&Johnson, 1980: 42). In brief, metaphor "is a cross domain mapping in the conceptual system" (Lakoff, 1993: 203). Since "one reflection of our conceptual system is language" (Kǒvecses, 1986: 3), thus "language is virtually metaphorical" (Richards, 1967: 80). Therefore, metaphors are a part of everyday speech that affects the ways we perceive, think, and act- they are pervasive in language and systematic. For another, teachers should instruct students to command the analytical method of metaphors, cultivate their ability to think and learn independently. In the daily teaching process, teachers should make the best use of the teaching time in class to foster students' analysing ability when meeting metaphors in textbooks. As for the idioms appearing in textbooks, it is necessary for teachers to encourage students to dig out the underlying conceptual metaphor system of idioms. This method helps deepening the understanding of knowledge about target language, thus promoting the learning of English accordingly. Let's take the following English and Chinese idioms as example.

(1) He *hung down* his head hearing the news he failed the exam.
(2) He has been *in low spirits* these days.
(3) He *brought me down* with his remarks.
(5) I *fell into* a depression.
(6) He has been *feeling down* lately.
(7) *chui tou sang qi* (downcast; in low spirits; depressed)
(8) *yi jue bu zhen* (to collapse after one setback)
(9) *wei mi bu zhen* (drooped; in low spirits; dejected)

Seen from the above examples, we can see that the words "*down, low, fell, chui; jue* and *wei mi*" are all closely related to the concept "down" (*xia*). Therefore, both English and Chinese adopt the same orientational metaphor SADNESS IS DOWN to indicate the sadness emotion. So the source domain is orientation "down" (*xia*) and the target domain is sadness emotion. The similarity lies in the fact that drooping pictures goes along with the negative emotions, such as sadness and depression, while erect posture with a positive emotional state such as happiness we mentioned in the previous sections. In a word, the same physical and psychological basis of human beings leads to the same orientational metaphor SADNESS IS DOWN describing the sadness emotion. Furthermore some idioms are generated motivated by this orientational metaphor.

C. Inputting Relevant Cultural Background

To a large extent, Conceptual metaphors depend on the commonness of human being's metaphorical mode of thinking. However, like common metaphors, sometimes they take on the obvious characteristics of national culture. That is nationality (Zhang Guangming, 2002: 165). Lado has once stated that significant differences are the blind spots of foreign language learning. Moreover, cultural differences will lead to the differences of conceptual metaphors. Different living environments, geographical locations, world views and religious beliefs etc are the main reasons that cause cultural differences of conceptual metaphors. As a result, it is rather necessary for teachers to explain the relevant cultural background to students. For example, despite the fact that both in English and Chinese there exists the same container metaphor ANGER IS FIRE. However, it has two versions. One is ANGER IS A HOT FLUID IN A CONTAINR existing in English, and the other is ANGER IS THE HOT GAS IN A CONTAINER belonging to Chinese. By careful analysis, we find some idiomatic expressions motivated by the two container metaphors respectively. Now let's look at some of them:

ANGER IS A HOT FLUID IN A CONTAIENR in English

(1) His pent-up anger *welled up* inside him.

(2) Don't get all steamed up over nothing.

(3) You *make my blood boil*.

(4) I had *reached the boiling point*.

(5) I was *boiling with anger*.

(6)He *gave vent to his anger*.

(7) He is just *letting out steam*.

(8) When he heard she was going to quit school, he simply *blew up*.

(9) *Simmer down*.

(10) He *blew up his top*.

(11) She *flipped her lid*.

(12) He *hit the ceiling*.

ANGER IS THE HOT GAS IN A CONTAINER in Chinese

(13) *nu qi chong tian* (in a towering rage)

(14) *gan qi yu jie* (be irritable)

(15) *nv qi chong chong* (in a dudgeon; very angry)

(16) *qi ji bai huai* (flustered and exasperated)

(17) *qi chong niu dou* (be infuriated)

Now let's turn to the question why English employs the FLUID metaphor while Chinese conceptualizes anger in terms of GAS. The reason mainly lies in the cultural differences between China and western countries. Stanli, a philosopher in the ancient west, considers water to be the source of the universe. Therefore, it is no wonder that in English anger is compared to FLUID in a container, thus the conceptual metaphor ANGER IS A HOT FLUID IN A CONTAIENR and idioms based on it. On the contrary, ancient Chinese philosophers believe that human beings are the outcomes of the cosmos, whose origin and impetus of evolution is mainly the Qi (air; gas). And the philosopher Wang Chong in the East Han Dynasty says that all things in the universe have evolved from Qi. Moreover, the Chinese traditional medicine also has influence on GAS metaphor of anger. In the oldest Chinese medical work, <Huang Di's Orthodox Medical Classic>, it is pointed out that all diseases originate from the malfunctions of Qi. Qi is so pervasive in Chinese culture and language that we find many idioms associated with Qi just as illustrated in the above examples (13)—(17).

We can also explain why Chinese language prefers "Qi" but not "Fluid" in anger metaphor with another important theory in Chinese classical philosophy —Yin Yang Theory. According to this theory, all the things in the universe are generally divided into two categories: Yin and Yang, which are mutually promoted, restrained and are interchangeable. The Qi (air) and fire belong to the category Yang which is related to "hot"; water and other fluids fall into the category Yin which is connected with "cold". Therefore it's easier to understand why the Chinese choose fire and Qi (air) as the metaphorical concept for anger, while English choose fire and hot fluid, because in English there is no such conceptual system about air.

IV. CONCLUSION

All in all, most English and Chinese idioms are motivated by conceptual metaphor in a systematic way, therefore, they can be analysed, which makes it feasible for the conceptual metaphor theory to be used in idiom teaching and learning. However, we mustn't abandon the traditional teaching method completely. We can treat the conceptual metaphor teaching method as an effective complement to accelerate the teaching and learning of idioms.

REFERENCES

[1]   Keysar, B & Bly, B. M (1999). Swimming against the current: do idioms reflect conceptual structure? *Journal of Pragmatics* 31,1559-1578.

[2]   Lakoff, G. & Johnson (1980). Metaphors we live by. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
[3]   Wang Yin (2005). Exploration of cognitive linguistics. Chongqing: Chongqing Press.
[4]   Lakoff, George (1993). The contemporary theory of metaphor. In Andrew Ortony (eds). *Metaphor and thought*. Cambridge: CPU, 202-251.
[5]   Kǒvecses, Z (1986). Metaphors of anger, price, and love: A lexical approach to the structure of concepts. Amsterdam and Philadelphia: John Benjamin Publishing Company.
[6]   Richards, J. C (1967). The role of vocabulary teaching. *TESOL Quarterly*, 10, 77-89.
[7]   Zhang Guangming. (2002). Comparison of English and Chinese rhetoric thought and translation. Beijing: Beijing Yiwen Press.

Xiuzhi Li was born in Dezhou, China in 1972. She received her M. A degree in English Language and Literature from Liaocheng University, China in 2009.

She is currently a lecturer in the School of Adult Education, Dezhou University, Dezhou, China. Her research interests include foreign language teaching and research and cognitive linguistics.

Information & Communication Technologies in ELT

AbdulMahmoud Idrees Ibrahim

P. O. Box 1432, English Language Department, Faculty of Education, Alza'em Alazhari University, Sudan
Email: amdid@maktoob.com

Abstract—**This paper will address modern technology as an Information and Communication Technologies, which has become possible in our communities since the availability of computers. Moreover, to what extend we can exploit it in education in general and English Language teaching / learning (ELT) in particular, according to our conditions and needs. Information Communication Technologies should be exploited effectively to shift from teacher-centered approach to the student-centered approach in teaching or learning English. As technology has created change in all aspects of society, it is also changing our expectations of what students must learn in order to function in the new world. Students will have to learn programmed materials and to steer through large amounts of information via computer into the web, to master new knowledge with these innovative technologies.**

Index Terms— **information and communication technologies, ELT, learning, informationalism**

I. INTRODUCTION

The breakthrough of Information and Communication Technologies (ICTs) has utterly shaped our modern life. ICT is the term that is currently used worldwide to describe new technologies which depend mainly on computers nowadays. Even the traditional technologies such as radio, television and telephone are considered as ICTs.

The United Nations Development Programme (UNDP, 2003) defines ICTs as:

'basically information-handling tools- a varied set of goods, applications and services that are used to produce, store, process, distribute and exchange information. They include the `old' ICTs of radio, television and telephone, and the `new' ICTs of computers, satellite and wireless technology and the Internet. These different tools are now able to work together, and combine to form our `networked world' a massive infrastructure of interconnected telephone services, standardized computing hardware, the internet, radio and television, which reaches into every corner of the globe'.

Technological innovation has changed the social, political, economic, and cultural fabric of life since the end of the Cold War (Taylor, 2001). Information and communication technologies (ICTs) have been instrumental in social transformations – from the industrial society of the 20th century to the 'network society' of the new age of 'Informationalism' - where even intercontinental neighbors are now one button-push away (Castells, 1996). Information and communication technologies (ICTs) are a double-edged sword destructive and beneficial to the extreme. Therefore, we have to face this fact and react immediately. We should ask ourselves about its availability and its affordability concerning its cost in our developing countries. In addition, we have to determine its effectiveness and suitability to the different educational contexts.

The Information and Communications Technologies (ICTs) have a vital role in the process of any language teaching and learning. Evidently, no one would deny its contributions to the educational field. Especially, to the teaching and learning of English language they have a considerable influence on the way we teach and the content we deliver. The new ICTs are much faster than the traditional ones and it might give an immediate feedback as well as the instant interaction.

The ICTs are potentially more open and affordable to be owned and operated by schools, universities, private institutions, or even by individuals, who can control the process according to the one's own needs and wants for better controlled outcome and quality.

II. THE POWER OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE

We are teaching English and learning English, but why do we want to teach English, in contrast with other foreign languages? The given answer is that English is the most widespread language in the world. It is difficult to guess exactly how many English speakers there are. However, according to estimation there are more than 350,000,000 native English speakers and more than 400,000,000 speakers of English as a second language or foreign language.

English Language Teaching (ELT) importance is in its steady progress via many means of modern communication technologies and inventions. Graddol (2000) states that in the year 2000 there were about a billion English learners but in the year 2010 the number will be doubled. Moreover he indicates that over 80% of information which is loaded on

the Internet is in English language. Amazingly, for the first time in history there are more non-native who use a given language than its native users at all.

The importance of English is not just, in how many people speak it, but in what it is used for. English is the major language of news, internet and information in the world. It is the language of medicine, business and political affairs in some countries, where it has other minor languages. It is the language of science and technology in countries where it is not a native language. Moreover, in the workforce competency in English is required beside the very field of specialization. Therefore, English for us is an evitable language to be taught and learned in our educational institutions if we want to keep in touch with the each other and up-to-date in our information.

III. INFORMATION & COMMUNICATION TECHNOLOGIES IN ELT

Sudanese schools and most of the African schools in general rely on the traditional methods of teaching English as second/foreign language such as the grammar translation method or audio lingual method neglecting genuine opportunity provided by these modern technologies. As consequence for many factors when our students leave the high school students who have studied formal English teaching often remain poor to use the language communicatively (spoken or written) when they encounter authentic situations.

Nowadays, teachers of English around the world prefer some form of communicative teaching and learning, rather than the traditional methods of ELT which dominate the teacher-centered approach and neglect the student' communication skills. The teacher-centered approach depends mainly on the learner's memory and did not care about the authentic use of language. Although, a successful EFL teacher is not necessarily restricted to one method or another, the ICTs have changed the pace of teaching strategies to suit the goals of his materials and the needs of his students. On the other hand ICTs have given the students many opportunities to practice English in and out the classroom. With the help of the modern technologies they have time and freedom to understand, reflect and analyze what have been exposed to.

Moreover, the ICTs put forward an influential base for efficient education. Now, we need the modern technologies for a better blended method of delivery to create apt teaching techniques to enhance the process of learning English language. ICTs are very motivating, because they help the learners to learn the language which is carefully designed to meet the prescribed goals.

IV. THE IMPACTS OF ICTS ON ELT

No doubt, motivation is the cornerstone in the process of acquiring or learning a foreign language; therefore, learners usually have a positive attitude toward computers. Even though, the modern technologies are double-edged sword, their advantages are acknowledgeable over its pitfalls. No doubt, they have significant, positive impacts on ELT, the following are some them:

A. Availability of the Materials

ICTs are very stimulating because of the availability of the learning materials whether it is computer-based, in the web or on CDs; therefore, the student can learn at his own pace with a very patient tutor (the machine). Meanwhile, the use of online telecommunications for teaching and learning via the computer in the classroom across the world will consolidate the improvement of different academic skills. The availability of images, animation, audio and video clips they help much more in presenting and practicing new language.

B. Student Attitudes

ICTs have positive effects on student attitudes toward the language teaching and learning. Students felt more successful in school, were more motivated to learn and have increased self-confidence and self-esteem when using computer-based instruction. This was particularly true when the technology allowed learners to control their own learning.

C. Autonomy

Students have the opportunity to choose the element/s of language which they want to focus on meeting their learning strategies or learning styles. Here, the learner-centered approach is supported by these facilities offered by the ICTs while the tradition techniques approaches failed to give such opportunities. The student feels free to practice the language without fear from the others at their own phase and pace.

D. Authenticity

ICTs provide authentic learning environment, because the learner can interact with others across the continent are very motivating to the language learners. Confronting such challengeable situations is the touchstone for using the language in authenticity not artificially. The ICTs as tools for learning are very motivational; however, they are very attractive and accessible.

E. Multifaceted Tools

No doubt, (ICTs) could successfully contribute to two ends: creating a blend of classroom materials and delivering those materials in multiple ways. They facilitate different activities such as testing, doing exercises and performing different pedagogical tasks or games.

F. Help Teachers

ICTs help the teacher to prepared, produce, store and retrieve their materials easily and swiftly. The availability of different rich texts, different topics, quizzes, exercises help in saving the teacher's time. Despite the opportunities and facilities offered by the modern technologies in assisting better teaching, but they do not replace it. So far, the skillful teacher is the only person who is shouldering the responsibility of delivering and achieving the teaching goals.

G. Student-centered

ICTs help the student be exposed to language clockwise and definitely they help them to write and edit their work in order to produce a well published work. Likewise, computers encourage students to do extra work outside the classroom, play language games and, hopefully, gain extra exposure to the language and improve their progress in the language and support the student-centered concept. Via the computer and the internet the students will be able to communicate with others in different places.

Moreover, ICTs help the shy or the quiet students who sometimes abstain from asking questions or challenging information to communicate and ask questions. Using modern technologies in the learning environment has been shown to make learning more student-centered and improve the learning process by stimulating teacher/student interaction. Furthermore, ICTs enhance collaborative learning which results in higher self-esteem and student achievement. They promote critical thinking and student-student interaction.

H. ICTs in Self-Assessment

The examinations generally test the reading and writing skills of the students, totally neglecting the listening and speaking skills, which are indispensable skills for the learners in their future career. The listening capacity can be tested through computer-assisted packages like listening to a dialogue/passage and answering the questions or listening to lectures and then answering short questions or true or false statements. It will enhance their talents for taking international tests because many competitive exams follow such a pattern to test the grasping ability of the students.

V. Shortcomings of ICTs

Instructors should be aware of modern technologies pitfalls if they want to adopt them in pedagogy. Feenberg (2002) and Yagelski (2005) give their warning for the teachers to study carefully the integration of any newer ICTs into English language arts and literacy teaching as a given advantageous outcomes. The development of new technologies and the decision to integrate them into teaching and learning lives is neither a given conclusion nor following a prearranged route.

Teachers, individually and collectively, have the capacity and the responsibility to influence the development, modification, adoption, and/or rejection of newer technologies. In order to make these critical decisions, they will need to understand not only how to use these technologies, but also the benefits and costs their adoption and integration into English language arts and literacy teaching have the potential to create for teachers, students, and the broader community.

We should not take up such serious issues childishly without thinking of the consequences. Since best practice in teaching requires that teaching must be definite to individual students, classrooms, and communities. Such decision-making will require additional research on the classroom at local as well as national levels.

If the teachers and the students haven't got sufficient training to use the new technologies effectively, the process will be frustrating and time consuming.

The quality of programs has not yet reached the level of assessing the users' natural spoken language or the appropriateness of use in the context of the situation.

VI. Designing and Delivering Materials via ICTs

Evidently, learning materials designed and delivered by modern technologies add quality and value to the teaching/learning environment. They should help develop basic thought processes such as critical thinking, analysis, and problem solving. The skillful instructor knows how to get the maximum benefits from these technologies in during the period or course limited life time.

New materials delivered via the Internet that help with the repetition needed for developing reading, writing, and listening in English can reduce hard work for educators and can be entertaining for both the teacher and the learner. Actually, modern technologies can facilitate and motivate the teaching and learning process.

VII. Pedagogical Implications of ICTs

To obtain a better benefit from the potentials of the ICTs there should be the following:

a. Every classroom should be equipped at least with a computer and a data show projector to enable the teacher to present the new lesson effectively.

b. There should be a website for the class designed deliberately for pedagogical purposes. Teachers can exploit this site for assigning exercises, homework and in turn the students can respond to the instruction and the feedback would be immediately via the machine.

c. As the feedback is immediate, the learners can identify their strengths and weaknesses and improve on them. As learner autonomy gets momentum, they facilitate individualizing curriculum, permitting them to dictate the pace of learning and widen the sources of information in the required area.

d. It has been widely recognized that connecting the power of ICTs for learning purposes requires that appropriate learning strategies be developed that harmonize effectiveness in learning with the technology role. This recognition underpins the UfI/National Grid for Learning relationship, and a general interest in fostering innovation in learning strategies (Kearns & Papadopoulos 2000:77).

e. Every student should have an email and he should use his email in sending his assignment and any enquiries to his tutor.

f. The capacity of ICTs to deliver information or to communicate with mass of students in somewhat entities let the process of learning more suitable for the student's need in time and place without the restrictions of the traditional classroom situations.

g. Information technology can only contribute substantially to the improvement of schooling if it is appropriately embedded in powerful and interactive learning environments [established within] the broader context of [supportive] pedagogy, curriculum and school organization (DEETYA 1996:14), when it is so embedded, the improvement could be substantial.

VIII. Conclusion

The use of ICTs in language teaching has countless benefits. The development in the use of ICT, like language lab, videos, satellite broadcast, videoconferencing and web seminars have support the richness and quality of education both on and off campus. The Distribution of the knowledge and learning with more flexibility supports the slogan, "Any space is a learning space." Therefore, our schools and universities should be equipped with computers and internet services not just tools to learn a language, but they contribute to different aspects of educational development and effective learning. We as African teachers should be aware of the challenges facing African education in general and ELT mainly; otherwise we will be wading in the mud of the traditional methods inefficiency if we do not exploit ICTs more effectively and efficiently to attain our goals to adjust to the best quality.

References

[1]   Castells, M. (1996). The Rise of the Network Society: The Information Age, Economy, Society and Culture. Oxford: MA: Blackwell Publishers.
[2]   DEETYA (1996). Gateways: Information technology in the learning process, Canberra.
[3]   Feenberg, A. (2002). Transforming technology: A critical theory revisited. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
[4]   Graddol, D. (2000). The future of English: A guide to forecasting the popularity of the English language in the 21st century (2nd Edition). The British Council.
[5]   Kearns P & Papadopoulos G. (2000). Building a learning and training culture: the experience of five OECD countries, NCVER, Adelaide.
[6]   Taylor, M., C. (2001). The Moment of Complexity: Emerging Network Culture. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press.
[7]   UNDP, (2003). Kenya Human Development Report: Participatory Governance for Human Development (UNDP).
[8]   Yagelski, R. (2005). Computers, literacy and being: Teaching with technology for a sustainable future. http://www.albany.edu/faculty/rpy95/webtext/.

AbdulMahmoud Idrees Ibrahim was born in a small village in central Sudan in 11, July, 1957. He has a Ph.D. in English Language (Applied Linguistics), Neelain University (2006),Sudan - M.A. in English and Linguistics, University of Yemen (1999)- B.A. in Arts & Education (English), University of Yemen (1997 -Professional Diploma of Education, Faculty of Education, Khartoum University (1987- Intermediate schoolteachers' Certificate, Bakht-er-Ruda Institute of Education (1981).

He has many academic contributions such as: Compiled many course-books in linguistics & applied linguistics as well as (ESP) courses, Compiled & instructional designed the following course-books for Open University of Sudan.- Writing skills 1 and writing skills 2. Moreover, he Instructional designed the following course books for Open University of Sudan. He participated and attended many seminars, workshops, conferences and academic sessions in the educational field and English Language Teaching inside Sudan & abroad.

Dr. AbdulMahmoud Idrees Ibrahim–Assistant professor - Now he is the Head, English Department Language, Faculty of Education, Alza'em Alazhari University.

On The Problems and Strategies of Multimedia Technology in English Teaching

Jun Xu

Department of Foreign Language, Dezhou University, Dezhou, China
Email: xujun56cn@yahoo.com.cn

Abstract—The rapid rising and development of Information Technology offered a better pattern to explore the new teaching model. As a result, multimedia technology plays an important role in English teaching. However, some teachers rely so much on the technology that the disadvantage emerges in the teaching process. In order to make more efficient use of the technology and the practical value in English teaching, the paper put forward positive suggestion and strategy by analyzing the problems in the use of multimedia technology.

Index Terms— multimedia technology, English teaching, problem and strategy

I. INTRODUCTION

21st century is the age of globalization that one important instrument is to grasp one or various foreign languages and English language comes first. With the rapid development of science and technology, the emerging and developing of multimedia technology and its application to teaching, traditional teaching model is unfit for contemporary English teaching and therefore multimedia technology featuring audio, visual, animation effects comes into full play in English class teaching and sets a favorable platform for reform and exploration on English teaching model in the new era. It's proved that multimedia technology plays a positive role in promoting activities and initiatives of student and teaching effect in English class.

II. ANALYSIS ON NECESSITY OF APPLICATION OF MULTIMEDIA TECHNOLOGY TO ENGLISH TEACHING

A. To Cultivate Students' Interest in Study

Nowadays, the stereotyped traditional teaching methods and environment are unpopular while multimedia technology featuring audio, visual, animation effects naturally and humanely makes us more access to information. Besides, with such characteristics as abundant-information and crossing time and space, multimedia technology offers a sense of reality and functions very well, which greatly cultivates students' interest and motivation in study and their involvement in class activities.

B. To Promote Students' Communication Capacity

Traditional teaching has trivializes the students' capacity to comprehend certain a language and hampers their understanding to structure, meaning and function of the language, and makes the students passive recipients of knowledge. So it is hard to achieve the target of communication. With teachers' instructions leading students' thought patterns and motivating students' emotions, the multimedia technology class set in new-type internet classroom seeks integration of teaching and learning and provides the students greater incentives. The PPT courseware in university English teaching can activate students' thinking; the visual and vivid courseware transforms English learning into capacity cultivation. And such in-class activities as group discussion, subject discussion, and debates can also offer more opportunities for communication among students and between teachers and students. So multimedia technology teaching has uniquely inspired students' positive thinking and communication skills in social practice.

C. To Widen Students' Knowledge to Gain an Insightful Understanding to Western Culture.

The multimedia disc courseware can offer the students abundant information; the output of multimedia comprehensive English disc is far more plentiful than textbooks, and it displays vivid cultural background, rich content and true-to-life language materials, which are much natural and closer to life. Not only could learners improve their listening ability, but also learn the western culture. Grasping information through various channels can equip the students with knowledge and bring about information-sharing among students and make them actively participate in class discussion and communication. Integration of human-machine communication and interpersonal communication leads to overall development of students' listening, speaking, reading and writing.

D. To Improve Teaching Effect

Multimedia teaching enriches teaching content and makes the best of class time and breaks the "teacher-centered" teaching pattern and fundamentally improves class efficiency. It is very common that the university students have their

English classes in very large yet crowded classrooms. Under such circumstances, it is difficult for the students to have speaking communication. The utilization of multi-media sound lab materializes the individualized and co-operative teaching.

The traditional teaching model mainly emphasized on teachers' instruction, and the information provided was limited. On the contrary, multimedia technology goes beyond time and space, creates more vivid, visual, authentic environment for English learning, stimulates students' initiatives and economizes class time meanwhile increases class information.

III.   ANALYSIS ON PROBLEMS ARISING FROM APPLICATION OF MULTIMEDIA TECHNOLOGY TO ENGLISH TEACHING

In spite of advantages of application of multimedia technology to English class teaching as to improve teaching effect and university students' overall capacities, there are many problems existing in practical teaching, such as:

A.   Major Means Replaced by the Assisting One.

Application of multimedia technology is an assisting instrument to achieve the projected teaching effect. While, if totally dependent on multimedia devices during teaching, the teachers may be turned into slaves to the multimedia and can not play the leading role in teaching. It is observed in practice that a lot of teachers are active in multimedia technology application so that they are much engaged in searching information and working out courseware. In class, they are standing by the computer and students are fixing their attention only on the screen, and therefore, there is no eye contact between teachers and students. CAT has played a dominant role in class, while both teachers and students are enslaved by the computer, and students' initiatives, originality, teachers' individualized art in teaching are totally restricted and erased. The trend of modern information and technology teaching appears to the extremity regardless of the essence of the traditional teaching. And hence, the notion of Creative Education should be fully comprehended that modern educational techniques serves an assisting instrument rather than a target; and that should not dominate class. With the assistance of computer in teaching, teachers are supposed to fully utilize the academic syllabus and teaching material, to find our how much knowledge the students have gained. The multimedia information should be less and better adopted with striking emphasis and breakthroughs in teaching.

B.   Loss of Speaking Communication

For a time, it has been proposed that English class should be carried through all in English language. English language and English analysis by the teachers are effective in conveying knowledge to the students from English pronunciation to comprehension, improving students' English thought patterns and oral expression. Whereas, the introduction of multimedia technology featuring audio, visual, textual effect can fully meets audio and visual requirements of the students and enhance their interest, but it also results in lack of communication between teachers and students, replacement of teachers' voice by computer sound, and teachers' analysis by visual image and students' few chances for speaking communication. With the favorable atmosphere by the mutual communication between teachers and students fading away, and sound and image of multimedia affecting students' initiative to think and speak, English class turns to courseware show and students are made viewers rather than the participants of class activities.

C.   The Shrinking of Students' Thinking Potential

It is clear that language teaching is different from science subjects, for language teaching does not require demonstration by various steps, rather, the tense and orderly atmosphere is formed through questions and answers between teachers and students. Teachers raise impromptu and real-time questions and guide the students to think, cultivate their capacity to discover and solve problems. However, due to over-demonstration and pre-arranged order, the courseware lacks real-time effect and cannot feedback students' study so it ignores emphasis and importance in teaching; it also neglects instruction in students' thinking and appreciation to the beauty of language; furthermore it paid little heed to free learning atmosphere and the notion-"happy leaning". It is plain that multimedia plays a positive role in stimulating students' thinking, inspiring their paths of thinking, strengthening their capacities of discovering, contemplating and solving problems. In this way, it should be noted that cultivation of students' thinking capacity should be the major objective in teaching and multimedia not take up the students' time for thinking, analyzing and exploring questions.

D.   Abstract Thinking Replaced by Imaginal Thinking

The process of cognition goes through perceptual stage and rational stage. It also applies to studying process. It is our hope that teaching makes students adopt the outlook cognition from perceptual recognition to rational apprehension, and greatly leap from perceptual thinking to rational thinking. Therefore, it is the major objective in teaching to enhance the students' abstract thinking. The multimedia technology makes content easier, and with its unique advantages, it can clarify the emphasis in teaching. While if the image and imagination in students' mind were merely showed on the screen, their abstract thinking would be restricted and logical thinking would waste away. At present the decreased students' reading competence has become a major concern for reason that textual words are replaced by sound and image, handwriting by keyboard input. The over-application of multimedia technology would worsen the situation.

All in all, the multimedia as an assisting instrument, can not replace the dominant role of teachers and it is part of a complete teaching process. Besides, it is not a mechanic imitation of teaching, rather it integrates the visual, textual

demonstration with teachers' experiences to contribute to the programmed, automatic and continuous teaching project so as to enhance the overall improvement of students' listening, speaking, reading and writing.

IV. SUGGESTIONS AND STRATEGIES TO THE EXISTING PROBLEMS

In practical teaching, it is improper to duplicate the textual material simply to the screen so that the teacher's position is ignored. In order to ensure the function of multimedia in teaching, it should be noted that:

A. The Beauty of Courseware Is not the Sole Pursuit

It is proved through practice that adequate application of multimedia technology to teaching can make breakthroughs in class teaching. That is to say, during multimedia assisting teaching, teachers still play the leading role that their position could never be replaced by the computer. For instance, the introduction to each lesson and speaking communication are good way to improve students' listening and speaking which the computer cannot fulfill. Therefore, teachers' interpretation shall not be overlooked. Meanwhile, as a practical linguistic science, English should be used very often in class to cultivate the students' communicative competence. Multimedia, as an instrument for assisting teaching, serves the teachers despite its extraordinary effect. So teaching determines whether to adopt multimedia technology. Otherwise, the teachers were acting as the projectionist, clicking the screen.

B. The Computer Screen can't Substitute the Blackboard.

Some teachers take the computer screen as the blackboard. They have input exercises, questions, answers and teaching plans into the computer and display them piece by piece, without taking down anything on the blackboard or even the title of a lesson. It is known that teachers are supposed to simulate situations based on teaching and guide the students to communicate in English. Besides, traditional writing on blackboard is concise and teachers can make adjustment and amendment to it if necessary. Furthermore, experienced teachers know well that a perfect courseware is an ideal project in mind, and that in practice, they need to enrich the content on the blackboard with emerging of new questions raised by the students.

C. PowerPoint can not Take the Place of Student's Thinking and Practices

At present, most multimedia courseware mainly features on image and animation of teaching materials in order to cause audio and visual effect, which lively displays the content of textual materials and helps the students deeply understand the texts. A problem remains that displaying of the content of texts in the PPT courseware cannot take the place of students' thinking or English communication in simulated circumstance. When working on and utilizing the courseware, we need to encourage the students to use their own mind and speak more, actively join in class practice; we should not overuse the courseware merely in the hope of adding the modernized feature to class teaching

D. Traditional Teaching Instruments and Devices should not be Overlooked.

The function of multimedia assisting in teaching cannot be replaced by many other instruments, which does not mean that multimedia can replace any other form of instrument. Some teachers tend to entirely depend on multimedia teaching. While, it should be noticed that although multimedia has its unique advantages in teaching, the characteristic functions of other forms of teaching instruments are still incomparable. For example, the recorder still plays a role in broadcasting listening material. So teachers are supposed to choose appropriate media and instrument based on the requirements of teaching and integrate multimedia instrument with traditional one and fully perform their merits, rather than merely in pursuit of trendy method.

E. Multimedia Technology should not be Overused.

Some teachers may possess the improper concept that they would totally apply multimedia technology in their teaching. It is also believed that the more utilization of multimedia technology, the better class atmosphere may grow, the more actively the students get involved in class participation, the more easily the material access to the students. Apparently, the students show some interest in leaning, but actually, they feel like looking on. In practice, the more unconscious attention the students pay, the more interference of teaching information during transmission, the less the students take from the language materials. It is impossible to effectively train the students' language expression in class time.

It is clear that in spite of advantages of application of multimedia technology, it assists in teaching. During practical teaching, it is part of a complete teaching procedure. In practice, if multimedia technology would be properly implemented in English teaching, the students could make full use of English speaking and listening materials and develop their overall capacities, which is the objective for us to introduce multimedia technology to modern teaching. Thus, this leads to systematic training on students' listening, speaking, reading and writing, makes teachers' instructions come into great play, helps the student gain basic knowledge as well as language training at class, improves their expression ability in English and lays a fundamental basis for their English communication.

REFERENCES

[1]   Limengtao.(2001). Preliminary exploration of English classroom teaching by the multimedia projection. *Foreign Language Circle,* 3.

[2]   Hejunlin,wangyaxiong, liuxueqing.(2005). The existing problems of the multimedia teaching and the improving strategies. *Exploration of Medicine Education,* 4.

[3]   Dengzhongyi.(2005).The advantages and existing problems of the multimedia technology in the college experiment teaching and the settling strategies. *Modern education technology,* 5.

[4]   Jiaoling.(2003). The features, the principles and the methods of the multimedia teaching. *The Academic Journal of National Academy of Guizhou,* 3.

[5]   Weidanhua. (2003).The application of the multimedia in the college English classroom teaching. *Chinese geology Education,* 2.

[6]   Zhanghongling.(2000). The development tendency of the modern foreign language teaching and the computer assisted instruction. *Computer-Assisted Foreign Language Education,* 3.

Jun Xu was born in Binzhou, China in 1956. She majored in English Linguistics and Literature in the department of Foreign Studies, Liaocheng University, China in 1976-1979 and completed equivalent M.A. degree courses on English Linguistics and Literature in Shandong University, Jinan, China in 2002. Supported by Chinese State-funded students studying abroad Project, she was a full-time Visiting Scholar in School of English Study, Nottingham University, UK in 2002-2003.

She is currently an associate professor and the Director of the School of Foreign Languages, Dezhou University, Shandong, China. She has written "Study on analysis of Students' Speaking Error and PETS-Instruction of Students' Speaking Error Analysis in English Speaking Teaching", Vladivostock, Russia: Intelligent Potential of Advanced Education-Development of Russian Far East and Asia-Pacific Development, 2009; "Experiencing in Glamorous Language World", Yantai, China: Journal of Yantai Education Institute, 2004; "Backwash Effect on Current High School English Teaching in light of NMET", Shandong Enterprise Education, 2007; Translation works: The Cambridge Illustrated History of British Theatre', Shandong Pictorial Press. 2006. Her research interests include cross-cultural communication and English language teaching.

Ms Xu is the Director of English Language Institute of Shandong Province. Her publications as "Antidotes to Computer Virus" was awarded the third prize by the 8th Dezhou Municipal Excellent Social Scientific Achievements in 1995; "Influence of English and American Language and Culture on Chinese Language" was awarded the third prize by the 9th Dezhou Municipal Excellent Social Scientific Achievements in 1996; "Basic Exploration on Fast-reading Teaching" was awarded the third prize by the 17th Dezhou Municipal Excellent Social Scientific Achievements in 2004.

Characteristics of the Language of Women in English

Qiuling Bi

College of Humanities, Binzhou Medical University, Yantai, China
E-mail: bqlsherry@163.com

Abstract—This study researches the characteristics of the language of women in English in terms of sociolinguistics. It embraces phonology, specialized vocabulary, communication, grammar. In phonology, features of the language of women are mainly present in pronunciation, tone, pitch. Vocabulary of women is more abundant, polite and euphemistic than men. The features of the language of women contain intensifiers and exaggerated adjectives, interjections, nicknames or diminutive and color words. In communication, it contains speech style and communicative strategies, amount of speech and conversational topics. Women usually use following grammar structures: tag questions, modulation, embedded imperatives and euphemism.

Index Terms—women language, characteristics

I. INTRODUCTION

As we all know, when different genders speak the same language, even express the same contents, they will use different expressional approaches. Through this research, we know how the language of women changes along with society changes in terms of their social positions, social culture and social customs etc. The purpose of this paper is to discuss the characteristics of the language of women in English in terms of sociolinguistics. Sociolinguistics is the subdiscipline of linguistics that studies language in social contexts. It is concerned not only with the language use in different speech communities including regional, ethnic and social groups, but also with the impact of extralinguistic factors on language use, such as gender, profession, and social and so on. If we understand the characteristics of women's language, we can learn of the relationship between social development and language.

This paper focuses on the characteristics of the language of women. It can be concluded as following: phonology, specialized vocabulary, communication and grammar.

II. PHONOLOGY

In phonology, features of the language of women are mainly present in pronunciation, tone, pitch.

A. Pronunciation.

Linguists found that women's pronunciation is more standard than men. In terms of whether the pronunciation is correct or wrong, women always keep their high sensibility in correctness. They often use standard, clear and authoritative pronunciation in order to keep their identity and social status. At the same classroom, the ESL female students will learn English better and quicker than ESL female students.

B. Tone.

In verbal conversation, falling tone expresses the affirmation while rising tone expresses the suspicion or expectation. Generally, women like modulating the intonation, speed and volume when they speak. In some specific situations, women like to use rising tone to answer the interrogative sentences, even at the end of declarative sentences. [2] This means on the one hand, women want to show their politeness and softness, on the other hand, they show their vacillation and nonconfidence in doing something. For example:

Husband: When will dinner be ready?

Wife: of … around six o'clock ?

In this example, obviously wife is cooking and she knows when the dinner can be ready, but she answers her husband with rising tone to show that she is very gentle.

C. Pitch.

High pitch is one distinguished feature of the language of women and they usually speak in high pitch than men due to the biological factors.

III. SPECIALIZED VOCABULARY

Generally speaking, vocabulary of women is more abundant, polite and euphemistic than men. The features of the

language of women contain intensifiers and exaggerated adjectives, interjections, nicknames or diminutive and color words.

A. *Intensifiers and Exaggerated Adjectives.*

Many researches show that women often use them to strengthen what they want to express, such as, adorable, charming, cute, so, such, quite, awfully, perfectly etc. Women usually say: "John smokes a lot of cigarettes a day." Men just say: "John smokes a pack of cigarettes a day." [3] Another example: "I had such fun yesterday at the party."

B. *Interjections.*

Women are more implicative, cautious, gentle and polite than men, so their language is more elegant. "Even when they are disgruntled or unpleasant, they usually do not use coarse words but euphemism, such as, damn, shit, fuck, etc." [4] When they express surprise, they often use "Oh, dear.", "Dear me.", "Good heavens.", "My God."

C. *Nicknames or Diminutives.*

Women like to add suffix "-y" or "-ie" to some words to express close relationships with others (such as, auntie, sweetie) or leave their cute impressions (such as, cookie, panties, birdie). They usually say: "What a lovely doggie!" "The birdie is flying in the sky."

D. *Color Words.*

Women are sensitive in color. They are good at using some color words by describing colors, like "chartreuse, beige, mauve, lavender, azure [2] and so on.

One professor conducts an experiment. He puts different boards with 20 different colors on a blackboard and let students write out the names of color. The result is that female students can write out 71% of the names and male students only write out 46%. Then he let them to distinguish five groups with familiar colors and each group contains two. The result is female students can write out 63% of the difference and male students can write out of 40%.

IV. COMMUNICATION

A. *Conversational Topics.*

In western countries, many of women are housewives, therefore, their conversational topics are traditionally focused on personal relationships including personal feelings, housework, clothes, children, families and so on.

B. *Amount of Speech.*

Generally, people have a fixed opinion that women are more talkative than men. "In the dictionaries, there are plenty of descriptions to describe this characteristic: chatter box, gossip, babble or prattle and so on" [2]. Actually, it is not always the fact. So far almost researches' conclusions are the opposite. In the most conversations, including on the street, at the families or hotels, at the party or some social activities, men talk more than women, esp. the dialogue between men and women.

Why does this situation happen? One explanation is that double standard existed between the men and women. Society prescribes that women should talk little, or else they will be thought they are impolite and flirtatious, even though women talk less than the men but beyond the limits.

C. *Speech Style and Communicative Strategies.*

When women talk with others, they are supportive and cooperative talkers. They are interrupted by men during the speech and usually act as hearers by some minimal responses, such as, "mm", "hmm", "um", "huh" or "yeah" to express their attention to others' speech. So women tend to keep the continuity and fluency of the communication, seldom interrupt others' talking or challenge other's opinions directly. When they want to do so, "they will say: "I'm sorry" or "Excuse me". In public or during the conversation process between men and women, women tend to keep silence "[4].

V. GRAMMAR

Women usually use following grammar structures: tag questions, modulation, embedded imperatives and euphemism.

A. *Tag Questions.*

This kind of sentence pattern has a strong meaning of appeal as well as inquiry which function as polite and implicit expressions. For example:
a. Mary is a nice girl, isn't she?
b. Bob can't finish that job, can he?
We can see that tag question plays an important role in the social communication and it makes the interlocutors engaged in the conversations.

B. *Embedded Imperatives.*

Women use this kind of polite sentence pattern to ask others to do a favor. For example: "Will you please open the window?"

C. Modulation.

This is a very inobtrusive sentence pattern. It not only "expresses a tentative requirement or a suggestion, but also avoids direct reaction at that time" [4]. It contains some hedges, such as, "I guess", "I think", "I suppose", "I'm afraid" and etc. These expressions convey the information that the speaker is uncertain about what s/he is saying, or can not ensure the accuracy of the statement. For example: When women express I must go, they usually say: "I am afraid it is time for me to be going."

D. Euphemism.

In the conversations, women prefer to use it to express their opinions. For instance:
Mary: What do you think of the color of my dress?
Nancy: It's interesting.
In this dialogue, Nancy's response implies that she don't like the color of the dress.

In addition, women tend to use hypercorrect grammar structure, so they seldom use nonstandard multi-negative structure. They will not use "ain't" or "go in". Another example: I don't want none.

VI. CONCLUSION

Long time ago, there existed gender discrimination in the society which influence the language usage. Women are treated as powerless or weak sex, as a result, it is natural for people to think their language is a weak language. At that time social language is sexist. To a large extent, people held negative attitudes toward the language of women. Later, with the development of Women Liberation Movement, women's social position is changing. Feminists begin to challenge women's powerless social status in many aspects, including language usage. "They not only realize the negative images of the language of women, like being trivial, gossip and weak, but also analyze some factors which shape the image of from the perspectives of women's social status" [1].

The language of women is powerless, because women, who live in this male-dominated society, are bound to powerless, secondary and subordinated in social status. With women's social, economic and cultural development, women have stepped into society. Many women work with men in many fields and have made great achievements. They know outside world better and better. All in all, the language of women and men inter permeated each other. Social work makes women more confident in conversation and more skilled in linguistic skill. With the development of social civilization, the difference is becoming smaller and smaller between different genders and finally it will gradually vanish. The early impression of language of women as deferential, inferior, deviant, powerless and submissive will be gradually thrown away.

To sum up, although the language of women is thought weak, empty, gossipy, powerless and deviant, it has many positive features: standard, elegant, affectionate, polite, supportive, cooperative and expressive. It is believed that with the social development, the language of women will be widely advocated and not be discriminated. Meanwhile, it will not have much difference compared with men.

REFERENCES

[1] Chen Hongmei. (2005). On the Image of Women's Language in English, *Foreign Language and Foreign Language Teaching,* 53.
[2] Huang Hongrui. (2003). The Representation of Gender Difference in Language, *Journal of Zhejiang University of Technology (Social Science),* Vol.2, 214.
[3] Ncwmeyer, Frederic (ed) (1988). Linguistics: The Cambridge Sunrey. Vol IV, Language, The Social-cultural Context, Cambridge: CUP, 104.
[4] Zhang Congjiang. (2004). The Characteristics of Women of Language. *Journal of Qiqihar University(Phi & Soc Sci)* ,79-80.
[5] Zhuang Xueyun. (2001). The Language Divergence of English. *Culture Research,* 140.

Qiuling Bi was born in Binzhou, China in 1981. She received her M.A. degree in English Education from The University of Wisconsin – Platteville, USA in 2007.

She is currently a lecturer in the College of Humanities, Binzhou Medical University, Yantai, China. Her research interests include sociolinguistics, English vocabulary teaching and multimedia English teaching.

Implementing Interventions to Increase Motivation in the English Language Classroom: from Theory to Practice

Iakovos Tsiplakides
Nikis Street, 45221, Ioannina, Greece
E-mail: tsiplakides@hotmail.com

Areti Keramida

Abstract—**A growing body of empirical research shows a relationship between student motivation and learning outcomes in the teaching of English in ESL and EFL contexts. Despite a sound theoretical framework, however, there are few studies which implement strategies intended to increase motivation and report findings. Using qualitative research, this article attempts to link theory with practice and shed light into the factors which demotivate students and act as barriers to effective foreign language learning. Theoretical principles are applied in the classroom and the effectiveness of interventions to increase motivation is assessed. Thus, the article is pragmatic in focus and provides teachers with a tool for analyzing students' motivation so that they implement effective motivation strategies in the English classroom. The strategies and interventions suggested can be adapted and used by teachers in various teaching situations after taking into consideration their own teaching context.**

Index Terms—**English as a foreign language, motivation, interventions to increase motivation**

I. INTRODUCTION

It is widely accepted in the relevant literature that motivation is positively linked to foreign language acquisition (Gardner, 1985). Motivation is the second more important determinant of educational success, with the first being aptitude, a learner's cognitive capacity (Skehan, 1989: 38). Contemporary views recognize that motivation is a complex phenomenon, and that many personal, social, and contextual parameters exist.

Many definitions of motivation have been suggested in the relevant literature. According to some researchers, motivation refers to the initiation, direction, intensity, persistence, and quality of behaviour, especially goal-directed behaviour (Maehr and Meyer, 1997). Brophy (2004) defines student motivation as "the degree to which students invest attention and effort". Dörnyei (2001) suggests that motivation includes three elements: why people, how hard and how long people are eager to engage in an activity.

Nevertheless, despite the fact that there is a rich literature on motivation and many resources available to educators that provide strategies to foster motivation, there is a shortage of studies which, apart from suggesting practical strategies to increase student motivation, implement theoretical principles in the classroom and assess the effectiveness of these classroom interventions. The aim of this article is to fill this research gap between theory and practice, and in doing so to provide teachers with an array of "real world" suggestions which they can use after taking into account their unique teaching situation and students' needs.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

The following motivation theories reflect research in both educational psychology and foreign language.

According to the social cognitive expectancy-value model of achievement motivation, learners' "achievement outcomes", including effort, task or course persistence and performance (Wigfield and Eccles, 2000:107), are dependent on a) the degree to which learners are confident that they will experience success with reasonable effort, and b) the degree to which they value and appreciate success and subsequent benefits.

Central to the social cognitive theory is the concept of self-efficacy. Learners' perceived self-efficacy of their capabilities to accomplish "designated types of performances" affects effort, confidence, and persistence Bandura (1986:391).

Attribution theory of motivation posits that the perceived causes of educational outcomes, called attributions, impact heavily on achievement behaviour and on expectations for success. Attributions are categorized along three elements: stability, locus, and control (Weiner, 1986). Stability refers to how stable the attribution is over time. In relation to locus and control, when learners ascribe unsuccessful performance to factors outside their control, or external to them (e.g. ability, or an easy task), rather than to controllable, or internal causes (e.g. effort, or preparation), they develop low

expectancies for success, showing little effort and persistence. Self-determination theory posits that people have a need for autonomy, competence and relatedness. Students with intrinsic motivation participate in learning activities in which "the sole rewards are the spontaneous feelings of interest and enjoyment" (Deci and Moller, 2005:582). Intrinsically motivated learners are more likely to attain higher levels of achievement than extrinsically motivated students, who are motivated from rewards associated with success (Gardner, 1988: 106).

Goal orientation theory incorporates both cultural parameters of behaviour and cognitive processes (Thrash and Elliot, 2001). It contends that students who adopt mastery goal orientations engage in educational activities with a focus on acquiring knowledge or skills, believe in the relationship between effort and outcome, and are oriented toward "improving their level of competence" (Ames, 1992). Mastery goals are associated with an intrinsic interest in learning, and positive attitudes towards learning. In contrast, students who adopt performance goals are principally concerned with self-worth (Covington, 1984), and recognition as good students. They often avoid challenging tasks, give up easily and lack confidence in their ability.

According to Covington's (1992) self-worth theory, the need for self-worth is a basic human need, so students often behave in ways to protect their self-worth. For example, they may procrastinate studying for an exam, so that they can attribute failure to lack of effort, rather than lack of ability, since this could damage their self-image. Students may also adopt reputation-saving strategies, such as setting unrealistically high learning goals, or simply choosing not to participate.

Gardner's (1985) social psychological approach highlights the role of attitudes towards L2 as a determinant of motivation to learn. It stresses the link between language and culture, and conceptualizes the "integrative motive" in terms of: a) integrativeness (disposition toward L2 community), b) attitude toward the learning situation, and c) motivation (desire to learn the L2, effort and attitudes towards learning the L2).

III. THE RESEARCH STUDY

The aim of the research study was to identify the sources of motivational problems of students who study English as a foreign language in Greek state upper secondary schools. A further aim was to use this data in order to implement interventions to foster motivation and to evaluate their effectiveness. To identify sources of motivational problems, the research questions were: a) what are these students' classroom and social profiles?, and b) what are the reasons for their lack of motivation?

The overall aim was to develop a methodological tool which teachers of English can use in order to identify motivational problems and implement effective strategies to overcome them, regardless of their specific teaching situation.

IV. METHODOLOGY

A. Methods of Data Collection

The following methods of qualitative data collection were utilized. First, semi-structured interviews, because they can help assess individual preferences, values and attitudes, due to their strength for in-depth, detailed data collection compared to other methods, and because they allow "individual perspectives and experiences to emerge" (Patton, 2002). Second, direct observation, as it provides researchers with a wealth of information, allows the observer to understand the context in which people interact, and offers a holistic perspective of the context under investigation (Patton, 2002).

B. Participants

Participants were pupils in an English classroom of intermediate level in the second grade in an upper secondary school. There were nine pupils, seven boys and two girls, aged 15-16 years. Lessons were held three times a week for forty-five minutes each time. Most students had poor performance, and were not motivated to learn. Semi-structured interviews and direct observation revealed the following:

These students, despite having difficulty coping with the demands of the lesson, the three students did not have disruptive behaviour. However, they were silent and withdrawn most of the time, without being willing to participate.

Research also revealed that these students attributed their low performance to what they perceived as lack of ability in the English language, rather than effort or other factors. As a male student stated, "I'm good at most subjects, but English is too difficult for me". According to attribution theory (Weiner, 1985) when students attribute success to factors outside their control (e.g. academic ability) their motivation levels are usually low. In addition, they suffered from language anxiety, which has been shown to have a negative effect on motivation and foreign language acquisition (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993).

Also and connectedly, most students' English language performance was well below average. They had, however, average performance in most school subjects, so their low performance in English was not due to a deficit of academic ability. They were not apathetic students, uninterested in learning English or alienated from school learning.

V. CLASSROOM INTERVENTIONS

The following motivational strategies were implemented.

A. Establishing a Learning Community and a Supportive Classroom Atmosphere

It is a central point in all motivation theories that creating a learning community that provides the environment for "optimal motivation" (Alderman, 2004) is important. For example, I tried to foster the belief that he was there to provide all students with help in their learning efforts, and not to ignore, reprimand, or mock them. This was achieved through negotiating with the students a set of classroom rules. Making fun of a wrong answer was not accepted, and a norm of "mistake tolerance" was ratified. Errors were considered a natural part of learning a foreign language (Dörnyei, 2001: 42). In addition, I clearly communicated to the whole classroom that I had expectancies of success for all students, regardless of previous performance. My teaching practices reflected this. For example, groups were formed from mixed ability students, were given equally academically challenging tasks, and the same questioning strategies were used for all students (Alderman, 2004), so that students realized that there was no differential treatment.

B. Providing Indirect, rather than Direct Correction

In order to make writing feedback less threatening to students' self-esteem and reduce anxiety, in writing tasks I prompted students about the location and the nature of errors by means of a correction code (Lee 1997:466). Students were prompted about the nature of their mistake by means of symbols (Byrne 1988). Similarly, in speaking tasks I avoided over detailed, constant on the spot correction, since it can undermine their confidence, and it discourages learners who are too conscious about "sounding silly" to experiment with new language (Lightbown and Spada, 1999:31). Moreover, I provided scaffolding (cognitive modeling, prompts and questions) so that the students had an opportunity to develop repair strategies and find the answer. Behaviour that could be considered a threat to their social image (e.g. criticism about their performance) was avoided, while these three students were provided with opportunities to show their special strengths to their peers. For example, their organizational skills were exploited in project work, in which they often assumed the role of organizer.

C. Making Use of Students' Experiences and Lives

In order to promote learning goals rather than work-avoidant goals or passive participation, I devised tasks, or altered coursebook activities so that students were provided with authentic opportunities to use the target language and engage in purposeful communication, using their experiences and opinions.

D. Providing Opportunities for Group Work

I incorporated short-term projects in the classroom, because with projects students are more personally involved in the learning process, are less concerned with self-worth protection, and are motivated by a tangible end product. Project work encourages autonomy, imagination and creativity (Hedge, 2000), and students realize that they can be successful if they apply effort, cooperation, or persistence.

E. Using Individual Criterion-referenced Grading Standards

The students' progression was measured rather than their performance in relation to their classmates, while portfolios were used for the evaluation of students' progress. Face threatening activities, such as comparison of ability was avoided, because such practices can negatively influence low achievers in a number of ways, such as "avoidance of risk taking, use of less effective or superficial learning strategies, and negative affect directed toward the self" (Ames, 1992: 264). In order to promote effort, rather than ability attributions, I provided effort feedback, showing to them that they can perform better if they try harder (Dörnyei, 2001: 121).

F. Establishing Specific Learning Aims

I communicated to these students that I had specific learning aims for them, and they were given relatively accurate, but sufficiently high expectations for language performance. To this end, a "learning contract" was negotiated. The first step entailed students realizing their underperformance and agreeing to be committed to achieve specially defined learning goals. The second stage included carefully defining clear long and short term learning goals. The third stage included the teacher's commitment that he was there to help, facilitate and support them.

G. Personalizing the Curriculum and Supplementing the Teaching Material

Apart from the coursebook students were provided with tasks with assignments and activities that were at a challenging level of difficulty, but could be successfully completed with reasonable effort (Csikszentmihalyi, 1993). Students' parents were informed that supplementary material was designed to help, and not to punish their children for their low performance. According to Brophy (2004) engaging parents in their children's progress is a characteristic of successful teachers. In this way I also tried to make use of students' experiences and lives. In order to promote learning goals rather than work-avoidant goals or passive participation, I devised tasks, or altered coursebook activities so that students were provided with authentic opportunities to use the target language and engage in purposeful communication, using their experiences and opinions.

H. Increasing Expectancies of Success

This involved "consciously arranging the conditions" (Dörnyei, 2001: 57) for success. Pre-task activities provided students with enough assistance, and potential obstacles to completing tasks were removed by addressing them in

advance (e.g. modeling effective strategies). To reduce test anxiety, students were given sufficient advance warning and were informed about test specifications and assessment criteria.

Of course, the above interventions overlap. For example, both communicative activities and participation in projects increase autonomy and involvement, while most of the above interventions reduce language anxiety.

VI. RESULTS

The effectiveness of the interventions was assessed on the basis of a) English language performance, b) their attributions for achievement in the English language and their expectancies of success, and

Their target language performance improved, as evidenced from the end of term examination results. Improvement was most noticeable in writing and reading skills. Nevertheless, they succeeded in achieving most of the learning goals determined at the beginning of the school term.

As regards their attributions for achievement, the students' narratives show at the end of the school term they did not attribute success to factors outside of their control. Instead, they seemed more confident in their ability, developed increased expectations of future success in the L2, and believed in a correlation between effort and success.

Preoccupation with self-worth protection decreased (but not disappeared) at the end of the school term, and they seemed to focus more on learning goals. They felt less language anxiety, and were more eager to cooperate with their classmates. Most students seemed to have developed intrinsic motivation, participating in learning activities for the sole reward of "the spontaneous feelings of interest and enjoyment that occur when one engages in the activities" (Deci and Moller, 2005: 582).

VII. DISCUSSION

Implementing interventions to foster student motivation is not a straightforward process. First, educators are bombarded by a plethora of resources that provide suggestions to enhance learning motivation. The difficulty lies in determining the appropriate classroom interventions for a particular teaching context, education system and curriculum and in transforming theory into everyday classroom practice.

Second, the results of interventions take time, so teachers need to show persistence and consistency. English teachers should also be flexible enough so that they constantly evaluate the effectiveness of interventions, come up with solutions, and incorporate changes in their motivation strategies. For example, at the beginning of the school term the three students were unwilling to participate in projects, because they believed that cooperation would reveal their weaknesses to their fellow students. I attempted to overcome this difficulty with persistence, providing modeling, which was instrumental in making them realize that cooperation did not constitute a threat to their popular image.

Finally, it is important to acknowledge a limitation of this study. Due to the small number of participants, care should be taken in generalizing the research findings.

VIII. CONCLUSION

The pedagogical implications are clear. First, although all motivational theories incorporate useful elements, motivation is such a complex phenomenon, that no single theory is adequate. Educators need to make a synthesis, incorporating elements from many theoretical approaches in their everyday classroom practice. The second implication is that theory and action go hand in hand, so before employing strategies to foster motivation, teachers should get to know their students, their families, their social and cultural background, the value they attach to knowledge of the English language, in order to shed light into the reasons that underlie their willingness to engage in learning activities. English teachers should be aware that what motivates students in one setting may prove ineffective in a different one (Schunk et al, 2008:40). Since there is not a "bag of tricks" that can enhance student motivation to learn, a "teacher as a researcher" approach is an indispensable research tool. Such an approach, which brings together theory and practice, can have positive effects both on the professional development of English teachers and on students' motivation and language acquisition.

REFERENCES

[1] Alderman, M., K. (2004). Motivation for Achievement. Mahwah NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
[2] Ames, C. (1992). Classrooms: Goals, structures, and student motivation. *Journal of Educational Psychology* 84, 261-271.
[3] Bandura, A. (1986). Social foundations of thought and action: A social cognitive theory. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
[4] Brophy, J. (2004). Motivating Students to Learn. New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
[5] Byrne, D. (1988). Teaching Writing Skills. London: Longman.
[6] Covington, M. V. (1992). Making the Grade: a self-worth perspective on motivation and school reform. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
[7] Covington, M. V. (1984). The motive for self worth. In R. Ames & C. Ames (Eds.), *Research on motivation in education: Student motivation.* San Diego, CA: Academic Press, pp. 77–113.
[8] Csikszentmihalyi, M. (1993). The evolving source: A psychology for the third millennium. New York: HarperCollins.

[9]   Deci, E., L., & Moller, A., C. (2005). The concept of competence: A starting place for understanding intrinsic motivation and self-determined extrinsic motivation. In A. J. Elliot & C. S. Dweck (Eds.). *Handbook of competence and motivation.* New York: Guildford Press, pp. 579-597.
[10]   Dӧrnyei, Z. (2001). Motivational Strategies in the Language Classroom. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
[11]   Gardner, R. C. (1988). The socio-educational model of second-language learning: Assumptions, findings, and issues. *Language Learning* 38, 101-126.
[12]   Gardner, R. C. (1985). Social psychology and second language learning: The role of attitudes and motivation. London: Edward Arnold.
[13]   Gardner, R., C. & MacIntyre P., D. (1993). A student's contributions to second-language learning. Part II: Affective variables. *Language Teaching* 26, 1-11.
[14]   Hedge, T. (2000). Teaching and learning in the language classroom. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
[15]   Lee I. (1997).ESL learners' performance in error correction in writing: some implications for teaching, *System* 25 (4), 465-477.
[16]   Lightbown, P. & and Spada, N. (1999). How Languages are Learned (2nd edition).Oxford: Oxford University Press.
[17]   Maehr, M., & Meyer, H. (1997). Understanding motivation and schooling: Where we've been, where we are, and where we need to go. *Educational Psychology* Review 9, 371-409.
[18]   Patton, M. Q. (2002). Qualitative Research & Evaluation Methods (3rd ed.). United States of America: Sage.
[19]   Schunk, D., H., Pintrich, P., R., and Meece, J., L. (2008). Motivation in Education: Theory, Research, and Applications (3rd ed.)., Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Merrill/Prentice Hall.
[20]   Skehan, P. (1989). Individual Differences in Second Language Learning. London: Edward Arnold.
[21]   Thrash, T., and Elliot, A. (2001). Delimiting and integrating achievement motive and goal constructs. In A. Efklides, J. Kuhl, and R. Sorrentino, (Eds.), *Trends and prospects in motivation research.* Boston: Kluwer, pp 3-21.
[22]   Weiner, B. (1985). An attributional theory of achievement motivation and emotion. *Psychological Review* 92 (4), 548-73.
[23]   Weiner, B. (1986). An attributional theory of motivation and emotion. New York: Springer-Verlag.
[24]   Wigfield, A., & Eccles, J., S. (2000). Expectancy-value theory of achievement motivation. *Contemporary Educational Psychology* 25, 68-81.

Iakovos Tsiplakides was born in Patras, Greece, in 1970. He received his MA (Med in TESOL) from the Greek Open University. He is currently a teacher of English in Greece.

Areti Keramida was born in Greece, in 1975. She received her MA (Med in TESOL) from the Greek Open University. She is currently a teacher of English in Greece.

On Integrated Translation Approach of English Idioms

Linli Chen

Yunnan RTV University, 113 Xue Fu Road, Kunming 650223, China

E-mail: cllzyq@sina.com

Abstract—**Idioms are the gems of a language. Translating idioms is not an easy task because not all English idioms have equivalents in Chinese idioms due to linguistic, especially cultural differences. Research indicates that there are six translation tactics in translating English idioms into Chinese: literal translation, free translation, compensatory translation, explanational translation, borrowing, integrated approach. This paper aims to propose the integrated translation approach, one indispensable and important tactic to Chinese translation of English idioms based on Nida's dynamic equivalence. Obviously, a reasonable choice and the quality of translation are decided by the translator's cultural awareness and creativity.**

Index Terms—**English idioms, Chinese translation, dynamic equivalence, integrated translation approach**

I. Introduction

According to Oxford Advanced Learners Dictionary of Current English (1974), "idiom" refers to "phrase or sentence whose meaning is not obvious through knowledge of the individual meanings of the constituent words but must be learnt as a whole, e. g. give away, in order to, be hard put to it, and so on." English and Chinese both abound with idioms. Idioms best mirror the national characteristics embodied in a language and are thus always rich in cultural connotation and national flavor. Lots of cultural information is embedded in idioms. In some senses, idioms are the reflection of the environment, life, historical culture, etc. of the native speakers and are closely associated with their innermost spirit and feelings. "Idioms usually carry more impact than non-idiomatic expressions because of their close identification with a particular language and culture." (Nida, E.A., 2001: 28) For one thing, most idioms, though composed of few words, contain an extremely profound and rich meaning, for another most idioms carry a vivid image.

The main cultural differences between Chinese and English idioms lie not only in the language expression and ways of vocabulary, grammar and rhetoric devices, but also in their different cultural backgrounds, because Chinese and English idioms originate from different cultures. Thus, in translation of idioms, much attention should be paid to the dissimilarities of cultures as well as languages themselves. Translation involves not only different languages but also different cultures. The ultimate goal of translation is to help and ensure communication between people whose mother tongues and cultural backgrounds are different from each other. Idioms are linguistic symbols which most vividly reflect the culture of a nation and its people. Therefore, the Chinese translation of English idioms should be based on the careful consideration of all the relevant theoretical points about language, culture, and communication.

In idiom translation, the implicated meanings in English idioms are hard to render because of different cultural backgrounds of English and Chinese cultures. In translating the SL (Source Language) into the TL (Target Language), to be faithful to the original text is to render the implicated meaning in the SL text faithfully with the style and images of the SL text retained in the translated text. But not all English idioms have equivalents in Chinese idioms because of linguistic, especially cultural differences. That is to say, not all English idioms have the same literal meaning, figurative meaning and implicated meaning with those of Chinese idioms. Nida once states: "No two words in any two languages are completely identical in meaning. This means that to some extent there is always some loss or skewing of meaning in interlingual communication. One purpose of translating is to keep such disparities at a minimum."(Nida, E.A., 2001: 40) To achieve that, this paper makes a research on integrated translation approach of English idiom with the application of Nida's Dynamic Equivalence with cultural considerations.

II. Nida's Dynamic Equivalence

Eugene A. Nida (1914-), a distinguished American translation theorist as well as linguist, is regarded as the most influential one among all contemporary translation theorists (Newmark, 1993: 133). Many Chinese translation scholars are familiar with Nida's theory, Nida's major contributions to modern translation studies are "the scientific study of translating" and "the principle of dynamic equivalence".

The definition of dynamic equivalence is firstly given by Eugene A. Nida in his book Toward a Science of Translating (Nida, E.A., 1964: 161). It is defined as a translation principle which requires the translator to render the meaning of the original in such a way that the target text wording will trigger the same impact on the target reader as the original wording does upon the original reader. Dynamic equivalence is based on the principle of equivalent effect. In

such a translation one is not so concerned with matching the receptor-language message with the source-language message, but with the dynamic relationship, that the relationship between receptor and message that should be substantially the same as that which existed between the original receptor and the message. A translation of dynamic equivalence aims at complete naturalness of expression, and tries to relate the receptor to modes of behavior relevant within the context of his own culture. It does not insist that he understand the cultural patterns of the source-language context in order to comprehend the message. In dynamic translation, the translator seeks to provide a more accurate translation by paying attention to such things as idiom and slang. The translator translates not word for word, but thought for thought. Dynamic equivalence tries to correct the shortcomings of word for word translating by translating not precisely what the original author wrote, but what the most likely meant.

Dynamic equivalence provides us with a new research perspective, which bypasses the meaningless controversy about providing a satisfactory answer to the controversial literal translation vs. liberal translation, content vs. form etc. Literal translation emphasizes faithfulness, which results in formal equivalence and negligence of the actual effect, while liberal translation emphasizes elegance, which results in over-emphasizing the actual effect regardless of the form. Dynamic equivalence, focusing itself on the equivalence of the two, has solved the contradiction above.

In a word, dynamic equivalence is a progress of achieving the closest natural equivalence by choosing the most appropriate translation method. Such choice is based on the consideration of the whole factors in functional identity and is able to take the same effect on the target receptors as the original text does upon the original reader.

III.   INTEGRATED TRANSLATION APPROACH

According to Nida's dynamic equivalence, a reasonable tactic should be employed in the process of translating so as to keep the meaning and the flavor of the original English idioms.

Literal translation is usually employed in the complete representation of the original when the original almost accords with the target language in the form of vocabulary, grammatical structure and rhetorical device, which means literal translation is a way by which the rhetoric, national and regional characteristics are kept in the target language.

Free translation, or liberal translation, as opposed to literal translation which keeps to original text's content as well as original form, only remains the same content as the original.

It is obvious that literal translation and liberal translation are basic and common translation methods which deserve first consideration when the translator undertakes the Chinese translation of English idioms. However, sometimes, stiff or rigid literal translation will violate the readability of the translation, leading to the monotony of reading as well as the ineffective cultural transfer; liberal translation beyond limit will often destroy the faithfulness of English idioms. To overcome this problem, an integrated approach combining the literal and free translation may be employed as the former could retain the original coloring and image while the latter could serve as a supplement avoiding the possibility of misunderstanding and misleadingness of the translated version. It is an indispensable and important tactic to Chinese translation of English idioms based on Nida's dynamic equivalence proposed in this paper, this tactic should be reasonably employed in the process of translating to keep the flavor of the original English idioms as well as to cater for the Chinese readers. For example: "Until all is over, ambition never dies" is translated into "不到黄河心不死" in Chinese. "心不死" is literal translation, whereas "不到黄河" is liberally translated. Another example: "Be in the same boat" is translated into "同舟共济", here "同舟" is literal translation, whereas "共济" is liberally translated. And "An eagle does not catch flies" can be translated into "老鹰不会去捉苍蝇，大人物不会去做小事". Both literal and free translations are employed here to retain its literal meaning and reveal its implicated meaning.

Self-explanatorily, the integrated approach will not only reproduce the literal meaning or figurative meaning so as to retain the style of the original text but also convey the implicated meaning as well. Cultural dissimilarities are a great barrier to idiom translation. Because of this, when the literal meaning or figurative meaning of some English idioms are the same with those in Chinese, they may have different implicated meaning. Only after a fully comprehension of the cultural differences of both English and Chinese idioms can we make proper translation. Literal translation and free translation respectively have their advantages and disadvantages. When cultural similarities adjust positively, literal translation is used without violating the language rule and destroying expressive effect of idioms. The literal meaning, figurative meaning and implicated meaning will be revealed all at the same time in the translated text. Such as "to be wild with joy" is literally translated into "欣喜若狂" and "to show one's card" into "摊牌". When there exist cultural dissimilarities between the SL and the TL, free translation is usually used in translating idioms, especially when vocabulary having weak cultural meaning in translating implicated meaning. For example, "to live a dog's life" is liberally translated into "过牛马生活". By way of this method, the content or message of the original text remains, but its form, its style, its image or its rhetoric color may be lost in the translation. Throughout Chinese translation history, translation theorists and practitioners have been frowning about the issue: how to achieve "faithfulness" and "smoothness" at the same time in the translated texts. Although the disputes over literal translation and free translation still exist, literal translation and free translation do not always contradict each other, they are not absolute, but relative. No absolute boundaries lie between them.

Language, a part of culture, reflects culture, in turn. Cultural discrepancies can be found in Chinese and English idioms, which are possible causes for dilemmas for translators in turning the SL into the TL. But some other idioms,

when translated literally or figuratively, arouse no cultural conflicts in the translated texts. Nevertheless, the readers in the TL are unable to understand the implicated meaning. That is to say, sometimes the reader can understand the literal meaning or figurative meaning in the SL text without cultural conflicts aroused, but it is hard for them to figure out the implicated meaning of idioms because it is lost in translation. To solve this problem, a translator should employ the translation method involving both literal translation and free translation. It will not only reproduce the literal meaning or figurative meaning so as to retain the style of the original text but also convey the implicated meaning as well. For instance, "Every bird likes its own nest" is translated into "鸟爱其巢，人爱其家". The first part "鸟爱其巢" is a literal translation, which expresses its literal meaning and could be easily understood, whereas "人爱其家" is a free translation which is used to render its implicated meaning. Another example: "All asses wag their ears" is translated into "驴子爱摆耳朵，傻瓜爱装聪明".The first part is its literal translation. The second part is the rendering of its implicated meaning. And the idiom: "A cat may look at a king" is translated into "猫也有权看皇帝，老百姓也该有点权利", in which the literal meaning is retained by: "猫也有权看皇帝", and its implicated meaning is conveyed by its liberal translation: "老百姓也该有点权利". It is a fact that a term in one language may not always have a counterpart in another language. The main cultural differences between Chinese and English idioms lie not only in the language expression and ways of vocabulary, grammar and rhetoric devices, but also in their different cultural backgrounds. Through combination of literal and free translation, the image or style of the SL is retained and the message is rendered as well.

The following are some more similar examples which will demonstrate the employment of the integrated strategy to make the implicated meaning revealed with the literal meaning and figurative meaning retained without destroying the faithfulness of English idioms in the translated text.

She shed crocodile tears when she dismissed him from his job.
她把他解雇时，流出了鳄鱼的眼泪，假慈悲 (假装难过)
A little pot is soon hot.　　　　　　小壶易热，人小火气大
A leopard can't change its spots.　　豹子改不了身上的斑点，本性难移
A good dog deserves a good bone.　　好狗应该得到好骨头，有功者应该受奖
A bargain is a bargain.　　　　　　契约终究是契约，成交不可妄毁

The above examples not only show that literal translation can be used to maintain the source language images, such as, "crocodile tears"（鳄鱼的眼泪）, "A little pot is soon hot" （小壶易热）, "A leopard can't change its spots" (豹子改不了身上的斑点), "A good dog deserves a good bone" (好狗应该得到好骨头) and "A bargain is a bargain" （契约终究是契约）, but also show that the structure of the idioms may be reorganized to suit the idiomatic expression of the TL by free translation.", " 假慈悲", "人小火气大", "本性难移", "有功者应该受奖" and "成交不可妄毁" are translated liberally into Chinese idioms so as to make the implicated meaning of English idioms intelligible to Chinese readers. If the meanings of the above idioms are rendered into Chinese only by literal translation, the confusion must be aroused. It is hard for the readers to figure out the implicated meaning only by the literal translation, though they can understand the literal meaning or figurative meaning in the SL text without cultural conflicts being aroused. However, in order to make the implicated meaning revealed with the literal and figurative meaning retained in the translated text, the combination of literal and free translation is to be employed in translating these English idioms.

It is known that some idioms which contain certain historical events or literary allusions, are of rich cultural connotations of a nation and are hard for the TL readers to understand if they are rendered into another language only by literal translation. To solve this problem, the integrated approach: a combination of literal and free translation is to be employed. It will guarantee the comprehension of the idioms on the one hand, and on the other hand, it contributes to the retention of the original cultural terms in the idioms.

IV. Conclusion

In conclusion, the integrated translation approach of English idioms should be employed properly, for literal translation and free translation are relative concepts, there is no obvious distinction between literal translation and liberal translation, nor is it necessary to distinguish one from the other. The key point for a translator is to comprehend the original thoroughly, and then put it into idiomatic TL. This paper only makes a research on the integrated translation approach, one of the idiom translation tactics with the application of Nida's Dynamic Equivalence theory with cultural considerations. It is hoped that through introducing the integrated translation approach, people may know more about English idioms and the mentioned Chinese translating method in order to reach a better intercultural communicative purpose and a better fulfillment of translators' duty as a medium of cultural exchange.

Acknowledgment

REFERENCES

[1]   Fernando, Chitra. (1996). Idioms and Idiomaticity. Oxford University Press.
[2]   Hornby, A. S. (1974). Oxford Advanced Learners Dictionary of Current English. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
[3]   Newmark P. (1993). Paragraphs on Translation. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters, 133.
[4]   Nida, Eugene A. (1986). From one Language to Another. Shanghai: Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press.
[5]   Nida, Eugene A. (2001). Language and Culture: Contexts in Translating. Shanghai: Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press, 28-40.
[6]   Nida, Eugene A. (1964). Towards a Science of Translating: With Special Reference to Principles and Procedures involved in Bible Translation. Leiden: Brill, 161.
[7]   Shiping Luo. (2006). A Research on English Idioms. Shanghai : Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press.

Linli Chen was born in Yunnan, China in 1975. She received her M.A. degree in English Language and Literature from Shanghai International Studies University, China in 2007.

She is currently pursuing her PH.D. degree in Chinese Ethnic Art at Yunnan University and she is a lecturer in the School of Humanities, Yunnan Radio & TV University, Kunming, Yunnan, China. Her research interests mainly include linguistics and English language education.

A Corpus-based Contrastive Analysis of First Personal Deixis

Yujie Su

College of Foreign Studies, Wenzhou University, Wenzhou 325035, China
Email: susanwtf@yahoo.com.cn

Abstract— **This paper centers on comparing the use of first personal deixis in Chinese English Learner Corpus (CLEC) and English-native Speaker Corpus such as FROWN and FLOB. It also makes a close investigation into the frequency difference of first nominative personal deixis, that is, "I" and "we", and their practical use with modal verbs in the three corpora. Based on the results of the comparison and investigation of the uses of "I" and "we", the writer tries to look into the reasons which cause the difference in order to enlighten English teaching in Chinese English learners' classes.**

Index Terms— **first personal deixis, modal verbs**

I. INTRODUCTION

Chinese English learners, advanced or primary, are usually unconsciously influenced by their mother language when learning and using English. They often prefer to use the first personal deixis like "I" or "we" and other alternative forms like "me", "us", "my", "our", and so on. Having this in mind, the writer wants to find out the underlying reason so that an investigation into three corpora, Chinese English Learner Corpus, FROWN and FLOB, is conducted and comparison of the frequency of the nominative first personal deixis, that is "I" and "we", as well as the frequency of their practical use with modal verbs in the three corpora is also made. It turns out that comparing with English native speakers, Chinese learners tend to show their distinctive preference when using the first personal deixis.

II. COMPARISON AND ANALYSIS OF ENGLISH LEARNERS AND NATIVE SPEAKERS CORPORA

Chinese English Learner Corpus (CLEC), sponsored and constructed by Professor Gui Shichun from Guangdong University of Foreign studies, contains 1 million words of English compositions collected from Chinese learners of English with differing levels of proficiency, covering senior secondary school students, English-major, and non-English-major university students in China. Freiburg-LOB Corpus of British English and Freiburg-Brown Corpus of American English, also known as FLOB and FROWN, are corpora of English native speakers, each containing 1 million words. Essentially, comparison between the corpora of English learners and native speakers with particular purpose can help to learn about the different way of expression, like the overuse or underuse of certain words or expressions as well as learner's difficulty when learning or using the language. And also, the results obtained by comparing and analyzing the data of the corpora of learners and native speakers are comparatively objective and scientific, which is practically useful for studying learners' learning strategy and getting teachers of the language to notice learners' difficulties or problems.

In English, there is a distinction between nominative and accusative first personal deixis, such as "I" and "me", "we" and "us". Their possessive forms are respectively "myself, my" and "ourselves, our". However, in Chinese there is only a division between the singular form and plural form of the nominative and accusative first personal deixis. Comparing with the different variations in English, Chinese first personal deixis has fewer and simpler changes. Through investigations of how the first personal deixis is used into the three different corpora, we can see the results in Table One, which is arranged by keyness.

TABLE 1
THE FREQUENCY OF THE FIRST PERSONAL DEIXIS IN CLEC, FLOB AND FROWN

Frequency / first personal deixis	CLEC	FLOB	FROWN
we	13,356	2,703	2,888
I	16,216	6,115	6,910
my	6,272	1,572	1,959
our	4,774	991	1,156
us	2,546	806	788
me	2,712	1,307	1,520
myself	281	117	/

Seen in the table above, though CLEC is a corpus which is smaller than FLOB and FROWN, it is clear that the

singular forms of the first personal deixis are much more frequently used by learners than their plural forms. What's more, Chinese English learners are more often to use "I" and "we". The frequency of "I" in CLEC is 16,216, which is almost 3 times larger than that in FLOB and FROWN. The frequency of "we" in CLEC is more than 6 times higher than that in FLOB and FROWN. Generally speaking, the frequency of other forms of the first personal deixis in the learner corpus is far higher than that in English-speaker corpora.

In order to know more about the phenomena, detailed investigations are conducted. By means of the software WORDSMITH, modal verbs which Chinese English learners prefer to use together with "we" and "I" are searched according to the key word in context. It is found that the modal verb "must" is used most often, followed by "will", "would", "shall", "can", "should", "may", etc. For an objective knowledge of how the plural and singular form is used with those modal verbs, a comparison among the three corpora, CLEC, FLOB and FROWN, is conducted. The results can be seen in Table Two and Table Three.

TABLE 2
COMPARISON OF "WE+MODAL VERBS" IN CLEC, FLOB AND FROWN

we＋modal verbs	CLEC	FLOB	FROWN
we can/can't	2251+348	124+37	140+24
we could/couldn't	152+67	53+5	58+7
we may	145	43	29
we might	13	27	37
we must/mustn't	1072+19	65+0	59+0
we ought (to)	34	6	7
we shall	82	64	32
we should/shouldn't	1395+37	60+1	45+0
we will＋won't	705＋16	130+2	165+6
we would/wouldn't	135+9	77+3	84+5

TABLE 3
COMPARISON OF "I+MODAL VERBS" IN CLEC, FLOB AND FROWN

I＋modal verbs	CLEC	FLOB	FROWN
I can/can't	709+198	110+107	154+103
I could/couldn't	249+118	144+38	151+50
I may	46	20	14
I might	9	25	39
I must/mustn't	393+0	48+1	37+3
I ought to	10	9	1
I shall	26	71	31
I should/shouldn't	206+8	70+5	41+7
I will/won't	1092+14	279+16	367+24
I would/wouldn't	397+11	130+23	262+25

In Table Two, the frequency of the three combinations like "we+can", "we+should" and "we+must" is particularly high. The frequency of "we+can" and "we+must" in CLEC is almost up to twenty times of that in FLOB and FROWN, while the frequency of "we+should" in CLEC is twenty-three times as high as that in FLOB and FROWN. Except the combination "we+might" showing the greatest uncertainty, the other "we+modal verbs" combinations are popularly used, whose frequency exceeds that in the English-speaker corpora.

Though the contrast of the three corpora in Table Three is not so strong as that in Table Two, it is still clear to see that Chinese English learners are most likely to use the combinations like "I +will", "I+can" and so on, which emphasize the speakers' intention. The frequency of "I+will" in CLEC is 1092, which is two or three times higher than that in FLOB and FROWN, and the frequency of "I+can" is up to four or six times higher.

Then compared with the two tables, Chinese English learners tend to use the plural form of the first personal deixis, for only two combinations like "I+could" and "I+will" have higher frequency than "we+could" and "we+will".

III. ANALYSIS OF THE DATA AND THE POSSIBLE REASONS

Generally speaking, personal deixis refers to the terms the speakers use to convey their message with the words when they call each other during the conversation. There are three types: the first personal deixis, the second deixis and the third deixis. Chinese and English have a similar division of the personal deixis. However, as for the first personal deixis, the alleged scope in Chinese and English is different, as Wei Benli has concluded in his research on The Cultural Metaphor of First Person Deixis in Chinese and English. There are also many other researchers like Wang Lifei and Wen Qiufang (2004), Zhong Zhihua (2007), Zhou Lei and Niu Zhongguang (2007), and so on who have conducted various studies on personal deixis. Most of their researches is centered on cultural aspects.

In English the singular first personal deixis "I" can be used in formal and informal contexts, which has a clear and specific referent. In English, the first person "I" generally refers to the speaker himself or herself, expressing his or her own views. It seldom includes the listener. This is similar to the first person in Chinese. The plural first person "we" in Chinese has a similar alleged scope as that in English, which refers to the speaker's side or both the speaker and the

listener. But in conversations when the speaker and the listener are from different ranks, or the speaker wants to persuade or encourage the listener, "we" can be used to refer to the listener. "we" can also refer to the speaker only. For example, one of the staff says to a friend who does not work at the same department, "We have a kind leader." Here in this sentence "we" refers to the speaker only. However, "we" in English, when referring to the speaker himself or herself, carries the sense of authority, producing an estranged feeling between the speaker and the listener, and showing the speakers lacking enough confidence in what he or she says.

According to what researchers like Hofstede (2002)and Triandis (1995)have found out, China is a country with a collectivist culture, which encourages the development of group identities by teaching communal sensitivity and cooperation, gives priority to the goals of one's groups and emphasizes on the harmonious and equal relations, and social responsibility of the group members. Countries like Britain and US have individualist culture, which gives priority to one's own goals and defines one's identity in terms of personal attributes. According to Triandis, English speakers tend to pay a high attention to their own freedom, independency and value. Chinese English learners are frequently under the influence of traditional Chinese culture and values, preferring to use the collective "we" to represent an individual "I". The reason is that the use of "I" means the feeling when one is isolated from the collective or one endangers the unity of the community. That is why the individual "I" is basically excluded from the collective written culture affected by Confucianism, Taoism, and Buddhism. On the contrary, plural forms of the first personal deixis are much welcomed. Therefore, as for Chinese English learners, the use of   the collective "we" can help bring both sides of the communication closer to each other and build an equal and friendly relation. So in their writing they often use "we will", "we must", "we can", etc.

The results also explain that the Chinese learners tend to use spoken language where written language should be used. Wen Qiufang and other researchers (2003) have conducted studies on the colloquial trend in written language among university learners. They have found that Chinese English learners, like other non-English-native speakers, overemphasize the marked existence of readers or writers in their writing. That is to say, the higher the prominence of the writer is, the more colloquial the language is.

The reasons behind the different using habit of the first personal deixis first go to the difference between the two languages and then lie in the fact that in China English teaching has its innate defects. Cheng Zhenglun and Tang Ping (2007) have found that regardless the English proficiency of English learners, they just get to know the language itself, but not the cognition and cultural values of the community which take English as their mother tongue. In other words, in China English is only used or learned as a foreign language. In English classes English is mainly taught by teachers whose first language is Chinese, and who used to be English learners themselves. And the teachers learned the language in a traditional Chinese teaching system. As a result, they often teach what they deem to be true or right.

IV. CONCLUSION

English and Chinese belong to different language systems. English learners are inevitably under the influence of their mother tongue. In order to reduce the negative transfer of the mother tongue, the teachers may make use of various corpora and explain to the students the different cognition of the first personal deixis of English-native speakers and English learners by show them the particular examples. The contrastive analysis of both the English learner corpus and the English native speaker corpus can help the students to understand better so that they can be aware of the negative transfer of Chinese when they say or write something.

REFERENCES

[1]   Chen, Zhenglun & Tang, Ping. (2007). The Influence of Collectivism on English Writing—Case Study of Personal Deixis. *Journal of Sichuan College of Education* 3, 86-88.
[2]   Hofstede, Geert. (2002). Dimensionalizing Cultures: The Hofstede Model in Context.
      http://www.ac.wwu.edu/~culture/hofstede.htm (accessed 20/3/2009)
[3]   Triandis, H. C. (1995). Individualism & Collectivism. Boulder, CO: Westview Press.
[4]   Wang, Lifei & Wen, Qiufang. (2004). Transference of Mother Tongue Proficiency on Second Language Writing: the Methodology and Path Analysis of Crosslanguage. *Foreign Language Teaching and Research* 36, 205-212.
[5]   Wei, Benli. (2002). The Cultural Metaphor of First Person Deixis in Chinese and English. *Shandong Foreign Languages Journal* 6, 78-80.
[6]   Wen, Qiufang, Ding, Yanren & Wang, Wenyu. (2003). Features of oral style in English compositions of advanced Chinese EFL learners: An exploratory study by contrastive learner corpus analysis. *Foreign Language Teaching and Research* 4, 268-276.
[7]   Zhong, Zhihua. (2007). Communicative Function and Cultural Difference of the Plural English and Chinese First Deixis. *Journal of Liaoning Administration College* 12, 175-176.
[8]   Zhou, Lei & Niu, Zhongguang. (2007). Analysis of First Personal Deixis Projection from Pragmatic Distance Perspective. *Journal of Chongqing Institute of Technology* 21, 168-170.

Yujie Su was born in Wenzhou, China in 1978. She received her M.A. degree in Foreign Languages and Applied Linguistics from Guangdong University of Foreign Studies, Guangzhou, China in 2009.

She started her career as an English teacher in Zhejiang College of Industries and Technologies after beautiful accomplishment of four-year study and graduation from Zhejiang University in June of 2001. Since the August of 2002 she was transferred to Wenzhou Normal College and pursued her career as an English teacher. In 2007 she entered Guangdong University of Foreign Studies for her M.A. degree. Up to now she has published almost 10 research papers in journals. Her research interests include English teaching, translation and lexicography.

Ms Su is a member of College of Foreign Languages in Wenzhou University.

The Motivation of Learners of Arabic: Does it Decrease with Age?

Pauline Ghenghesh

Department of English Language, the British University in Egypt,
El Sherouk City, Postal No. 11837, P.O. Box 43, Cairo, Egypt
E-mail: paulineghenghesh@yahoo.co.uk

Abstract—This study investigated the motivation of a heterogeneous group of students studying Arabic as a second language at the International School in Tripoli area. The aim of the study was to find out the extent to which various factors affect students' motivation and achievement in second language learning particularly as they enter the senior high school. The research also looked into the temporal dimension of L2 motivation to see if the students' motivation changes as they enter the senior high school. One hundred and forty four students from thirty five nationalities learning Arabic and four teachers participated in the completion of the questionnaire surveys. Twenty students and two teachers took part in the semi-structured interviews. Data were drawn from students' examination results and a combined quantitative-qualitative approach in which student and teacher questionnaire surveys were followed by a round of student and teacher interviews. The results of the *'Student's Motivation Questionnaire'* show that L2 motivation in the sample decreases with age. The results of one-way analyses of variance across the five age groups investigated show that the older learners tend to score significantly lower on the motivational scales and the interviews data gives further support to this finding. There are a number of influential factors that affect learners' motivation: in particular the role of the teacher was seen fundamental in determining the attitude to the language and in supplying motivation. Other external factors include aspects related to the learning context.

Index Terms—motivation, L2 learners, achievement, learning context, second language

I. INTRODUCTION

It has been commonly accepted that the learners' achievement in learning a second/foreign language is related to their level of motivation to learn the language. Motivation is a kind of internal drive that encourages a learner to pursue a course of action and is responsible for initiating the learning and later the driving force to sustain the learning process over the long and arduous years it takes to learn a language. It is believed that without sufficient motivation no other factor on its own can ensure student achievement (Dörnyei, 2001).

The first three decades of L2 motivation research saw a considerable amount of empirical investigations which were mostly inspired by Robert Gardner and his associates in Canada applying versions of a standardised motivation test. The results of this research have demonstrated that attitudes and motivation are related to how well individuals learn a second/foreign language. By the early 1990s the study of motivation took a turning point following a call to arms by Crookes & Schmidt (1991) to explore various directions in which the social psychological construct of L2 motivation could be further developed. As a result of this, the 1990s saw an influx of L2 research that extended and covered a variety of issues, particularly cognitive and situation-specific variables.

Amongst some of the researchers who have made an invaluable contribution to our understanding of L2 motivation are Williams & Burden (1997). These authors reviewed a substantial number of general motivational theories as well as some recent research on L2 motivation. The different aspects of this research have been presented in the form of a framework of motivational factors.

Similarly, Dörnyei (1994) attempted to integrate the various components of motivation and at the same time focus on the components that would be applicable to foreign language learning contexts as opposed to second language learning contexts. He drew up an extended motivational framework which was similar in nature but broader to that of Crookes & Schmidt's (1991) approach. The tripartite division of the framework was also based on the empirical results of Clément, Dörnyei & Noels, (1994) classroom study in Hungary in which a tripartite L2 motivation construct emerged comprising integrativeness, linguistic self-confidence and the appraisal of the classroom environment. Using this as the basis, Dörnyei developed a more general framework of L2 motivation. This framework consists of three relatively distinct levels.

The first level is The Language Level which comprises the Integrative Motivational Subsystem and the Instrumental Motivational Subsystem. The second level of this motivational construct is the Learner Level, which involves various cognitive aspects of motivation which form part of the 'baggage' that a person brings to the learning process. The third level of motivation is the Learning Situation Level which involves three sub-categories of motivational components. They are: 1. Course-Specific Motivational Components, 2. Teacher-Specific Motivational Components and 3. Group-

Specific Motivational Components.

A number of researchers have found that there is a strong connection between the teacher and the learners' motivation, achievement, negative feelings and effort (Chambers, 1998; Clément et al , 1994; Gardner, Masgoret, Tennant, Mihic, 2004; Mihaljević, 1990, 1992, 1994; Nikolov, 1999; Ozek & Williams, 1999; Ryan & Patrick, 2001; Williams & Burden, 1999; Williams, Burden & Al-Baharna, 2001; Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2009; Hardré & Sullivan, 2008). The results of these studies highlight the fact that "the teacher's level of enthusiasm and commitment is one of the most important factors that affect the learners' motivation" (Dörnyei, 1998, p. 130).

Furthermore, other external factors such as the course, teaching methods, instructional materials, influences of family, friends, learning activities and even individual tasks can affect the learners' motivation, achievement, effort, and develop positive or negative feelings (Chambers, 1998; Dörnyei, 1994, 2002; Dörnyei, 2008; Donitsa-Schmidt, Inbar & Shohamy, 2004; Egbert, 2003; Ellis, 1985; Inbar, Shohamy & Donitsa-Schmidt, 1999, 2001; Julkunen, 1990, 1994, 2001; Mihaljević, 1990, 1994; Ozek & Williams, 1999; Williams & Burden, 1999; Williams et al, 2001).

A review of the literature on motivation in an educational context reveals that even though research has been carried out on student motivation, only a few studies have been conducted analysing the dynamics of L2 motivational change in educational institutions (Chambers, 1999; Williams & Burden, 1999; Williams, Burden & Lanvers, 2002; Tachibaba, Matsukawa & Zhong, 1996; Gardner, Masgoret, Tennant & Mihic, 2004) despite the fact that the learners' interest needs to be sustained over the many years it takes to learn a language. It appears logical therefore, that research on the temporal dimension of L2 motivation is important to our understanding of the different influential factors that affect learners throughout the lengthy process of their study.

Since the results of the above studies suggest that the motivation of learners in school contexts declines with age and that it is influenced by external factors related to the teacher and course-specific motivational components outlined in Dörnyei's (1994) framework of L2 motivation, the objectives of the current study were to find out: (a) the extent in which various factors affect students' motivation and achievement in second language learning particularly as they enter the senior high school; (b) to carry out a cross-comparison of the results obtained by the questionnaire with those of the interviews and (c) to obtain additional information on how students motivation can be enhanced.

II. METHOD

A. Participants

The participants in this study were students and teachers from the 'International School of the Martyrs' in the Tripoli area. One hundred and forty four students from thirty five nationalities learning Arabic participated in the questionnaire survey. The participants were selected from five different levels: Grades 6 – 10. All the participants in these levels who were present on the days the questionnaire was administered took part in the completion of this instrument. Questionnaire Item 116 sought to find out what the students' first language was (and not whether they were native or non-native speakers of the language), and the answers indicate that 38 students constitute 'English as a first language group' and 54 'Arabic as a first language group'. The students' grades, gender and language proficiency level are summarised in Table 1.

TABLE 1.
GRADES, GENDER AND LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY LEVEL OF STUDENTS

| Grade | Total | Gender | | Proficiency level[a] |
		Female	Male	Arabic
6	28	17 (60.7%)	11 (39.3%)	82%
7	32	15 (46.9%)	17 (53.1%)	64%
8	26	13 (50%)	13 (50%)	49%
9	34	10 (29.4%)	24 (70.6%)	52%
10	24	8(33.3%)	16 (66.7%)	77%
Total	144	63 (43.8%)	81 (56.2%)	64.8%

[a]Mean examination results

In all, four teachers participated in the completion of the 'Teacher's Evaluation of Student's Motivation Questionnaire', two from the elementary school and two from the high school. The four teachers are of Arab origin.

There were twenty students (8 males and 12 females) that took part in the semi-structured interviews. They constitute four ethnic backgrounds: Europeans (6); Asians (1); Arabs (11) and Africans (2). Eight students were selected from Grade 8, six from Grade 9 and six from Grade 10. Students were chosen according to the following criteria:
- They had completed the student questionnaire.
- They were sufficiently talkative to allow for the gathering of rich data.
- They were available at the time of the interviews.

The two Arabic teachers that participated in the semi-structured interviews are both of Arab origin. The criteria that was used for teacher selection was based on which levels the teachers had taught.

B. Instruments

Data were collected using both quantitative and qualitative methods. In all a total of four research instruments were

devised for this study: a questionnaire for students, a questionnaire for teachers, one round of semi-structured interviews for students and a semi-structured interview for teachers. In addition to this the achievement scores of the first-term examination were provided by each class teacher.

C. Procedures

The investigation consisted of four stages. For the initial stage a Student's Motivation Questionnaire was administered to all students in Grades 6-10 during their regular class time. The questionnaire consisted of 101 statements, questions and bipolar adjectives, which required the students to respond to the items by simply evaluating a statement/question on a five-point Likert scale or marking their responses on seven-point semantic differential scales. In addition, two open-ended statements provided the students with the opportunity to include their own ideas on ways which they thought could help them learn these languages. The questionnaire also sought to obtain background information about the students. The main part of the questionnaire consisted of 101 items about the learning of Arabic, representing 19 motivational variables. The number of items for each variable varied from two to fourteen. Table 2 presents the main variables that were used in this study and number of items that addressed them.

TABLE 2.
THE MAIN VARIABLES IN THE QUESTIONNAIRE AND THE NUMBER OF ITEMS FOR EACH

Variables	Number of Items
Orientations to Learning Arabic	14
Attitudes Toward Studying Arabic	8
Frequency of Contact with Native- Speaking People	3
Frequency of Contact with Target Language	7
Quality of Contact with Native-Speaking People	3
Quality of Contact with Target Language	7
Attitudes Toward L2 Community	4
Parental Encouragement	4
Parents Expectations	4
Friends Influences	4
Anxiety in Class	5
Arabic Use Anxiety	3
Expectations	6
Effort	7
Self-Evaluation of Arabic	6
Desired Arabic Proficiency	6
Satisfaction	2
Attitudes Toward the Arabic Lessons	4
Attitudes Toward the Arabic Textbook	4

For the second stage of data elicitation the 'Teacher's Evaluation of Student's Motivation Questionnaire' was devised for the teachers who taught the classes that took part in this study. This instrument consisted of three items which focused on the teachers' perception of (a) the motivation of the students to learn these languages; (b) how active they were in class; (c) how conscientious they were towards their homework assignments. For each item the teachers were asked to respond by marking an option on a 7 point-semantic differential scale. The aim of this instrument was to collect performance data about the students and, based on this, to select students to participate in the subsequent interview sessions.

For the third and fourth stages of data collection, semi-structured interview techniques were used for students and teachers. It was believed that the data collected by this method would enable the students to elaborate on the issues raised in an exploratory manner and allow the researcher to explore the underlying patterns of thinking that go beyond the surface level answers on questionnaires.

The interviews were conducted with the students and teachers during the regular school time. The interview questions for students and teachers are as follows:

1. Students
a. How important is it for you to study Arabic?
b. Has your motivation to learn Arabic changed over the years, if so why?
c. What can the school do to enhance your motivation?
d. How can teachers help increase your motivation?
e. What other things would help increase your motivation?
2. Teachers
a. Do you think there is a change in students' motivation as they grow older, if so why do you think this is?
b. What do you think the school can do to enhance student motivation?
c. What can teachers do to help increase student motivation?

D. Data Analysis

The data obtained from the Student's Motivation Questionnaire was computer coded and processed with the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 9.2. The negatively worded statements were recoded before

calculating the composite scale scores. The 'Teacher's Evaluation of Student's Motivation Questionnaire' and the Achievement scores were also analysed using the SPSS.

The analytical procedure consisted of four phases. Firstly, in order to check if the scales in our 'Student's Motivation Questionnaire' were reliable, the researcher computed for each scale the Cronbach Alpha internal consistency reliability coefficient. Items which reduced the internal consistency of a scale were omitted from the scales before further analytical procedures were carried out. As can be seen in Table 3 most figures meet acceptable levels of reliability.

TABLE 3.
NUMBER OF ITEMS, RELIABILITY COEFFICIENT AND SAMPLE ITEMS FOR ALL SCALES

Motivational Scales	# Items	Arabic	Sample Item
Instrumental Orientation	9	.84	Studying this languages is necessary for my future educational plans.
Integrative Orientation	9	.84	Studying this languages will allow me to get to know people from different parts of the world.
Attitudes Towards Studying	7	.63	I really enjoy studying this language.
Frequency of Direct Contact	3	.87	How often do you converse with students at school whose first language is Arabic?
Frequency of Indirect Contact	7	.88	How often do you watch TV in this language?
Quality of Contact with language	7	.81	How much do you enjoy watching TV in this language?
Quality of Direct Contact	3	.73	How much do you enjoy conversing with people in general whose first language is Arabic?
Parental Influence	8	.84	My parents think this language is important to learn.
Anxiety	6	.66	I feel embarrassed when I speak in front of the class.
Expectations	4	.84	I expect to be able to speak fluently and at ease with someone in this language.
Effort	6	.53	Do you complete your assignments in this subject?
Self-Evaluation	6	.93	I read this language.
Desired Proficiency	6	.83	I would like to be able to read in this language.
Satisfaction	2	.74	Are you satisfied with your class work in this subject?
Attitudes Lessons	4	.71	enjoyable - not enjoyable
Attitudes Textbook	4	.80	interesting - not interesting
Motivated Behaviour	3	.93	motivated - not motivated
Total: mean coefficients		.79	

Secondly a correlational analysis using Pearson Product-Moment Correlations was conducted to identify the interrelationship between the motivational variables and to examine the relationship between those factors and effort, motivated behaviour and achievement scores. Thirdly, a One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed to compare the mean scores of the motivational variables, effort and motivated behaviour across the various age groups. Fourthly, Post-hoc tests were conducted to find out which groups were significantly different to each other.

The semi-structured interviews were tape-recorded and transcribed. The data were content analysed in two groups, Grade 8 and Grades 9 and 10 in order to look for patterns and relationships within the text and compare responses between the different age groups. Notes were taken of student's answers and were listed in specific descriptive phrases that could be presented and read in a clear and comprehensible fashion. At the end of the analysis there was one complete table illustrating the responses to the questions. As with the students' interviews the tape-recorded interviews of the teachers were analysed in a similar fashion to that of the students.

III. RESULTS & DISCUSSION

A. Questionnaire

Reliability of the student's motivation questionnaire

By grouping items that measured the same target area it was possible to obtain multi-item scales and compute total scale scores for them. Based on theoretical considerations and a series of reliability analyses, seventeen such scales were produced from the 101 items contained in the student's questionnaire and the three items from the teacher's questionnaire – the scales are described in Table 3. The internal consistency reliability of each of these subscales was

measured by the Cronbach's Alpha coefficient. These coefficients ranged from .53 to .93 with a mean coefficient of .79. Generally the more items a category contains, the higher the reliability estimate. Therefore, given the relative shortness of the scales, most of these estimates are acceptably high.

B. Correlational Analyses

1. The whole sample

Following the reliability analysis, a correlation analysis was conducted to identify the interrelationship of the motivational variables and to examine the relationship of those factors with effort, motivated behaviour and achievement scores. The motivated behaviour scores were obtained from the 'Teacher's Evaluation of Student's Motivation Questionnaire'. The achievement scores were based on the first term examination marks of the school year.

The correlations for the whole sample (n=144) consisting of fourteen motivational scales with the criterion measures are displayed in Table 4. As can be seen many coefficients are significant - there are a total of twenty eight in all. Most significant correlations emerged with *'Effort'*. This was to be expected because effort in this study was operationalised as 'intended effort' and was measured with the same item format and item type as the motivational variables. Although most of the motivational variables have a significant positive correlation with the criterion measure *'Effort'*, it is only *'Desired Arabic proficiency', 'Attitudes towards the Arabic lessons' and Attitudes towards the Arabic textbook'* that have shown a highly significant positive relationship (i.e. significant at the $p < .01$ level) with all the three criterion measures: *'Effort', 'Motivated behaviour' and 'Examination results'*. This confirms the situation-specific emphasis of motivational studies that emerged after the educational shift. Further confirmation of this trend was obtained by the fact three other scales, *'Expectations of Arabic', 'Self evaluation of Arabic' and 'Satisfaction with Arabic'* have a significant correlation with the learning context comprising the lessons and are therefore major determinants of effort to do well in Arabic classes. The impact of the learning context is also reflected by the correlation between *'Attitudes towards studying Arabic'* with *'Effort' and 'Motivated behaviour.'*

The criterion measure 'Motivated behaviour' has produced many significant correlations with the motivational scales. This may be related to the fact that the cultural perspective of what constitutes motivated student behaviour is different from an Anglophone and Arabic perspective. Arabic teachers, whose evaluation formed the basis of this measure, link perceived student motivation to a well-defined set of behaviours which the students are to perform in the more traditional framework of the language classes. As evidenced by the correlations in Table 4 these behaviours are indeed a good reflection of the students' motivation.

The *'Frequency of direct contact scale'* did not produce any significant results, which is quite surprising as fifty four students that took part in this study actually fall into the category of 'Arabic as a first-language group'. Besides this, Arabic is taught as a second language at the International School as it is the official language spoken in Libya and students are surrounded at school and outside the school setting by people who use it as the main vehicle of everyday communication. Therefore one would certainly expect these students to have more opportunities of contact with native speakers. One possible explanation for this lack of personal contact with the L2 community is related to the students' learning and living environments. At the initial stages of administering this questionnaire, there were four hundred and twenty eight students enrolled at the International School from forty eight nationalities, each possessing their own native language. Therefore in order for these students (Arabs and Non-Arabs) to be able to communicate together at school and outside school, they need to have one language which is common to all - this of course being English as it is the most widely used language amongst them. The same applies to contact outside the school setting. Most of the foreign students (non-Libyans) live in compounds surrounded by people from different multi-ethnic backgrounds including some Arabs. However, in so far as Arabic as first language group are concerned, one would certainly expect them to have more personal contact outside the school setting.

The *'Quality of contact with native-speaking people'* scale is present as a significant (positive) correlation with *'Effort'* ($P < 0.01$) even though, as was mentioned above, there was no significant correlation between the frequency of direct contact scale and the criterion measures. This could be related once again to the fact that students do enjoy meeting and conversing at school with friends who are Arabic speakers and outside the school environment with neighbours or when they go shopping but just as long as they can speak in English. Moreover, this analysis shows that students have integrative goals for learning Arabic. They obviously realise the benefits of learning the language even though they lack the contact with the people. In regards to the Arabic speakers one would expect that they do enjoy communicating with their families, friends and neighbours outside the school context in their native-language

As can be seen the high negative correlation between *'Anxiety'* and *'Effort'* clearly shows that anxiety affects effort which means that those students who are more anxious are not willing to exert as much effort as their less anxious counterparts. One hypothesis for this anxiety is that teachers' tend to be very strict with the students and also they have insufficient personal contact with the language. As can be seen *'Attitudes towards learning Arabic', 'Attitudes towards the lessons'* and *'Attitudes towards the textbook'* correlate positively with *'Effort'* which undoubtedly will influence their motivation and in turn will generate effort towards learning this second language.

Thus, the above findings emphasise the importance of the learning situation level of student motivation, particularly the course-specific motivational components comprising the syllabus, materials, teaching method and tasks as outlined in Dörnyei's (1994) framework of L2 motivation. The results therefore give empirical support to Dörnyei's hypothetical construct. Further evidence to support this important finding can be found in eight studies conducted in different parts

of the world. (Chambers, 1998, 1999; Clément et al 1994; Donitsa-Schmidt et al 2004; Inbar et al 1999, 2001; Mihaljević, 1996; Nikolov, 1999, Ozek & Williams 1999). These scholars have been cited in the introduction. Parents are also influential figures in helping their children acquire an L2, as indicated by the significant positive correlation between 'External influences of parents' and 'Effort'. This is in agreement with a study carried out by MacIntyre, Baker, Clément & Conrod (2001), where results indicated a particularly salient parental influence.

TABLE 4.
PEARSON PRODUCT-MOMENT CORRELATIONS BETWEEN MEASURES OF MOTIVATIONAL VARIABLES, EFFORT, MOTIVATED BEHAVIOUR AND EXAMINATIONS RESULTS FOR THE WHOLE SAMPLE (GRADES 6-10)

	EFFORT	MOTIVATED BEHAVIOUR	EXAM RESULTS
Instrumental Orientation	.38**	.26**	.14
Integrative Orientation	.45**	.24**	.15
Attitudes Towards Studying Arabic	.41**	.23**	.09
Frequency of Direct Contact with Native People	.14-	.10	-.02
Frequency of Indirect Contact with Arabic	.33**	.23**	.04
Quality of Contact with Arabic	.35**	.20*	-.02
Quality of Contact with Native-People of Arabic	.29**	.00	-.05
External Influences of Parents	.36**	.06	.07
Anxiety of Arabic	-.31**	-.15	-.28**
Expectations of Arabic	.41**	.28**	.09
Self-Evaluation of Arabic	.41**	.22**	.13
Desired Arabic Proficiency	.40**	.22**	.26**
Satisfaction with Arabic	.45**	.17*	.17*
Attitudes Towards Arabic Lessons	.49**	.29**	.28**
Attitudes Towards Arabic Textbook	.47**	.29**	.25**
Multiple correlation	.67***	.49*	.47*

*$P < 0.05$, **$P < 0.01$, *** $P < 0.001$

2. Grades 7, 8 and 9, 10 combined

The results of the correlational analysis for Grades 7, 8 and 9, 10 are shown in Table 5. By splitting the sample into two sub-groups there are fewer significant correlations which are partly due to the reduced sample sizes. However, as can be seen in the table, another reason for the less clear cut picture is the difference between the two age groups. Motivation does not seem to play a very salient role in junior high school in determining outcomes whereas it does in senior high school, and the changes are the combined function of two reasons: 1) As we will see later, motivation has been found to decrease significantly in the higher years. This means that in junior high school there is an overall level of motivation with far less variance than in senior high school, which depresses correlation coefficients in general. 2) A second, more speculative, explanation is that as students mature their motivational perspectives become clearer: those who feel motivated and responded accordingly in the questionnaire really mean it, whereas in others demotivation has also been established by that stage.

As Table 5 shows, three motivational variables: *'Desired Arabic proficiency', 'Attitudes towards the lessons'* and *'Attitudes towards the textbook'* correlate positively with the three criterion measures for the lower grades. This shows that these components have a positive influence on the effort students' are willing to expend to learn this language as well as their motivation and L2 achievement.

TABLE 5.
PEARSON PRODUCT-MOMENT CORRELATIONS BETWEEN MEASURES OF MOTIVATIONAL VARIABLES, EFFORT, MOTIVATED BEHAVIOUR AND EXAMINATIONS RESULTS FOR GRADES 7, 8 AND 9, 10

	GRADES 7 & 8			GRADES 9 & 10		
	EFFORT	MOTIVATED BEHAVIOUR	EXAM RESULTS	EFFORT	MOTIVATED BEHAVIOUR	EXAM RESULTS
Instrumental Orientation	.46**	.33*	.17	.27*	.05	.05
Integrative Orientation	.51**	.32*	.14	.31*	.09	.07
Attitudes Towards Studying Arabic	.55**	.31*	.12	.17	.08	-.01
Frequency of Direct Contact	.20	-.10	.22	.08	-.18	-.12
Frequency of Indirect Contact	.36**	.19	.13	.21	.19	-.21
Quality of Contact with Arabic	.49**	.30*	.21	.30*	.17	-.31*
Quality of Contact with Native-People	.31*	.08	.15	.22	-.07	-.27*
External Influences of Parents	.44**	.01	.01	.13	-.08	-.02
Anxiety of Arabic	-.37**	-.20	-.30*	-.20	-.02	-.27*
Expectations of Arabic	.52**	.35**	.20	.10	.15	-.21
Self-Evaluation of Arabic	.47**	.22	.21	.20	.15	-.06
Desired Arabic Proficiency	.55**	.37**	.29*	.15	-.12	.13
Satisfaction with Arabic	.29*	.08	.06	.46**	.20	.16
Attitudes Towards Arabic Lessons	.61**	.40**	.36**	.29*	.08	.16
Attitudes Towards Arabic Textbook	.57**	.36**	.34**	.23	.18	.11
Multiple correlation	.81***	.76**	.60	.73*	.49	.56

*$P < 0.05$, **$P < 0.01$

Anxiety appears to be associated more with learning Arabic amongst the lower grades (7 and 8) as shown by the negative relationship between *'Anxiety', 'Effort'* and *'Examination results'*. This could be related to the difference in teaching methodologies amongst the teachers as the elementary teachers are Libyans while in the high school they are mostly Iraqis. Therefore as students enter the high school they need to adapt to their new teachers' style of teaching.

3. Non-Arabic as a first language group

Looking at the results of the correlations for all the non-Arabic speakers as a first language group (Table 6) similarities can be found to those in Table 4 for the whole sample, which provides evidence for the validity of the study. In addition, the fact that the *'Frequency of indirect contact scale'* showed no significant correlation with the criterion measures, is more than likely related to the students lack of L2 proficiency which is inhibiting them from enjoying the cultural artifacts of the L2 community. Furthermore, the negative correlation between *'Anxiety'* with the criterion measures *'Effort'* and *'Examination results'* also reflects the findings in Table 5 that learners do experience anxiety learning this language.

TABLE 6.
PEARSON PRODUCT-MOMENT CORRELATIONS BETWEEN MEASURES OF MOTIVATIONAL VARIABLES, EFFORT, MOTIVATED BEHAVIOUR AND EXAMINATIONS RESULTS FOR ALL NON-ARABIC AS FIRST LANGUAGE GROUP

	EFFORT	MOTIVATED BEHAVIOUR	EXAM RESULTS
Instrumental Orientation	.34**	.29**	.22*
Integrative Orientation	.41**	.25*	.19
Attitudes Towards Studying Arabic	.36**	.22*	.11
Frequency of Direct Contact with Arabic	-.01	-.22*	-.06
Frequency of Indirect Contact with Arabic	.19	.13	.01
Quality of Contact with Arabic	.24*	.15	-.07
Quality of Contact with Native-People	.14	-.15	-.07
External Influences of Parents	.30**	-.01	.14
Anxiety of Arabic	-.29**	-.15	-.27*
Expectations of Arabic	.28**	.19	.07
Self-Evaluation of Arabic	.33**	.14	.19
Desired Arabic Proficiency	.36**	.22*	.26*
Satisfaction with Arabic	.34**	.05	.19
Attitudes Towards Arabic Lessons	.45**	.28**	.30**
Attitudes Towards Arabic Textbook	.40**	.26*	.29**
Multiple correlations	.71**	.59	.55

*$P < 0.05$
**$P < 0.01$

C. One-way Analysis of Variance

1. The whole sample

The results of the correlation analyses indicate that there are differences between the motivational dispositions of various subgroups in the whole sample. This warranted performing a one-way between group analysis of variance (ANOVA) to compare the mean scores of the motivational variables and criterion measures (effort and motivated behaviour) across these sub-groups.

TABLE 7.
THE RESULTS OF THE ONE-WAY ANALYSIS OF VAIRAINCE OF THE MOTIVATIONAL VARIABLE AND THE CRITERION MEASURES (EFFORT AND MOTIVATED BEHAVIOUR) AMONG GRADES 6, 7, 8, 9 AND 10

	Grade	M	SD	F	Sig.
Effort	6	4.28	0.59	3.05	0.02*
	7	3.94	0.89		
	8	4.05	0.73		
	9	3.82	0.84		
	10	3.51	1.04		
Motivated Behaviour	6	5.96	1.41	1.52	0.20
	7	5.11	1.66		
	8	5.69	1.20		
	9	5.55	1.37		
	10	5.29	1.57		
Instrumental Orientation	6	3.78	0.78	0.91	0.46
	7	3.52	1.01		
	8	3.79	0.67		
	9	3.49	0.80		
	10	3.62	0.63		
Integrative Orientation	6	3.89	0.70	3.30	0.01**
	7	3.67	0.95		
	8	3.98	0.56		
	9	3.34	0.81		
	10	3.55	0.72		

Attitudes Towards Studying Arabic	6	3.68	0.98	1.39	0.24
	7	3.41	1.15		
	8	3.73	0.99		
	9	3.22	1.03		
	10	3.34	0.85		
Frequency of Direct Contact with Arabic	6	3.13	1.27	0.99	0.41
	7	3.65	1.16		
	8	3.26	1.22		
	9	3.55	1.44		
	10	3.64	1.09		
Frequency of Indirect Contact with Arabic	6	2.50	1.12	1.27	0.29
	7	2.12	0.92		
	8	2.35	1.11		
	9	2.0	0.87		
	10	2.13	1.13		
Quality of Contact with Arabic	6	2.90	1.13	0.32	0.86
	7	2.76	1.00		
	8	2.79	1.00		
	9	3.02	0.84		
	10	2.74	1.23		
Quality of Contact with Native-People of Arabic	6	3.42	1.13	0.06	0.99
	7	3.34	1.32		
	8	3.37	1.19		
	9	3.43	1.32		
	10	3.49	1.20		
External Influences of Parents	6	4.03	0.85	1.32	0.27
	7	3.83	1.01		
	8	3.94	0.88		
	9	3.57	0.85		
	10	3.72	0.66		
Anxiety of Arabic	6	2.54	1.13	2.23	0.07
	7	2.92	1.08		
	8	2.78	0.90		
	9	2.84	0.81		
	10	2.24	0.83		
Expectations of Arabic	6	3.51	1.29	3.17	.02*
	7	2.86	1.25		
	8	3.11	1.28		
	9	2.58	1.04		
	10	2.53	1.15		
Self-Evaluation of Arabic	6	3.36	1.30	1.66	0.16
	7	3.05	1.21		
	8	3.06	1.15		
	9	2.62	1.11		
	10	2.93	1.01		
Desired Arabic Proficiency	6	4.26	1.04	0.99	0.42
	7	3.78	1.29		
	8	4.18	0.82		
	9	3.95	1.07		
	10	4.06	0.92		
Satisfaction with Arabic	6	3.68	1.37	4.1	.004**
	7	3.33	1.23		
	8	3.17	1.4		
	9	2.51	1.10		
	10	3.10	0.99		
Attitudes Towards Arabic Lessons	6	5.72	1.76	0.97	0.43
	7	5.20	1.92		
	8	5.36	1.53		
	9	4.93	1.51		
	10	5.30	1.17		
Attitudes Towards Arabic Textbook	6	5.46	1.72	3.0	0.02*
	7	4.64	1.88		
	8	5.27	1.65		
	9	4.36	1.53		
	10	4.24	1.39		

**$p < 0.01$

The scores across each of the five class groups are shown in Table 7 and the ANOVA results reveal highly significant differences with regard to a number of key motivational variables. Following the analysis, a post-hoc comparison was performed to see which groups differed significantly from one another (Table 8). Looking at the results in Table 8, a very consistent pattern emerges as the variables that show age difference are always characterised by a *decline* with age particularly amongst the older learners (Grades 9 and 10). This powerful and consistent trend, which has parallels in the literature (see the review in the first part of the paper), is one of the most important findings of this study, and it will be further examined in the following analyses. Also, the follow up interviews will look into the

broader issue of motivational change. This important finding indicates that the decrease of L2 motivation found with Arabic is not necessarily specific to the actual target language but is more general.

TABLE 8
POST-HOC COMPARISON OF THE MOTIVATIONAL VARIABLES AND CRITERION MEASURES AMONG GRADES 6, 7, 8, 9 AND 10 THAT SHOWED A SIGNIFICANCE BETWEEN-GROUP DIFFERENCE IN THE ANOVA

	Integrative Orientation	Expectations	Effort	Satisfaction with Arabic	Attitudes Towards Arabic Textbook	Examination Results
Grade 6	3.89	3.51	4.28	3.68	5.46	82.11
Grade 7	3.67	2.86	3.94	3.33	4.64	63.75
Grade 8	3.98	3.11	4.05	3.17	5.27	49.40
Grade 9	3.34	2.58	3.82	2.51	4.36	51.76
Grade 10	3.55	2.53	3.51	3.10	4.24	76.54
F	3.30	3.17	3.05	4.10	3.02	15.74
P	.01	.02	.02	.004	.02	.000
Post-hoc comparison	8, 6, 7, 10	6, 8, 7	6, 8, 7, 9	6, 7, 8, 10	6, 8, 7, 9	6, 10
LSDa (Least Significant Difference)	7, 10, 9	8, 7, 9, 10	8, 7, 9, 10	8, 10, 9	8, 7, 9, 10	7 9, 7

[a] Numbers refer to students grades; numbers in the same line indicate non-significant mean differences

Once again these findings further support other empirical studies that found that motivation does not remain constant throughout the many years it takes to acquire a language (e.g. Dörnyei, 2000 and Ushioda, 1996). Researchers have shown time and again that there is a decline in motivation as the student gets older and progresses to higher grades. I will come back to this question when discussing the interview data.

2. Grades 6 and 7

TABLE 9.
THE RESULTS OF THE ONE-WAY ANALYSIS OF VAIRAINCE OF THE MOTIVATIONAL VARIABLE AND THE CRITERION MEASURES (EFFORT AND MOTIVATED BEHAVIOUR) AMONG GRADES 6 AND 7

	Grade	M	SD	F	Sig.
Effort	6	4.28	0.59	2.99	0.09
	7	3.94	0.89		
Motivated Behaviour	6	5.96	1.41	4.49	0.04*
	7	5.11	1.66		
Instrumental Orientation	6	3.78	0.79	1.16	0.29
	7	3.52	1.01		
Integrative Orientation	6	3.89	0.70	1.0	0.32
	7	3.67	0.95		
Attitudes Towards Studying Arabic	6	3.68	0.98	1.0	0.32
	7	3.41	1.15		
Frequency of Direct Contact with Arabic	6	3.13	1.27	2.70	0.11
	7	3.65	1.15		
Frequency of Indirect Contact with Arabic	6	2.50	1.12	2.08	0.16
	7	2.12	0.92		
Quality of Contact with Arabic	6	2.90	1.13	0.22	0.65
	7	2.76	1.00		
Quality of Contact with Native-People of Arabic	6	3.42	1.13	0.07	0.80
	7	3.34	1.31		
External Influences of Parents	6	4.03	0.85	0.67	0.42
	7	3.83	1.01		
Anxiety of Arabic	6	2.54	1.13	1.78	0.19
	7	2.92	1.08		
Expectations of Arabic	6	3.51	1.29	3.91	0.05*
	7	2.86	1.25		
Self-Evaluation of Arabic	6	3.36	1.30	0.93	0.34
	7	3.05	1.21		
Desired Arabic Proficiency	6	4.26	1.04	2.56	0.12
	7	3.78	1.29		
Satisfaction with Arabic	6	3.68	1.37	1.09	0.30
	7	3.33	1.23		
Attitudes Towards Arabic Lessons	6	5.72	1.76	1.18	0.28
	7	5.20	1.92		
Attitudes Towards Arabic Textbook	6	5.46	1.72	3.10	0.83
	7	4.60	1.88		

*$p < 0.05$, **$p < 0.01$

Since a decline in attitudes and motivation is said to occur during the transition from elementary to middle school (Eccles & Midgley, 1989), a comparison of the mean scores between Grades 6 and 7 was considered to be of importance in order to obtain a better understanding of what motivational factors influence motivation and L2 achievement. The results are presented in Table 9.

Comparing the mean scores of Grades 6 and 7 reveal a lack of significant results especially for Grade 7 students entering the high school, which shows that there does not seem to be a transitional break when it comes to Arabic. As a result of this, the students' motivational disposition towards Arabic does not change upon entering high school.

3. Grades 7, 8 and 9, 10 combined

The results of the mean scores for the one-way analysis of variance between the motivational variables and the criterion measures (effort and motivated behaviour) for Grades 7, 8 and 9, 10 (Table 10) reveal that the lower grades have obtained the highest scores for the three motivational components in comparison to the higher grades.

On the one hand, two of the results parallel closely those obtained by the correlations (Table 5) for the lower grades. They are *'Integrative orientation'* and *'Attitudes towards the textbook'* scales.

The results also show that the *'Satisfaction'* and *'Attitudes towards the textbook'* scales are also important components that influence motivation amongst these groups of learners. Besides this, the older students are significantly less motivated integratively than their younger counterparts.

TABLE 10.
THE RESULTS OF THE ONE-WAY ANALYSIS OF VAIRAINCE OF THE MOTIVATIONAL VARIABLE AND THE CRITERION MEASURES (EFFORT AND MOTIVATED BEHAVIOUR) AMONG GRADES 7, 8 AND 9, 10

	Grade	M	SD	F	Sig.
Effort	7 + 8	3.99	0.82	3.31	0.07
	9 + 10	3.69	0.93		
Motivated Behaviour	7 + 8	5.37	1.49	0.06	0.80
	9 +10	5.44	1.45		
Instrumental Orientation	7 + 8	3.64	0.88	0.46	0.50
	9 +10	3.54	0.73		
Integrative Orientation	7 + 8	3.81	0.81	6.73	0.01**
	9 +10	3.43	0.77		
Attitudes Towards Studying Arabic	7 + 8	3.55	1.08	2.21	0.14
	9 +10	3.27	0.95		
Frequency of Direct Contact with Arabic	7 + 8	3.47	1.19	0.25	0.62
	9 +10	3.59	1.30		
Frequency of Indirect Contact with Arabic	7 + 8	2.22	1.01	1.06	0.31
	9 10	2.03	0.98		
Quality of Contact with Arabic	7 + 8	2.78	0.99	0.31	0.58
	9 + 10	2.89	1.03		
Quality of Contact with Native-People of English	7 + 8	3.35	1.25	0.19	0.66
	9 +10	3.46	1.26		
External Influences of Parents	7 + 8	3.88	0.94	2.34	0.13
	9 +10	3.63	0.78		
Anxiety of Arabic	7 + 8	2.85	0.99	2.29	0.13
	9 +10	2.59	0.87		
Expectations of Arabic	7 + 8	2.97	1.26	3.55	0.06
	9 +10	2.56	1.07		
Self-Evaluation of Arabic	7 + 8	3.06	1.17	2.21	0.14
	9 +10	2.75	1.07		
Desired Arabic Proficiency	7 + 8	3.96	1.11	0.04	0.85
	9 + 10	3.99	1.00		
Satisfaction with Arabic	7 + 8	3.26	1.18	5.65	0.02*
	9 +10	2.76	1.08		
Attitudes Towards Arabic Lessons	7 + 8	5.27	1.74	0.43	0.51
	9 +10	5.08	1.38		
Attitudes Towards Arabic Textbook	7 + 8	4.92	1.79	4.06	0.05*
	9 +10	4.31	1.46		

*p<0.05, **p<0.01

4. English as a first language group, Arabic as a first language group and other nationalities learning Arabic

As shown in this analysis, when it comes to Arabic there is no homogeneity in the school (see Table 11). This in fact is not surprising because the school was set up to represent a small microcosm of English within an Arabic country and therefore the main thrust is to develop a consistent positive disposition towards English amongst multicultural students. This binding force compensates for the mixed relations towards the host environment.

As can be seen in Table 11, there is a huge difference in regards to the mean scores and groups as the Arabic as a first language group has received the highest scores for fourteen motivational variables followed by the English as a first language group. Furthermore, low scores on the anxiety scale mean low anxiety level and as the results show the Arabic as a first language group are the least anxious towards learning this language in comparison to the other two groups.

TABLE 11.
ANALYSIS OF VARIABLE OF MOTIVATIONALE SCALES ACROSS THE THREE L1 GROUPS

	Language	M	SD	F	Sig.
Effort	English	3.60	0.99	5.07	.007**
	Arabic	4.16	0.64		
	Other	3.94	0.86		
Motivated Behaviour	English	4.78	1.67	6.72	.002**
	Arabic	5.74	1.31		
	Other	5.81	1.34		
Instrumental Orientation	English	3.52	0.86	11.66	.000**
	Arabic	4.01	0.63		
	Other	3.32	0.77		
Integrative Orientation	English	3.59	0.87	12.41	.000**
	Arabic	4.05	0.62		
	Other	3.34	0.77		
Attitudes Towards Studying Arabic	English	3.49	1.03	15.32	.000**
	Arabic	3.96	0.78		
	Other	2.96	1.01		
Frequency of Direct Contact with Arabic	English	3.73	1.04	52.77	.000**
	Arabic	4.27	0.69		
	Other	2.40	1.12		
Frequency of Indirect Contact with Arabic	English	2.10	0.84	45.26	.000**
	Arabic	2.98	0.98		
	Other	1.50	0.54		
Quality of Contact with Arabic	English	2.57	0.93	14.78	.000**
	Arabic	3.37	0.96		
	Other	2.38	0.85		
Quality of Contact with Native-People of Arabic	English	3.36	1.10	19.31	.000**
	Arabic	4.06	0.92		
	Other	2.70	1.24		
External Influences of Parents	English	3.97	0.87	14.40	.000**
	Arabic	4.14	0.70		
	Other	3.34	0.84		
Anxiety of Arabic	English	3.08	0.92	24.71	.000**
	Arabic	2.05	0.84		
	Other	3.08	0.82		
Expectations of Arabic	English	2.68	1.12	29.36	.000**
	Arabic	3.75	1.02		
	Other	2.23	1.02		
Self-Evaluation of Arabic	English	2.65	0.97	73.12	.000**
	Arabic	4.04	0.79		
	Other	2.14	0.77		
Desired Arabic Proficiency	English	3.86	1.07	17.22	.000**
	Arabic	4.60	0.66		
	Other	3.54	1.12		
Satisfaction with Arabic	English	2.82	1.20	31.78	.000**
	Arabic	4.01	0.91		
	Other	2.50	0.99		
Attitudes Towards Arabic Lessons	English	5.16	1.63	24.52	.000**
	Arabic	6.26	0.95		
	Other	4.36	1.61		
Attitudes Towards Arabic Textbook	English	4.49	1.63	9.88	.000**
	Arabic	5.53	1.48		
	Other	4.20	1.71		

**$p < 0.01$

Arabs obviously have the most positive attitudes since we are talking here about their heritage language/culture, but the most negative ones are not the English speakers, but speakers of other languages for whom English is also a L2. For learners who are faced with two foreign languages English and Arabic, the choice is obvious – English - and Arabic is seen basically as a hindrance.

Interestingly, the *'Motivated behaviour'* scale reveals some interesting findings as the other nationalities have received the highest score followed by the Arabic as a first language group. The results show that the Arabic teachers have evaluated the former group as being more motivated to learn this language. The reason for this could lie in the area of perceived relevance as the other nationalities could associate the relevance of learning Arabic in a way that the English and Arabic speakers fail to see. Whereas a number of Arab students in this study may regard English as being more relevant and useful to them for their future studies abroad, the other nationalities have also realised the importance of learning Arabic as they are living in an Arabic speaking country. It is also quite possible that they will also one day follow in the same footsteps as their parents and live and work in an Arabic speaking country.

Following this analysis a post-hoc test was performed to see which groups differed significantly from one another, (Table 12). As can be seen, Arabic as a first language group have obtained the most statistically significant scores at the $p <. 01$ level for all the motivational variables except anxiety and the criterion measure motivated behaviour. There is

also a great deal of variance between the scores. In regards to *'Anxiety'* this grade obtained the lowest mean score of 2.05 which actually indicates that they have the lowest anxiety level towards learning this language.

Once again the English as a first language group and Arabic as a first language group have the least significant scores for the *'Motivated behaviour'* scale, indicating that the other nationalities are more motivated to learn this language.

TABLE 12.
POST-HOC COMPARISION OF MOTIVATIONAL VARIABLES AND CRITERION MEASURES AMONG ENGLISH AS A FIRST LANGUAGE GROUP, ARABIC AS A FIRST LANGUAGE GROUP AND OTHER NATIONALITIES THAT SHOWED A SIGNIFICANCE BETWEEN GROUP DIFFERENCE IN THE ANOVA

.	Instrumental Orientation	Integrative Orientation	Attitudes Towards Studying Arabic	Direct Contact with Arabic	Indirect Contact with Arabic	Quality of contact with Arabic
1. English	3.52	3.59	3.49	3.73	2.10	2.57
2. Arabic	4.01	4.05	3.96	4.27	2.98	3.37
3. Other	3.32	3.34	2.96	2.40	1.50	2.38
F	11.66	12.41	15.32	52.77	45.26	14.7
P	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
Post-hoc comparison	2	2	2	2	2	2
LSD (Least Significant Difference) 1, 3			1	1	1	1, 3
		1, 3	3	3	3	

TABLE 12. CONTD…

	Quality of Contact with People	Influences of Parents	Anxiety	Expectations of Arabic	Effort	Self-Evaluation of Arabic
1. English	3.36	3.97	3.08	2.68	3.60	2.65
2. Arabic	4.06	4.14	2.05	3.75	4.16	4.04
3. Other	2.70	3.34	3.08	2.23	3.94	2.14
F	19.31	14.40	24.71	29.36	5.07	73.12
P	.000	.000	.000	.000	.007	.000
Post-hoc comparison	2	2, 1	3, 1	2	2, 3	2
LSD (Least Significant Difference)	1	3	2	1	3, 1	1
	3			3		3

TABLE 12. CONTD….

	Desired Arabic Proficiency	Satisfaction with Arabic	Attitudes Towards Arabic lessons	Attitudes Towards Arabic Textbook	Motivated Behaviour
1. English	3.86	2.81	5.16	4.49	4.78
2. Arabic	4.60	4.01	6.26	5.53	5.74
3. Other	3.54	2.50	4.36	4.20	5.81
F	17.22	31.78	24.52	9.88	6.72
P	.000	.000	.000	.000	.002
Post-hoc comparison	2	2	2	2	3, 2
LSD[a] (Least Significant Difference)	1,3	1, 3	1		1
			3		

[a] Numbers refer to students grades; numbers in the same line indicate non-significant mean   differences

D. Interviews

1. How important is it for you to study Arabic?

From the analysis of the interviews, it is evident that the majority of learners regard Arabic as being important to some degree. This is clear in their responses to Question 1. Some positive reasons for studying Arabic are: *'Arabic is my language.'* Interestingly, this is how one student whose first language is English expressed her view about learning Arabic: "*I'm in an Arab country and I'd like to know how to speak Arabic because people are Arabic*".

2. Changes in motivation

As was mentioned earlier, the main objective of the semi-structured interviews was to try to obtain a more in depth explanation as to why the motivation of the older learners' in particular towards learning a second language decreases with age as they enter the senior high school.

The results of the interviews show some similarities and differences with those of the quantitative comparisons based on the questionnaire data as all the younger learners claim to have been motivated in Grade 6 and attributed this to their teacher. In contrast, however, all the younger learners said that their motivation decreased in Grades 7 and 8. Once again the teacher was the most significant reason cited by the majority of students. It needs to be stressed that all but one of the younger learners who attributed their decrease in motivation to the teacher had actually been taught by the same teacher in both grades. A number of negative factors related to the teacher were mentioned, amongst them were: *"he's strict and doesn't treat us nice"*; *"he's always shouting"*; *"he doesn't explain well"*; and *"didn't teach me anything"*. In fact, one student stated that after he moved to another teacher's class during the middle of the first term his motivation actually increased again. This is what the student had to say: *"Yes, it has increased because he's a good teacher. He doesn't shout at people and if you make a mistake he's like tells you that it's wrong and he helps you"*.

The emerging patterns for Question 2 of the semi-structured interview also indicate that although the majority of older learners claim to have been motivated in Grades 7 and 8, their motivation decreased in the higher grades (Grades 9 and 10). Interestingly, the majority of older learners also attributed their decrease in motivation to the teacher. This is how some students described their feelings towards the language after being taught by their teacher: *"I don't like Arabic anymore"*; *"I really hate Arabic"*; *"I don't like learning Arabic in class"* and *"in his class no one wants to learn Arabic"*.

The above finding casts more light on the temporal dimension of motivation and is in accordance with the findings of the post-hoc comparisons which revealed that age difference was characterised by a decline with age, particularly amongst the older learners. Students attributed their decrease in motivation mostly to the teachers and aspects related to the lessons. The teachers' findings are in accordance with the students as they also mentioned factors related to the teachers, such as, making classes interesting and explaining lessons clearly. This finding emphasises the importance of external factors related to the teacher and course-specific motivational components outlined in Dörnyei's (1994) framework of L2 motivation.

3. The school's motivational influence

Since students' motivation can be strongly affected by external and uncontrollable factors such as the school and the teachers' influence, Questions 3 and 4 attempted to elicit what students think the school and teachers can do to enhance their motivation. There is a consensus between the responses of the Arabic teachers and the older learners to the former question as they have cited the books as factors that can influence motivation. This finding is also in accordance with that of Chambers (1999) study as the textbook assumed considerable importance being placed second (after that of the teacher) in determining student attitudes towards the language course.

4. The teacher's motivational influence

To shed more light on the teacher's motivational influence, the responses to Question 4 showed that the majority of the older learners (Grades 9 and 10) mentioned that teachers should possess certain qualities amongst them are: (a) to be friendly and kind; (b) understand the students problems and help them; (c) to explain well/more; (d) make the lessons fun/interesting and (e) the teacher should be more interesting. Interestingly, 'stop shouting' was clearly one of the most significant responses cited by the majority of older learners.

As the above results and comments show the role of the teacher is an extremely complex one. Amongst other things teachers need to possess certain qualities that will help in providing intrinsic motivation, which include making their class interesting. The teacher also needs to be adept at ways of getting the students to learn the language without shouting at them in front of their peers.

Although Chambers (1999) study examined a very different population – British secondary school learners of German, the results of these interviews highlight his findings and shed more light on the fact that the teacher has a strong motivational influence on students despite what language is being learned.

5. Other influential factors

The results of Question 5 show that negative comments from peers can also have a devastating affect on motivation. This older learner explains how his friends' negative comments about the teacher and lessons strongly affect him: *"It kind of makes me feel that it's not important, it's boring or the teacher is boring and stuff, yes"*.

IV. CONCLUSION

The current study was aimed at finding out the extent in which various factors affect students' motivation and achievement in second language learning particularly as they enter the senior high school and whether motivation decreases with age. The results of the quantitative data and qualitative interviews give further support to the findings of empirical research conducted in different parts of the world which found that motivation does decline with age. It was hypothesised at the outset that factors related to the learning context would have the greatest effect on the students' language learning due to the students' lack of exposure to native-speaking people. The findings confirm this hyposthesis as there are a number of different factors that can have a motivational influence on students' during the course of their studies. In the eyes of the learners, the teacher is seen to be the key figure in determining the attitude to the language and in shaping motivation. Therefore, the teacher has the complex task of generating initial student motivation and

helping students maintain it. The teacher's support, enthusiasm, positive approach in providing a learning experience which is interesting is an important motivational component. The above findings provide further evidence of the importance of the Learning Situation Level including Teacher-Specific and Course-Specific Components outlined in Dörnyei's (1994) framework of L2 motivation.

REFERENCES

[1]   Chambers, G. N. (1998). Pupils' Perceptions of the Foreign Language Learning Experience. *Language Teaching Research*, 2,3: 231-259.
[2]   Chambers, G. (1999). Motivating Language Learners. Multilingual Matters, Clevedon.
[3]   Clément, R., Dörnyei, Z., & Noels, K. A. (1994). Motivation, Self-confidence and Group Cohesion in the Foreign Language Classroom. *Language Learning*, 44: 417-48.
[4]   Crookes, G. & Shmidt, R. W. (1991). Motivation: Reopening the Research Agenda. *Language Learning*, 41: 469-512.
[5]   Donitsa-Schmidt, S., Inbar, O., and Shohamy, E. (2004). The Effects of Teaching Spoken Arabic on Student's Attitudes and Motivation in Israel. *The Modern Language Journal*, 88: 217-228.
[6]   Dörnyei, Z. (1994). Motivation and Motivating in the Foreign Language Classroom. *The Modern Language Journal*, 78: 273-84.
[7]   Dörnyei, Z. (1998). Motivation in Second Language and Foreign Language Learning. *Language Teaching*, 31: 117-35.
[8]   Dörnyei, Z. (2000). Motivation in Action: Towards a Process-Oriented Conceptualisation of Student Motivation. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 70: 519-38.
[9]   Dörnyei, Z. (2001). Teaching and Researching Motivation. Harlow: Longman.
[10]   Dörnyei, Z. (2002). The Motivational Basis of Language Learning Tasks. *In Individual Differences and Instructed Language Learning*. John Benjamins Publishing Company. 137-58
[11]   Dörnyei, Z. (2008). New ways of motivating foreign language learners: Generating vision. *Links*, *38* (Winter), 3-4.
[12]   Eccles, J. S. & Midgley, C. (1989). Stage/Environment Fit: Developmentally Appropriate Classrooms for Early Adolescents. In: R. Ames & C. Ames (Eds.), *Research on Motivation in Education*: 3: 139-181. New York: Academic Press.
[13]   Egbert, J. (2003). A Study of flow theory in the Foreign language Classroom. *The Modern Language Journal*, 87: 499-518.
[14]   Ellis, R. (1985). Understanding Second Language Acquisition. Oxford University Press.
[15]   Gardner, R.C. (1985). Social Psychology and Second Language Learning. The Role of Attitudes and Motivation. Edward Arnold, London.
[16]   Gardner, R. C. (1996). Motivation and Second Language Acquisition: Perspectives. *Journal of the CAAL*, 18: 19-42.
[17]   Gardner, R.C., Masgoret, A-M., Tennant, J., Mihic, L. (2004). Integrative Motivation: Changes During a Year-Long Intermediate-Level. *Language Learning*, 54: 1-34.
[18]   Guilloteaux, M. J. & Dörnyei, Z. (2009). Reply to Rod Ellis's comment on "Motivating language learners: A classroom-oriented investigation of the effects of motivational strategies on student motivation". *TESOL Quarterly*, *43*(1), 109-111.
[19]   Hardré, P. L. & Sullivan, D. W. (2008). Student differences and environment perceptions: How they contribute to student motivation in rural high schools. *Learning and Individual Differences, 18*(4), 471-485.
[20]   Inbar, O., Donitsa-Schmidt, S., & Shohamy, E. (2001). Students' Motivation as a Function of Language Learning: The Teaching of Arabic in Israel. In: Z. Dörnyei & R. Schmidt (Eds.), *Motivation and Second Language Acquisition* (Technical Report No. 23: 297-311. Honolulu: University of Hawai'i, Second Language Teaching and Curriculum Centre.
[21]   Inbar, O., Shohamy, E., and Donitsa-Schmidt, S. (1999, March) The Effect of Teaching Spoken Arabic Dialect on Student's Attitudes, Motivation and Communicative Competence in Israel. Paper presented at the meeting of the American Association for Applied linguistics (AAAL). Stamford, CT.
[22]   Julkunen, K. (1990). Open and Closed Vocabulary Tasks in Foreign Language Learning. In: J. Tommola (Ed.), *Foreign Language Comprehension and Production*. Publications of AfinLA 48: 7-25. Turku, Finland: AfinLA.
[23]   Julkunen, K. (1994). Gender Differences in Students' Situation- and Task-Specific Foreign Language Learning Motivation. In: Tella, S. (Ed.) 1994. Nayton Paikka. Opetuksen Kuulttuurin Arviointi. Osa I. Helsingin Yliopiston Opettajankoulutuslaitos. *Tutkimuksia*, 129: 171-80.
[24]   Julkunen, K. (2001). Situation- and Task-Specific Motivation in Foreign Language Learning. In: Z. Dörnyei & R. Schmidt (Eds*.), Motivation and Second Language Acquisition* (Technical Report No. 23: 29-41. Honolulu: University of Hawai'i, Second Language Teaching and Curriculum Centre.
[25]   MacIntyre, P. D., Baker, S. C., Clément, R., & Conrod, S. (2001). Willingness to Communicate, Social Support, and Language – Learning Orientations of Immersion Students. *Studies in Second language Acquisition*, 23: 369-88.
[26]   Mihaljević, J. (1990). Research on Motivation for Learning English as a Foreign Language. *Studia Romanica Et Anglica Zagrabiensia*, 35: 151-60.
[27]   Mihaljević, J. (1992). Attitudes Towards the Teacher as a Factor in Foreign Language Learning. *Studia Romanica Et Anglica Zagrabiensia*, 37: 143-52.
[28]   Mihaljević, J. (1994). Variation in Learner Effort – Effects of the Teaching Setting. *Studia Romanica Et Anglica Zagrabiensia*, 39: 53-57
[29]   Mihaljević, J. (1996). EFL Learning: The Effect of Affect. Second and Foreign Language Acquisition. In: A., Nizegorodcew & A. Kosiarz-Stolarska (Eds.), Towarzystwo-Autorow I Wydawcow Prac Naukowych: 69-74. UNIVERSITAS, Krakow.
[30]   Nikolov, M. (1999). 'Why Do You Learn English?' 'Because the Teacher is Short.' A Study of Hungarian Children's Foreign Language Learning Motivation. *Language Teaching Research*, 3,1: 33-56.
[31]   Ozek, T. & Williams, M. (1999). The Influence of Various Motivational Factors on Foreign Language Learning. *In Individual Differences in Foreign Language Learning: Effects of Aptitude, Intelligence and Motivation*. Conference Proceedings March 26th and 27th: 69-82.

[32] Ryan, A. M. & Patrick, H. (2001). The Classroom Social Environment and Changes in Adolescents Motivation and Engagement During Middle School. *American Educational Research Journal*, 38: 437-60.

[33] Tachibaba, Y., Matsukawa, R., Zhong, Q. X. (1996). Attitudes and Motivation for Learning English: A Cross-national Comparison of Japanese and Chinese High School Students. *Psychological Reports*, 79: 691-700.

[34] Ushioda, E. (1996). Learner Autonomy 5: The Role of Motivation. Authentik, Dublin.

[35] Williams, M. Burden, R., (1997). Psychology for Language Teachers. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.

[36] Williams, M. & Burden, R. L, (1999). Students' Developing Conceptions of Themselves as Language Learners. *The Modern Language Journal*, 83: 193-201.

[37] Williams, M., Burden, R. L., & Al-Baharna, S. (2001). Making Sense of Success and Failure: The Role of the Individual in Motivation Theory. In: Z. Dörnyei & R. Schmidt (Eds.), *Motivation and Second Language Acquisition* (Technical Report No. 23: 171-84. Honolulu: University of Hawai'i, Second Language Teaching and Curriculum Centre.

[38] Williams, M., Burden, R. L., & Lanvers, V. (2002). 'French is the language of Love and Stuff': Student Perceptions of Issues related to Motivation in Learning a Foreign Language. *British Educational Research Journal*, 28: 503-28.

Pauline Ghenghesh was born in Liverpool, U.K. in 1959. She completed her PhD in 2005 in the area of motivation related to teaching and learning from the University of Nottingham in the U.K.

She has teaching experience at primary, secondary, high school, undergraduate and postgraduate levels in various parts of the world, including Brazil, Libya, the U.K., Egypt and Saudi Arabia. She currently holds the position of Lecturer at the British University in Egypt. She has published articles and books. Amongst them are three textbooks: English for Medical Students, ELGA Publications, 1996; Basic English for Children (1), General Company for Paper and Printing, Tripoli, 2001; Basic English for Children (2), Al An Printing and Publishing, Lebanon, 2004.

Dr. Ghenghesh's main research interests include student and teacher motivation, ESL writing, teacher development and materials development.

The Effects of Teachers' Verbal Behavior on Students' Anxiety—Based on the First-year College English Classroom in China

Runjiang Xu
English Department, Zhenjiang Watercraft College of PLA, Zhenjiang, China
Email: xurunjiang_88@hotmail.com

Yucheng Li
English Department, Zhenjiang Watercraft College of PLA, Zhenjiang, China
Email: leemaomaofuji@yahoo.com.cn

Abstract—Language anxiety is one of the most important affective elements in language learning and it is found prevalent among first-year college students for their English study. Their English study cannot be developed without teachers' lessons, so this present thesis sets out to explore the relationship between the two in an attempt to propose some constructive adjustments and strategies for teachers so as to help reduce students' anxiety in the classroom and advance teaching skills.

Index Terms—teachers' verbal behavior, students' anxiety, first-year college English classroom

I. Introduction

Affective factors have been paid great attention in China over recent years since the college English classroom has seen a gradual shift from teacher-dominated to student-centered one. Such humanistic education advocates teachers to make their good arrangements and utilize efficient strategies to achieve their teaching goals and promote students' English acquisition. The famous Affective Filter Hypothesis (Krashen, 1982) demonstrates that affective factors can be a filter to control the achievements of foreign language acquisition. In order to acquire, two conditions are necessary. Krashen (qtd. in Gass, 1997) said that the first is comprehensible input, the second, a low or weak affective filter to allow the input "in". Therefore, teachers take advantage of teaching materials as many as possible in the classroom to reduce the language anxiety which is a negative factor resulting in low spirits for the learners. This paper attempts to observe the influence of teachers' verbal behavior at class on students' affect especially affect of anxiety and provide several teaching methods to overcome affective problems.

II. Anxiety and Language Anxiety

In psychological research, anxiety refers to the intense and enduring negative feeling caused by dangerous stimuli from the outside as well as the unpleasant emotional experiences involved, such as anticipation, irritation, and fear. It is a feeling of dread, fear, or apprehension, often with no justification (Britannica Concise, 2007). It is the product of subjective and internal emotion of human the causes of which may not be present. If anxiety can be described as a state of uneasiness and apprehension or fear caused by the anticipation of something threatening (Nomi Knba, Naoyoshi Ogawa, and Dennis Wilkinson, 2000), language anxiety is the uneasy and anxious mood caused by the process of foreign language learning. Scovel (1978) claims language anxiety is an emotional state of apprehension, a vague fear that is only indirectly associated with an object while Horwitz (1986) regards it as the subjective feeling of tension, apprehension, nervousness and worry associated with an arousal of the autonomic nervous system. Language anxiety ranks high among factors influencing language learning, regardless of whether the setting is informal (learning language outside the classroom) or formal (in the language classroom). (Arnold, 2000) There are three components of foreign language anxiety including communication apprehension, negative evaluation and test anxiety. (Horwitz E. K., Horwitz M. B. & Cope, 1986) Students involved in communication apprehension find it hard to express their ideas with accurate foreign-language vocabulary. Those who are fearful of negative evaluation find that they are unable to make the proper social impression and those who are afraid of test anxiety find that they cannot face failure. The three components are claimed by Horwitz to have a negative effect on foreign language learning and this negative effect is viewed by Arnold (1999) as debilitating anxiety.

However, to the first-year college students, the debilitating anxiety problem seems more harmfully operating on them. After they step into the college, they will find everything is fresh around them, such as the new learning environment, new disciplines arranged for them, and the new pattern of English course. Unfortunately the fresh air in some sense does not motivate them in language study but brings some pressure to them. Some students with low proficiency in

English undertake the peer pressure from their classmates with high proficiency in English. Some are not adapted to the college English class from their secondary school. Therefore they are confused whether they can face and handle the work in college successfully or not.

III.   Teacher's Verbal Behavior in Classroom Acting on Students' Language Anxiety

Here takes the findings which deserve enough consideration from Gao (2003) as an example. She carried out an empirical study to find that there do exist different English language anxiety levels among the Chinese college students. Generally students are more or less interfered with English anxiety. After Gao's (2003) qualitative study, the potential sources of English language anxiety of Chinese college students in English as foreign language (EFL) Classroom were probed. The results suggest that tests, classroom communication, teaching materials, and classroom atmosphere are the main sources resulting in Chinese college students' English language anxiety in EFL classroom, all of which can be seen to have a certain correlation to teachers' behavior. During Gao's research, she chose several typical students from different anxiety levels (high, average, low) to have their diary entries and interviews which reveal the same content of the atmosphere in classroom, the teachers' behavior and teaching pace and the like. Accordingly, the situation of first-year college students is worth paying more attention. They come from secondary school class where English language teaching is based on teacher-instructing and test-oriented pattern. In the classroom English grammar is emphasized and practical exercises for interacting are neglected. So it is interestingly found that freshmen cannot make a quick adjustment in college English class since the humanistic language teaching is advocated. They are embarrassed when asking to give their own opinion freely but feel accustomed to find a specific answer from textbook. When giving them too much time to answer, teachers tend to make a comparison for having another excellent student to answer, which give the former one unnoticeable anxiety. Sometimes students feel fearful to interact with teacher and their voices get smaller and smaller for they have got experiences that teachers would like to pick their errors every now and then which will get them ashamed in front of their classmates. Although the students' individual variables can be one of the sources of their anxiety, there is no doubt that the role of the teacher is of primary importance in guiding, constructing, and assessing instruction and learning in the classroom. The characters, attitudes and teaching methodology show great influence on students whether it is positive or not. Therefore, teachers' classroom behavior possesses great significance in English teaching and learning.

As to teacher's classroom behavior, it mainly includes two factors, that is, verbal messages and nonverbal ones. For the most part, verbal messages serve primarily a content function while nonverbal messages serve primarily a relational function, or they work as metamessages. The cognitive content of what we are sending to others usually is sent primarily via verbal messages. The affective or emotional meaning we have for the other person is sent primarily via nonverbal messages. (Tu & Ding, 2003) It comes clearly that verbal communication between teacher and students in the classroom can be the main mode of cognitive information and the efficient way of students' comprehensible input. In China, English learners lack of English-using environment, so their language achievements mainly depend on teacher's classroom verbal behavior. Long, Pica, Chaudron and Ellis have carried out studies on this and the results show that classroom speech contains 70% of the teacher's speech. If teachers' speed of speech is too fast, it will cause students' anxiety. Generally speaking, teachers need to find the right time to change his topic to make sure his students can follow. Furthermore, teachers need to take their vocabulary and sentence structures into consideration and use self-repetition sometimes to arouse students' attention so as to make themselves understood. Taking research of the classroom teaching process, teachers' verbal behaviors can be described from three aspects, that is, teachers' speech, question-answering part and teacher s' feedback.

A.   Teachers' Speech in the Classroom

As Gao (2003) mentioned in her case study, teacher dominates the talk in the classroom so that they have less time to give a reaction. The same happen in the classroom of first-year college students. Sometimes teacher gets the text paraphrased so difficult that they feel confused to understand the text. Then the teacher move quickly to next part of the text without checking students' understanding. Generally speaking, the pace of first-year college English class is largely controlled by the teacher who indulges himself in achieving his teaching aims with scant attention to the feeling of freshmen and explaining the text as many as possible without noticing the acceptability of freshmen. Gradually students feel pressed by the quick pace and large amount of information ending up with doubts about their language proficiency. To the extreme, some students loss their interests in English study and make up their minds to give up since they consider they will have no future in English study. It comes to teachers' sense that their responsibility is not only to provide a description of English but also to create an atmosphere in classroom by various teaching materials to encourage students learn more. Teachers are required to make a good arrangement of the class including giving certain amount of speech to make sure both the quantity and quality of information students can absorb. At the same time the speed of speech is playing a crucial role in language acquisition. Vocabulary and sentences used by the teacher are important as well. However, teachers may not always speak the same words for this type of input cannot foster development of students with no new linguistic material. Modifications sometimes are applauded for the second-year study.

B.   Teacher's Questions Part

Since the 1970s, there has been a change in the trend of language teaching methods from audiolingualism to communicative language teaching. As the communicative approach has been increasingly accepted and implemented in language classrooms, a growing interest in teaching language in use, rather than linguistic usage is found in the literature of second language acquisition (SLA). Teacher's questioning, as part of English classroom teaching, should not be an exception. (Yang, 2009) This can be seen as one of the tools for classroom interaction between teachers and students. Long (2003) puts forth "interactional hypothesis" to consider how language input is made comprehensible. He provides a model to account for the way in which interactional adjustments in two-way communication aid SLA. So it can be concluded that questions-answering as verbal communication task between teachers and students is used to exchange information so that there is opportunity for students to provide feedback on his/her comprehension. Through this, teachers can check learners' comprehensible input to achieve the goal of language acquisition. Ellis (1994) gives the research from the following eight aspects: 1) Types of questions; 2) Learners' output when they answer questions; 3) Teachers' choice of questions and the learners' proficiency level; 4) Questions in interaction; 5) Questions strategies; 6) Wait time; 7) Training teachers to ask better questions; 8) Learner questioning. Due to the correlation to language anxiety, here puts focus on one aspect: wait time.

Wait time is the pause between a teacher's questions and the learners' response and between the response and teacher's subsequent reaction and follow up (Arends, 2005). On average, teachers wait less than a second before calling on a student to respond, and that only a further second was then allowed for the student to answer before the teacher intervened, either supplying the required response themselves, rephrasing the question, or calling on some other student to respond (Nunan, 1991). If the wait time is given in short, students will find it in a hurry to think over and then just keep silent with their faces blushing. Here provides a suggestion for teachers to give more wait time for students according to their response to let them reorganize their reasons and reduce their nervousness. Furthermore, teachers can guide students by some cues which can break the tension of silence and make students higher promotion.

C. Teachers' Feedback

Teachers' feedback is given to assess students' performance in the classroom, which can bring positive outcome or negative one. It is positive feedback, more efficient than negative one, that make students know their good performance and motivate them in English study. Nevertheless, there do exist students expressing that they hope teacher can make reasonable evaluation for them not just simple praising words like "good", "excellent". Otherwise, error correction is worthy of being discussed here. The treatment of errors by teachers will influence students' affect. When and how to point out the errors is the key to avoid leaving students depression by "I make mistakes again and I am such a fool". It is a good technique to collect the errors in a list from students and let them learn the list to make a discussion so as to raise students self-conscious of those errors. All what teachers do can obey the principles given by Scrivener (1994): 1) building confidence; 2) raising awareness; 3) acknowledging achievement and progress; 4) helping students to become more accurate in their use of language.

III. CONCLUSION

To summarize, teachers' verbal behavior do have effects on students' anxiety, especially for first-year college students who undertake more language anxiety in the college English classroom for the different learning environments and teaching purposes between secondary school and college. So it asks teachers' attention to students' anxiety and make some adjustments to reduce their burden in the process of English learning. Accordingly, teachers' verbal behavior cannot be neglected to conduct a perfect interaction in the classroom. Owing to the limited time and space, there are several factors which have been neglected. Further studies might be carried out from other aspects to explore the correlation between teachers' behavior and student's anxiety so as to fulfill the research of college English teaching.

REFERENCES

[1]   Arnold, Jane. (1999). Affect in Language Learning. Cambridge: CUP.
[2]   Arnold, Jane. (2000). Seeing through Listening Comprehension Exam Anxiety. *TESOL Quarterly*, 34, 777-786.
[3]   Arends. R.I. (2005). Learning to Teach, Xian: Shanxi Normal University Press.
[4]   Britannica Concise. (2007). Http://www.britannica.com/EBchecked/topic/29092/anxiety
[5]   Ellis, R. (1994). The Study of Second Language Acquisition. New York: Oxford University Press, 201.
[6]   Gao, Yanling. (2003). English Language Anxieties of Chinese College Students in EFL Classroom. Shaanxi Normal University. Http://www.Chki.net.
[7]   Gass, S.M. (1997). Input, Interaction and the Second Language Learner. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
[8]   Horwitz, E. K. (1986). Preliminary evidence for the reliability and validity of a foreign language anxiety scale. *TESOL Quarterly*, 20, 559-562.
[9]   Horwitz, E. K., Horwitz, M. B. & Cope. J. (1986) Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety. *Modern Language Journal*, 70, 125-132.
[10] Krashen, S.D. (1982). Principles and Practice in Second Language Learning. New York: Pergamon.
[11] Long, M.H. (1996). The Role of the Linguistic Environment in Second Language Acquisition. In W. Ritchie & T. Bhatia. *Handbook of Second Language Acquisition.* San Diego, CA: Academic Press.

[12] Nomi Koba, Naoyoshi Ogawa, & Dennis Wilkinson. (2000). Using the Community Language Learning Approach to Cope with Language Anxiety. *The Internet TESL Journal*, Vol. VI, No.11. Http://www. Iteslj.org/Articles/Koba-CLL.Html
[13] Nunan, D. (1991). Language Teaching Methodology. London: Prentice Hall.
[14] Scovel, T. (1978). The effect of affect on foreign language Learning: A Review of the Anxiety Research. *Language Learning*, 28,129-142.
[15] Scrivener, J. (1994). Learning Teaching. Oxford: Heinemann.
[16] Tu Guoyuan, & Ding Hui. (2003). The Teacher's Nonverbal Behavior & Classroom Climate. *Journal of Central South University* (Social Science): 4.
[17] Yang Juan. (2009). Influence of Teachers' Questions and Feedback on Learners' Anxiety in English Classroom. JiangNan University. Http://www.Chki.net.

Runjiang Xu was born in Zhenjiang, China in 1984. She received her M.A. degree in Foreign Linguistics and Applied Linguistics from Jiangsu University, China in 2010.

She is currently a lecturer in English Department, Zhenjiang Watercraft College of PLA, Zhenjiang, China. Her research interests include Second Language Acquisition and Foreign Language Teaching.

Yucheng Li was born in Zhenjiang, China in 1982. She received her B.A. degree in English language and literature from Jiangsu University of Science and Technology, China in 2005.

She is currently a lecturer in English Department, Zhenjiang Watercraft College of PLA, Zhenjiang, China. Her research interests include Second Language Acquisition and British Literature.

A Critical Discourse Analysis of Barack Obama's Speeches

Junling Wang

School of Foreign Languages, Northwest Normal University, Lanzhou, China
Email: wangjl36@163.com

Abstract—**The Critical Discourse Analysis is often applied to analyze political discourse including the public speech, in which the speaker wins favorite response from the audience. This paper, based on Critical Discourse Analysis theory and Systematic Functional Linguistics, analyzes Barack Obama's presidential speeches mainly from the point of transitivity and modality, in which we can learn the language how to serve the ideology and power. Moreover, we can have a better understanding of the political purpose of these speeches.**

Index Terms— **Critical Discourse Analysis, transitivity, modality**

I. INTRODUCTION

Critical linguistic is also called Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA). It first originated in Britain in 1980s when the work *Language and Control* was published.

Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) is a type of discourse analytical research that primarily studies the way social power abuse, dominance, and inequality are enacted, reproduced, and resisted by text and talk in the social and political context. With such dissident research, critical discourse analysts take explicit position, and thus want to understand, expose, and ultimately resist social equality (Van Dijk, 1985).

Michael Alexander Kirkwood Halliday (often M.A.K. Halliday), an Australian linguist, developed an internationally influential grammar model－the Systemic Functional Grammar (also called Systemic Functional Linguistics). It is the main foundation of Critical Discourse Analysis as well as other theories in pragmatics.

The object of CDA is public speech, such as advertisement, newspaper, political propagandas, official documents, laws and regulations and so on. Its aim is to explore the relationships among language，ideology and power.

In the past twenty years, Critical Discourse Analysis developed quickly in aboard and had achieved great achievements. A large number of scholars have made contribution in the fields of critical analysis of political discourse. However, Critical Discourse Analysis is, comparatively speaking, a kind of new study in China. Only a few researchers work in this field. Since 90s of the last century, some articles about the basic theories and principles of Critical Discourse Analysis have just appeared in linguistic journals. Chen Zhongzhu, a professor in Beijing University, was the first person who introduced Critical Discourse Analysis to China. He made a review of critical linguistics and introduced its philosophical and theoretical foundations to Chinese linguists. Xin Bin is another prominent and productive scholar of Critical Discourse Analysis in China. From 1996 to 2002, he published many articles to further the study of Critical Discourse Analysis, in which he discussed the birth, development and methods of critical linguistics (Xu Xiaoxia, 2008). Since more and more Chinese-foreign academic exchanges in the 21st century, the development of Critical Discourse Analysis has come to a new stage. We can see more and more articles about Critical Discourse Analysis appeared in academic journals.

We know that every four years, hundreds of thousands of Americans will welcome the glory moment of electing a new president. They will canvass for their favorite candidates willingly. And every candidate will apply his or her rich language expressions, impassioned speeches and wholehearted attitudes to try to win more votes. The study of presidential addresses has not only attracted the interests of political scientists and historians, but also attained the attention of linguists. This year, Barack Obama, the first African-American president in American history, captured the world's attention.

In this thesis, the author will apply Halliday's Systemic Functional Grammar, in terms of the three meta-functions: ideational function，interpersonal function and textual function, to find out the formal features of Barack Obama's speeches. Its aim is to explore the relationships among language，ideology and power and to find out how to use the power of speeches to persuade the public to accept and support his policies.

II. THEORETICAL BASES

M.A.K. Halliday's Systemic Functional Grammar is usually considered the main foundation of Critical Discourse Analysis as well as other theories in pragmatics.

Systemic Functional Grammar has two components: SYSTEMIC GRAMMAR and FUNCTIONAL GTAMMAR.

They are two inseparable parts for an integral framework of linguistic theory. "Systemic grammar aims to explain the internal relations in language as a system network, or meaning potential. And this network consists of subsystems from which language users make choices. Functional grammar aims to reveal that language is a means of social interaction, based on the position that language system and the forms that make it up are inescapably determined by the uses or functions which they serve" (Hu Zhuanglin, 1988: 307).

Halliday thinks the procedure of stylistic analysis can be divided into three logically ordered phrases: Analysis, Interpretation and Evaluation. The limitless practical functions can be generalized into a set of highly coded and abstract functions—meta-functions, which are inherent in every language. His idea of meta-function includes the ideational function, the interpersonal function and the textual function.

A. Ideational Function

The first function Halliday points out is the ideational function. What is ideational function?

It is through this function that the speaker or writer embodies in language his experience of the phenomena of the real world; and this includes his experience of the internal world of his own consciousness: his reactions, cognitions, and perceptions, and also his linguistic acts of speaking and understanding (Halliday, 1971: 332)

In other words, this function is to convey new information, to communicate a content that is unknown to the hearer. It reflects the events and experience in both objective and subjective worlds.

The ideational function mainly consists of "transitivity" and "voice". Hu Zhuanglin, a Chinese linguist, point out: "This function not only specifies the available options in meaning but also determines the nature of their structural realizations" (Hu Zhuanglin, 1988: 312). For Example, *Kitty flies a kite* can be analyzed as: the Actor is *Kitty*, the process is Material and the Goal is *a kite*. The Actor, Process, Goal, and their subcategories reflect our understanding of phenomena that come within our experience.

The ideational function is mainly represented by the transitivity system in grammar. In this system，the meaningful grammatical unit is clause，which expresses what's happening，what's being done，what's felt and what the state is and so on (Cheng Yumin, 2007). The transitivity system includes six processes: material process，mental process，relational process，behavioral process, verbal process and existential process.

Material processes are those in which something is done. These processes are expressed by an action verb (e.g. eat, go, give), an Actor (logical subject) and the Goal of the action (logical direct object, usually a noun or a pronoun). (Hu Zhuanglin,1988) e.g. Marry is eating a banana.

Mental processes express such mental phenomena as "perception" (see, look), "reaction" (like, please) and "cognition" (know, believe, convince). A mental process involves two participants, Senser and Phenomenon. (Hu Zhuanglin, 1988) e.g. Tom likes chocolate.

Relational processes can be classified into two types: Attributive and Identifying. The former expresses what attributes a certain object has, or what type it belongs to, for example, *The temperature is high*. The latter expresses the identical properties of two entities. For example, *Lily is a girl; The girl is Lily.* (Hu Zhuanglin, 1988)

Verbal processes are those of exchanging information. Commonly used verbs are *say, tell, talk, praise, boast, describe,* etc. In these processes the main participants are Sayer, Receiver and Verbiage.

Behavioral processes refer to physiological and psychological behavior such as breathing, coughing, smiling, laughing, crying, staring, and dreaming, etc. Generally there is only one participant—Behaver, which is often a human. This kind of processes is much like the mental process. Behavioral process may sometimes be hardly distinguished from a material process that has only one participant. This depends on whether the activity concerned is physiological or psychological. When Behavioral process has two participants, we may take it as material process, for example, *His father beat the disobedient boy.* (Hu Zhuanglin, 1988)

Existential processes represent that something exists or happens. In every existential process, there is an Existent. For Example,
There is a girl in the garden.
Does ghost exist on earth?
Here comes a bus.

B. Interpersonal Function

In the second place, language serves as interpersonal function. As Halliday observed,

The speaker is using language as the means of his own intrusion into the speech event: the expression of his comments, attitudes and evaluations, and also of the relationship that he sets up between himself and the listener—in particular, the communication role that he adopts of informing, questioning, greeting, persuading, and the like. (Halliday, 1971:333)

Hu Zhuanglin (1988:313) points out: "The interpersonal function embodies all uses of language to express social and personal relations. This includes the various ways the speaker enters a speech situation and performs a speech act."

Modality and Mood are often used to express the interpersonal function. Mood shows what role the speaker selects in the speech situation and what role he assigns to the addressee. If the speaker selects the imperative mood, he assumes the role of one giving commands and puts the addressee in the role of one expected to obey orders. For example, *Pass*

me the book. (Hu Zhuanglin, 1988)

Modality refers to the intermediate ranges between the extreme positive and the extreme negative. It is one of the most important systems in social communication. On the one hand, it can objectively express the speaker's judgment toward the topic. On the other hand, it can show the social role relationship, scale of formality and power relationship. In English, except modal verbs, modal adverbs, adjectives, there are also personal pronouns, notional verbs, tense, direct and indirect speeches to express the modalization.

C. Textual Function

The third role of language is called textual function. Halliday described, "Language makes links between itself and the situation; and discourse becomes possible because the speaker or writer can produce a text and the listener or reader can recognize one" (Halliday, 1971:334). According to Hu Zhanglin,

The textual function refers to the fact that language has mechanisms to make any stretch of spoken or written discourse into a coherent and unified text and make a living passage different from a random list of sentences. Although two sentences may have exactly the same ideational and interpersonal functions, they may be different in terms of textual coherence. (Hu Zhuanglin, 1988: 315)

The textual function fulfils the requirement that language should be operationally relevant, having texture in a real context of situation that distinguishes a living passage from a mere entry in a grammar book or a dictionary. It provides the remaining strands of meaning potential to be woven into the fabric of linguistic structure. Information can be clearly expressed in a discourse. It can also be implicated between the lines. Therefore, all discourses are unities of explicit and implicit message. (Halliday, 1971)

Because language serves as a generalized ideational function, we are able to use it for all the specific purposes and types of context which involve the communication of experience. Because it serves a generalized interpersonal function, we are able to use it for the specific forms of personal expression and social interaction. And a prerequisite to its effective operation under both these headings what we have referred to as the textual function, whereby language becomes text, is related to itself and to its contexts of use. Without the textual component of meaning, we should be unable to make any use of language at all (Hu Zhuanglin, 1988).

III. INTRODUCTION OF SAMPLE SPEECHES

A. The Introduction of Barack Obama

Barack Obama, a first-term senator from Illinois, becomes the first African-American president of the United States. He was born on August 4, 1961, in Hawaii and has lived in many places, including Indonesia. His mother was from Kansas and his father from Kenya.

Obama attended Columbia University in New York and earned a law degree at Harvard University in Massachusetts. He and his wife, Michelle Obama, who also worked as a lawyer and later for the University of Chicago, have two young daughters, Sasha and Malia.

Serving in the Senate since 2004, Obama introduced bipartisan legislation which allows Americans to learn online how their tax dollars are spent. He also serves on the Veterans' Affairs Committee, which helps oversee the care of soldiers returning from Iraq and Afghanistan. So his approval rate on the internet is high. The most supporters of Obama are young people, African-American, poor citizens and the people who want to change. Facing with the economic crisis, two wars in Iraq and Afghanistan, Obama gave his campaign slogan "change has come" and hoped to rebuilt the confidence and believe of Americans.

In last August, Barack Obama defeated Hillary Rodham Clinton, the former first lady, and became the presidential candidate of the Democratic Party. And during the following months in 2008, he defeated McCain, the Republican Party's presidential candidate, and won the all three television debates held in Oxford (Mississippi), Nashville (Tennessee) and Hempstead (New York). And finally he relying on 333 electoral votes won the final success and became the 44th American president and the first African-American president in American history.

Barack Obama has written two books: *The Audacity of Hope: Thoughts on Reclaiming the American Dream (2006)* and *Dreams from my Father: A Story of Race and Inheritance (1995).*

B. Speeches for Analysis

Sample Speech 1. Obama's Victory Speech

On November 4, 2008, Barack Obama gave a victory speech in Grant Park of Chicago to appreciate his supporters and celebrated the success of elections. About 400,000 Americans got here and witnessed the happy moment.

Sample Speech 2. Obama's Inaugural Address

On January 20, 2009, the new American president Barack Obama gave his inaugural address before the Capital Rotunda in Washington. According to the official reports, population of the attendance reached about 2,000,000.

IV. DETAIL STUDY ON SAMPLE SPEECHES

From table 1, we can have a general view of the two speeches. We can see the total words of sample 1 are 2057,

including 110 sentences. The average length of words is 4.247 and sentence mean length is 18.7. Sample 2 is as the same, the total words are 2396, with an average length of 4.458. And the number of sentence is 112 with an average length of 21.39. So here, we can find that the two sample speeches mainly use simple words and short sentences. The language is easy and colloquial. The audience of the speeches is usually various, including the rich, the poor, the black, the white and so on. In order to shorten the distance between the president and the audience, we can find Obama used a lot of spoken English. Moreover, the subject of the two speeches is extensive, which isn't on account of one or two concrete issue. That is because the presidential speeches usually reflect the political platforms of the candidate, so the field is large, such as American history, present crisis, global issues and so on.

TABLE 1
STATISTIC OF SAMPLE SPEECHES

Statistical Item	Statistic	
	Sample 1	Sample 2
Words (Tokens)	2057	2396
Words (Types)	690	894
Tokens/Types	2.981	2.680
Word Classification	1687_114_…	1969_123_…
Sentences	110	112
Paragraphs	63	35
Characters	8736	10681
Sentence Mean Length	18.700	21.393
Word Mean Length	4.247	4.458

A. Transitivity Analysis

The ideational function is represented in text by transitivity. It is a basic semantic system, which construes the world of experience into a manageable set of process types. Halliday divides these processes into six types: material process，mental process，relational process，behavioral process, verbal process and existential process.

TABLE 2
OVERVIEW OF PROCESS TYPES (PENG PINGPING, 2007)

Process types	Core meaning	Participants
Material	'doing', 'happening'	Actor, Goal
Mental	'sensing'	Sensor, phenomenon
Relational	'being'	
Verbal	'saying'	Sayer, Receiver, Verbiage
Behavioral	'behaving'	Behaver
Existential	'existing'	Existent

TABLE 3
TRANSITIVITY IN THE SAMPLE SPEECHES

Sample Speech		Total Number	Material Processes	Metal Processes	Relational Processes	Behavioral Processes	Verbal Processes	Existential processes
1	NO.	212	123	18	48	8	12	3
	%		58	8	23	4	6	1
2	NO.	227	141	14	52	6	10	4
	%		62	6	23	2	4	2

From table 2 and 3, we can see that material processes are used most in the speeches with a percentage of 58% and 62%. Relational process ranks the second and then is followed by mental process. So here, the author will mainly analyze the first three ones.

1 Material process

Material process is a process of "doing". The process is usually indicated by a verb expressing an action, either concrete or abstract. There are usually two participants in the process: Actor and Goal. Actor is comparable to the Subject and Goal is comparable to the Object and both of them are usually realized by noun phrases. When the participants both exist, the clause can be either in active voice or in passive voice.

TABLE 4
TRANSITIVITY ANALYSIS OF SAMPLE SPEECHES (MATERIAL PROCESS)

ACTOT	PROCESS	GOAL
I	receive, congratulate, make, need, thank	call, partner, voice, help
We/Americans/each of us/all /our	achieve, start, get, face, share, seek, refuse, choose, reject, carry, understand, use, build, meet, restore, transform, taste, consume, send, volunteer, support,	money, the challenges, values, change, choice, vital trust, hope, journey, gift, greatness, energy, roads and bridge, reality, science, schools and colleges, new threats, the bitter swill, new way, world's resource , message,

From the above table (Table 4), we can see the Actors of the two sample speeches are I and we /Americans/each of us/all. Material process, as a process of doing, is a good choice in the address to demonstrate what the government has achieved, what they are doing and what they will do in different aspects of affairs, home or abroad. And it can also arouse the American people's confidence toward the president and his government and to get their support in policies or measures in the following four years. For example,

We (Actor) will begin to responsibly leave (Material Process) Iraq (Goal) to its people, and forge (Material Process) a hard-earned peace in Afghanistan (Goal). With old friends and former foes, we (Actor) will work tirelessly to lessen (Material Process) the nuclear threat (Goal), and roll back (Material Process) the specter of a warming planet (Goal). We (Actor) will not apologize(Material Process) for our way of life (Goal), nor will we (Actor) waver in its defense (Goal) , and for those who (Actor) seek to advance (Material Process) their aims by inducing terror and slaughtering innocents (Goal), we (Actor) say(Material Process) to you   (Goal) now that our spirit is stronger and cannot be broken (Material Process); you (Actor) cannot outlast(Material Process) us, and we (Actor) will defeat(Material Process) you   (Goal).

2 Relational process

Relational process is a process of being. It can be divided into two modes: attributive relation and identifying relation. The first means what properties an object possesses or what category it can be put into. And the other means that an entity and another is uniform. It is used widely in describing people and objects. Look at the following table:

TABLE 5

Attributive	Identifying
The dream of our founders is alive.	America is a friend of each nation. A friend of each nation is America.
Our challenges may be new.	America is a place where all things are possible. A place where all things are possible is America.

Relational process, as a process of being, is appropriate to explain the complex relationships between some abstract items because it sounds definite. As a result, the process accounts for a large proportion in these addresses to elaborate the relationship between traditional ideals and their beliefs. Such an elaboration can reach the President's aim of making the reasoning naturally and unconsciously accepted and making the required sacrifice in the speech willingly taken by the audience. (Cheng Yumin, 2007)

3 Mental process

Mental process is a process of feeling, thinking and seeing. Actor is not the real subject of doing, but the feeling. It represents inner experience, such as "perception", "reaction" and "cognition". We call the two participants are Senser and phenomenon. For example,

(1) In reaffirming the greatness of our nation, we (Senser) understand (Mental Process) that greatness is never a given.

(2) *As we (Senser) consider (Mental Process) the road that unfolds before us, we (Senser) remember (Mental Process) with humble gratitude those brave Americans who, at this very hour, patrol far-off deserts and distant mountains.*

(3) And we (Senser) know (Mental Process) the government can't solve every problem.

From above examples, we can see that mental process, as a process of sensing, appeals to the audience's inner heart to connect the political beliefs, ambitions with their expectation, hope in a clear and emphasized way. In this way, the audience's emotion of promotion and willingness to devotion is aroused and strengthened.

Halliday declared that material, relational and mental processes are three primary ones in language use since the three add up to about 90%. As an inaugural address for a newly elected American President, it must fulfill the traditionally and ritually required functions: to state facts of the domestic or worldwide situations or problems objectively and the relevant policies forcefully, to conduct reasoning related to the relationship between traditional beliefs such as freedom, democracy, justice, equality, principles, union, happiness and American dreams and citizens' participation, responsibilities, sacrifice and the needed reforms in economy, Medicare, or other fields.(Cheng Yumin, 2007)

For example,

(1) *There are mothers and fathers who will lie awake after the children fall asleep and wonder how they'll make the mortgage or pay their doctors' bills or save enough for their child's college education.*

(2) *Homes have been lost; jobs shed; businesses shuttered. Our health care is too costly; our schools fail too many; and each day brings further evidence that the ways we use energy strengthen our adversaries and threaten our planet.*

The above two sentence are examples of showing the fact that the situation in American is not good. The economic

crisis leaded many people lost their jobs. It is hard for them to pay the housing fee, tuitions Medicare and other heavy pays.

(3) *There's new energy to harness, new jobs to be created, new schools to build, and threats to meet, alliances to repair.*

(4) *So let us summon a new spirit of patriotism, of responsibility, where each of us resolves to pitch in and work harder and look after not only ourselves but each other.*

These two examples reveal that the government hopes the Americans can join together and rebuild their confidence and believes to defeat all the bad things.

B.   Modality Analysis

Modality refers to a speaker's attitudes towards or opinion about the truth of a proposition expressed by a sentence. It also extends to their attitude towards the situation or event described by a sentence.

1 Modal verbs

TABLE 6
MODAL VERBS (ZHANG GUOLING, 2006)

	Low politeness	Median politeness	High politeness
Positive	Can, may, could, might, dare	Will, would, should, shall	Must, ought to, need, has/had to
Negative	Needn't, doesn't/didn't , +need to, have to	Won't, wouldn't, shouldn't, isn't/wasn't to	Mustn't, oughtn't to, can't couldn't, mayn't, mightn't, hasn't/hadn't to

TABLE 7
MODALITY ANALYSIS OF SAMPLE SPEECHES (MODAL VERBS)

Sample Speeches	Total Number	Low politeness		Median politeness		High politeness	
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
1	2057	23	1.12	23	1.12	3	0.15
2	2396	29	1.12	28	1.12	9	0.38

According to the statistics, it is obvious that modal verbs are used to convey the addresser's attitudes and judgment, with an average of 0.8% in the whole speeches. The high percentage of the use of modal verbs is appropriate to the speaking since the addresses are delivered in spoken form. Compared with other verbs, modal verbs are more easily identified and understood and then accepted because at the time of listening to the speeches, there is no time for the audience to reflect.

For Example,

*(1) ...because they believed that this time **must** be different, that their voices **could** be that difference.*

*(2) The road ahead **will** be long. Our climb **will** be steep. We **may** not get there in one year or even in one term. But, America, I **have never been** more hopeful than I am tonight that we **will** get there.*

*(3) And to those Americans whose support I have yet to earn, I **may** not have won your vote tonight, but I hear your voices. I **need** your help. And I **will** be your president, too.*

*(4) We **will** build the roads and bridges, the electric grids and digital lines that feed our commerce and bind us together. We **will** restore science to its rightful place, and wield technology's wonders to raise health care's quality and lower its cost. We **will** harness the sun and the winds and the soil to fuel our cars and run our factories. And we **will** transform our schools and colleges and universities to meet the demands of a new age. All this we **can** do. All this we **will** do.*

2 Tense

Tense is the time of a clause. Halliday (1994) points out that primary tense means past, present or future at the moment of speaking; it is the time relative to "now".

TABLE 8
TENSE OF SENTENCES

Sample Speeches	Total Numbers	Present		Simple Past	Simple Future
		Simple	Perfect		
1	NO.	110	72	8	21	10
	%		65.5	7.2	19.1	9.1
2	NO.	112	71	13	12	14
	%		63.4	11.6	10.7	12.5

On the basis of the statistics of tenses, we can see that the tense of simple present is most frequently used in the speeches, the average percentage being 64.45%. Simple past ranks second with an average percentage of 14.9% and is followed by simple future with an average percentage of 10.8%. The use of present perfect is slightly less than simple future and ranks the fourth. It is natural that simple present tense ranks with top priority since the addresses are to present the domestic and world wide situations ranging from political, economic and cultural fields at present. The use

of the tense facilitates the creation of a close relationship between the president and his audience and the easy identification and acceptation of the validity of the assertions contained in the speaking.

Simple future tense is primarily used to show the planned or expected things in the future. The tense helps the president to lay out his or his government's following reforms or steps taken in his term to foster the buildup of the country and the corresponding change or results of these measures in the future. In this way, the government's objectives are shown and at the same time, the audience's confidence is built by the prospect of the beauty and prosperity of the future life. It will be a natural result that the American people will follow the government's direction and guidance in the next four years and thus the addresses' goal of seeking support is achieved. Simple past and present perfect tenses are used to refer to the actions or things in the past. Their function lies in that the newly elected presidents usually state the achievements in the founding of the country or in the last term or recall the positive or negative experiences in the past as basis or incentive of his following actions. By this means, his respect for the past is displayed and it can also make his plans reasoning and fully grounded. (Cheng Yumin, 2007)

3 Personal Pronouns

TABLE 9
PERSONAL PRONOUNS

Personal Pronoun		Sample Speeches	
		Obama's victory speech	Obama's Inaugural Address
First person	I (me)	35	3
	We (us)	60	85
Second person	You (you)	20	14
Third person	He (him)	4	1
	She (her)	8	0
	It (it)	14	0
	They (them)	8	4
Possecive pronoun		Obama's victory speech	Obama's Inaugural Address
My (mine)		12	2
Our(ours)		26	69
Your(yours)		6	3
His (his)		1	0
Her(hers)		6	0
Its (its)		0	0
Their (theirs)		11	0

From table 9, we can find out that the first person is used most. For example, the use of the first person pronoun "we" is to shorten the distance between the speaker and the audience, regardless of their disparity in age, social status and professions etc. it may include both the speaker and the listener into the same arena, and thus make the audience feel close to the speaker and his points.

C. Textual Analysis

The textual function refers to the fact that language has mechanisms to make any stretch of spoken or written discourse into a coherent and unified text and make a living passage different from a random list of sentences. Here, we take Sample 2 as an example.

Obama's inaugural address is the first time for him to give a formal speech as a president and also an optimal time to show himself a qualified president. As a result, to fulfill the aim of convincing the American people and the whole world that he and his team are capable of leadership, with vigor and with vision, he must illustrate the planned policies, both domestic and foreign, in a formal, convincing and forceful way. It often contains the following information: (Cheng Yumin, 2007)

1) Salutation
2) The expression of gratitude and honor
3) A review of the American history and achievement in the past
4) An analysis of the contemporary situation, at home and in the world
5) A displaying and explanation of domestic policies and/or foreign policies of the new government
6) Hopes for the beautiful and prosperous future of the country
7) Resort to God for help and blessing

The whole text is coherent, organized, accurate and logical. So it can help to persuade the public to accept and support his policies.

Meanwhile, we can find the strong religious content in his speech. Look at the following examples:

*(1) ...the **God**-given promise that all are equal, all are free and all deserve a chance to pursue their full measure of happiness.*

*(2) This is the source of our confidence — the knowledge that **God** calls on us to shape an uncertain destiny.*

*(3)...with eyes fixed on the horizon and **God's** grace upon us, we carried forth that great gift of freedom and delivered it safely to future generations.*

*(4) Thank you. **God** bless you. And **God** bless the United States of America.*

We know most Western people are godly Christian. These prayers, direct and indirect speeches from Bible and the Christian stories can all help the speaker to win the sympathy and supporting of audience. They make the speech full of charisma.

V. CONCLUSION

On the basis of the above discussion, we may come to the conclusion.

According to Halliday's Systemic Functional Grammar, we can summarize the features of Barack Obama's speeches as follow. First, he used more simple words and short sentences instead of difficult ones. His language is easy and colloquial. Thus, it can easily shorten the distance between him and the audience. Second, from transitivity analysis, we can see material process, a process of doing, has been used most in his speeches. From this process, Obama showed us what the government has achieved, what they are doing and what they will do. And also we can see that with applying transitivity, his speeches are trying to arouse the American people's confidence toward the president and his government in the following four years. Third, modality refers to a speaker's attitudes towards or opinion about the truth of a proposition expressed by a sentence. Through the analysis of modality, we can find that Obama made his audience more easily to understand and accept his political speeches by means of modal verbs, tense and first person pronouns. He used simple present tense to present the domestic and world wide situations ranging from political, economic and cultural fields at present. And then depending on simple future tense, he laid out his following reforms and steps taken in his term. In this way, the government's objectives are shown and at the same time, the audience's confidence is built. Moreover, by using first person pronouns and religious belief, he successfully shortened the distance between him and the audience. So it can help him persuade the public to accept and support his policies.

Critical Discourse Analysis can explore the relationships among language, ideology and power. It provides a new idea and method to analyze public addresses. So it is worth for us to pay more attention.

REFERENCES

[1] Halliday, M. A. K.(1979). Linguistic function and literary style: an inquiry into the language of William Golding's *The Inheritors*. In *Linguistic Studies of Text and Discourse*. ed. Jonathan J.Webster. 88-125. Peking: Peking University Press.
[2] Van Dijk, (1985). A Handbook of Discourse Analysis London Academic Press Limited. Volumn 4.
[3] Cheng Yumin.(2007).An Analysis of Style Features of Inaugural Speeches Given by American Presidents Based on the Functional Theory of Han Lide. From the thesis of a master. Tai Yuan science University.
[4] Dai Weihua, Gao Jun.(2002). A Critical Discourse Analysis: Theory Comment and Examples Analysis. *Foreign Language* Issue 6.P 85-88.
[5] Hu Zhuanglin.(1988). A Course of Linguistics. Peking: Peking University Press.
[6] Lin Wei,Yang Yuchen.(2007). English Discourse Analysis. Shanghai：Fu Dan University Press.
[7] Luo Li.(2007).A Critical Discourse Analysis of a Political Speech. Science and Education Collection P193-194。
[8] Wei Fang.(2005).Language Feature Analysis and Translation Method of Political Speeches. *Journal of Peking Printing College* Volumn13, issue 4.P75-78.
[9] Xiong Li.(2004).A Study of Kennedy's Writing Style from Words of His Inaugural Speech. *Journal of Southwest National University,* Issue 6. P 407-410.
[10] Xu Xiaoxia.(2008).A Critical Discourse Analysis of Sino-American Political News Report. From the thesis of a master. Shan Dong Normal University.

Junling Wang was born in Lanzhou City, Gansu Province, China in 1963.She received her M.A degree in English language and literature from Foreign Languages Department of Northwest Normal University in Lanzhou, China in 1989.Now she is an associate professor in Northwest Normal University. Her research interests include English teaching and translation practice.

The Roles of University English Teachers in Malaysia

Latisha Asmaak Shafie
Language Studies Academy, Universiti Teknologi MARA, Malaysia
Email: ciklatisha@perlis.uitm.edu.my

Surina Nayan
Language Studies Academy, Universiti Teknologi MARA, Malaysia
Email: surinana@perlis.uitm.edu.my

Abstract—The roles of language teachers at higher institutions need to be re-defined as modern technologies, curriculum development, job market and education reform influence their roles. As the Internet acts as the guru for the learners and the information is at everyone's fingertips , the roles of traditional gurus are expected to be changed and transformed .The purpose of this study is to study the changing roles of university English teachers from being language teachers to being learners, facilitators and researchers and to identify these new roles . In order to understand the role transformation whether it is feasible and realistic, it is imperative to study the many roles of university English teachers defined by the teachers and the university administrators. The findings suggest that by understanding the many roles of university English teachers, university English teachers are able to embrace their new roles.

Index Terms— university English teachers, teachers' roles, role transformation

I. INTRODUCTION

Due to the changes of university English teaching in terms of curriculum goals, modern technologies and market demands, it is expected that English teachers should transform their roles from being traditional language teachers to being trainers, organizers, promoters, learners and researchers. Is the role transformation feasible and realistic? The researchers of this paper expect to find answers for these questions with the objectives of helping university language teachers to enhance self-understanding and assume complex roles so as to implement effective teaching to embrace the new responsibilities of language teachers at higher institutions. This study analyses the views of university English teachers defined by the teachers and the university administrators.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

The roles of university teachers are complicated to define as there are many classifications of a university lecturer's role.According to Braskamp & Ory's four dimensional classification (1994), the lecturers' role are within the parameters of teaching, research and creativity, practice & professional service and citizenship. Harden R M and Crosby J R (2000) identify twelve roles of lecturer which are grouped into six categories: the information provider , the role-model , the facilitator, the assessor , the planner and the resource developer. Not all the teachers aware of all these roles as some of the teachers would play all these roles while others played less roles. Thus trainings need to be enforced to teachers so they utilize these twelve roles framework.

Tamblyn (2002) identifies seven qualities of successful teachers in which the first three qualities are the skills of successful teachers such in subject competency, creativity, flexibility in using expertise and motivation. While the remaining seven qualities are personality and attitudes of the teachers such as willingness to take risks and make mistakes, respect for learners, caring, warmth, love and sense of humor, pride in the profession and a willingness to go the extra mile.

Borg (2003) believes that teaching and instructions given in classrooms are influenced by the teachers' knowledge, beliefs and opinions. This finding is supported by Lynch (1990) states teacher's belief about language education and their experiences in learning and teaching the language dictate their teaching roles. Teachers' actions in the classrooms are determined by their beliefs and their beliefs are determined by their actions which influence their roles in the class. According to Clark and Peterson (1986) ,there are three parts of cognitive processes such as teacher planning, thoughts and decisions and theories and beliefs. Theories and beliefs of the teachers influence their roles. In order to know the roles language teachers play in their classrooms, it is imperative to understand about their cognitive processes.

In online learning, Koistinen(2002) describes teacher's role in network is more to a coach, a personal trainer and a student. This is when sometimes the learners become the teachers. Meanwhile Goodyear, Salmon, Spector, Steeples & Tickner (2001) define the roles of a competent online teacher as technologist, designer, administrator, process facilitator, counselor, assessor and researcher .Malcolm J. Benson and Dong Mei (2007) in a study analyzing roles of language

teachers in China found two dimensions which form four quadrants associated with the effectiveness of English teachers in China. English teachers in China distributed roles of current English teachers based on these characteristics of each quadrant. The complicated and conflicting roles of English teachers in China are caused by the demands of schools, the government, the market and the students. They suggest that any qualified college English teachers need to realize the existence of such contradictions so they know how to play their roles accordingly so dialectical way of thinking is imperative .

Hill and Brindley (2005) indicate that the reasons why teachers undertake research are able to reflect upon and improving their practice rank. When asked about being a teacher and a writer, English teachers and researchers simultaneously able to reflect on their professional growth and learning, to understand their teaching contexts and the students' learning, identify and overcome obstacles, new ways of thinking and researching their own practice.

III. RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The research was carried out to investigate the following research objectives:
1. To determine the language teachers' perception of their role based on their years of service at the university
2. To determine the administrators' perception of the language teachers' role

IV. METHODOLOGY

The questionnaire was administered to the 30 language teachers and administrators .A total of 30 respondents consisted of 23 English language teachers and 7 administrators who were academic coordinators for their faculties. Among the language teachers, 20 were female and 3 male, and their teaching experiences ranges from one year to more than 20 years. The majority of them possess a master's degree. The questionnaire was adapted from the twelve roles of teachers suggested by Harden R M and Crosby J R (2000). The respondents were asked to choose the most frequent roles of a language teacher from a list of roles which was adapted from the twelve roles of teachers suggested by Harden R M and Crosby J R (2000).The questions were related to the following three dimensions which include the six aspects of the teacher expectations; cognitive role dimension-relationships with the students and personality, cognitive role dimension-knowledge of subject and presentation of knowledge; professional role dimension-professional leadership and quality of memberships.

V. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

A. The Language Teachers' Perception of their Roles

Language teachers who have less than 5 years of teaching emphasized the importance of being a learning facilitator as the most important role of being a language teacher .The second role is being a role model in classroom setting . The third important role is being an information provider as a teacher in classroom setting. In this role, a language teacher is responsible in being able to teach grammar and the rules of the language. The fourth role is curriculum evaluator in evaluating the curriculum. The fifth important role is as a course organizer being responsible in implementing the curriculum.

TABLE 1
LANGUAGE TEACHERS LESS THAN 5 YEARS TEACHING EXPERIENCES

Category	Role	Rank
Facilitator	Learning Facilitator	1
Role model	On-the-job role model Role model in the teaching setting	2
Information provider	Teacher in classroom	3
Planner	Curriculum Evaluator	4
Planner	Course organizer	5

University language teachers who have 5 to 9 years of teaching chose the role of being a teacher in classroom under the category of information provider is the most important role. The second role is being a role model in the teaching setting. The third role is being a mentor to students and the fourth role is learning facilitator in facilitating students' learning. The fifth role is resource developer in developing learning materials. This role is influenced by the increasing experiences and exposure these teachers have which enable them to be more confident in sharing their experiences through learning materials.

TABLE 2
LANGUAGE TEACHERS 5-9 YEARS TEACHING EXPERIENCES

Category	Role	Rank
Information provider	Teacher in classroom	1
Role model	Role model in the teaching setting	2
Facilitator	Mentor	3
Facilitator	Learning facilitator	4
Resource developer	Study guides and learning resources materials developer	5

Language teachers who have 10 to 15 years of teaching chose information provider as teacher in classroom setting as the most important role. The second role is being a learning facilitator and the third role is being a role model in the teaching setting. The fourth role is examiner in planning and participating in formal examinations of students. The experiences they have as university language teachers enable them to be given the responsibility of constructing examination questions. The fifth role is being a course organizer.

TABLE 3
LANGUAGE TEACHERS 10-15 YEARS TEACHING EXPERIENCES

Category	Role	Rank
Information provider	Teacher in classroom	1
Facilitator	Learning facilitator	2
Role model	Role model in the teaching setting	3
Examiner	Planning or participating in formal examinations	4
Planner	Course organizer	5

Language teachers who have 16-20 years of teaching chose being a planner as the most important role. The second role is being a learning facilitator. The third role is course organizer and the fourth role is examiner. This is influenced by the teachers' years of service at the university. They are confident with their roles .The fifth role is being a role model in outside classroom setting.

TABLE 4
LANGUAGE TEACHERS 16-20 YEARS TEACHING EXPERIENCES

Category	Role	Rank
Planner	Curriculum planner	1
Facilitator	Learning facilitator	2
Planner	Course organizer	3
Examiner	Curriculum Evaluator	4
Role model	Role model outside classroom settings	5

Language teachers who have more than 20 years chose the role of being a learning facilitator as the most important role. The second role is being a resource developer in producing study guides and learning resources materials. The third role is information provider in being teacher in classroom setting. The fourth role is curriculum planner and the fifth role is examiner.

TABLE 5
LANGUAGE TEACHERS WITH MORE THAN 20 YEARS OF TEACHING EXPERIENCES

Category	Role	Rank
Facilitator	Learning Facilitator	1
Resource developer	Study guides and learning resources materials developer	2
Information provider	Teacher in classroom	3
Planner	Curriculum planner	4
Examiner	Planning or participating in formal examinations	5

In conclusion, language teachers listed facilitator, information provider, instructor of language, life-long learner, role-model, planner, examiner, trainer, resource developer and organizer.

B. The Administrators' Perception of the Language Teachers' Role

Meanwhile the administrators believed being an information provider as being a teacher in a classroom for a language teacher as being the most important role. This is because for the administrators, language teachers' role is to teach the language to the learners. The second role is being a resource developer in producing study guides and learning resources. The third role of a language teacher is being a learning facilitator. The fourth role is being a planner in curriculum planner and the fifth role is a role model in teaching setting.

TABLE 6
ADMINISTRATORS

Category	Role	Rank
Information provider	Teacher in classroom	1
Resource developer	Study guides and learning resources materials developer	2
Facilitator	Learning facilitator	3
Planner	Curriculum planner	4
Role Model	Role model in the teaching setting	5

VI. IMPLICATIONS

This study shed light on how university language teachers continuously play different roles in their careers as university language teachers. In addition, their roles change as their teaching experiences increase. The study provides university language teachers with a valuable insight of their own teaching practices and how the administrators expect them to play which roles. In return, the administrators are more aware of the roles played by the university language teachers. Therefore, by obtaining information on language teachers' perception about their roles in the classrooms enable these practitioners to be more aware of their practices and their roles in the class. Thus, enabling them to be more effective practitioners.

REFERENCES

[1] Borg,S.(2003).Review article-Teacher cognition in language teaching: A review of research on what language teachers think, know, believe, and do. *Language Teaching,* 36,81-109.
[2] Braskamp, L. A., & Ory, J. C. (1994). Assessing faculty work: Enhancing individual and instructional practice. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
[3] Clark, C. M. & Peterson, P. L. (1986). Teachers' thought processes. In M. C. Wittrock (Ed.), *Handbook of research on Teaching.* (pp. 255 - 296). New York: Simon and Schuster Macmillan.
[4] Goodyear, P., Salmon, G., Spector, J. M., Steeples, C. & Tickner, S. (2001). Competencies for online teaching: A special report. *Educational Technology Research and Development,* 49(1), 65-72.
[5] Harden, R. M and Crosby, J R (2000).AMEE Education Guide No 20: The good teacher is more than a lecturer – the twelve roles of the teacher. *Medical Teacher,* 22(4): 334-347.
[6] Koistinen, K. (2002).Towards Virtual Academy – Teacher's Changing Role. Retrieved 10 december 2008 from http://www.fig.net/pub/fig_2002/Ts2-4/TS2_4_koistinen.pdf
[7] Lynch,T.(1990). Researching Teachers: Behavior and Belief in Research in the Language Classroom: ELT Documents 133 edited by Brumfit,C. & Mitchell,R.H. Modern English Publications in association with the British Council.
[8] Malcolm J. Benson and Dong Mei.(2007). Analysis of the Role of Chinese English Teachers in higher education institutions. Retrieved December 10,2009 from
http://www.shudo-gakujyutsu.net/magazine/pdf/hum/jin48-2PDF/jin48-2-01%20Benson.pdf
[9] Tamblyn,P.(2000). Qualities of success: lessons from a teacher career. *Education Canada,*40(1),16-19.

Latisha Asmaak Shafie obtained her Master in Instructional Technology from Universiti Malaya, Malaysia in 2004 and Bachelor in Education specializing in Teaching English as a Second Language from UKM, Malaysia in 1993.

She is a Senior Lecturer at the Academy of Language Studies, Universiti Teknologi MARA in Perlis. She has been teaching at Universiti Teknologi MARA since 1997.Her research interest includes teaching and learning English as a second language, digital learners and adult learners. She has written books, journals and presented many papers in education, teaching English in second language and digital technologies.

Ms Latisha is a member of ASIA TEFL.

Surina Nayan obtained her Master in Linguistics and English Language Studies from Universiti Sains Malaysia in 2002, Post Graduate Diploma in TESL from Institut Teknologi MARA in 1996, Bachelor Science in Marketing from Oklahoma State University, U.S.A. in 1994 and Diploma in Banking from Institut Teknologi MARA in 1991.

She is a Senior Lecturer at the Academy of Language Studies, Universiti Teknologi MARA in Perlis. She has been teaching English for the past 13 years. Besides writing manuals and books collaboratively in the field of English Language Studies, she has also been involved in translating and editing work in various subjects. Her areas of interests are in the field of Business English, language learning and teaching, English for Specific purposes.

Ms Surina is a member of ASIA TEFL.

A Tentative Analysis of Errors in Language Learning and Use

Wenfen Yang

School of Foreign Languages, Qingdao University of Science &Technology, Qingdao, China
Email: wfyoung@163.com

Abstract—**Everyone tends to make mistakes in the process of language learning and use, especially for FL learners. This paper makes a tentative effort to describe and diagnose learners' errors in language learning and use in the hope of helping FL learners' have a better understanding of the errors they made.**

Index Terms—**error, language learning, language use, EA, CA**

As human beings, we are bound to make mistakes. If to err and to speak are each uniquely human, then to err at speaking, or to commit language errors, must mark the very pinnacle of human uniqueness. Since language error is the subject of this paper, let's provisionally define a language error as an unsuccessful bit of language. Error Analysis is the process of determining the incidence, nature, causes and consequences of unsuccessful language. The novelty of EA, distinguishing it from CA, was that the mother tongue was not supposed to enter the picture. Errors could be fully described in terms of the TL, without the need to refer to the L1 of the learners.

The Error Analyst's object of enquiry is the FL learner's ignorance of the TL. This ignorance can be manifest in two ways. First in silence, then in the way they compensate for their ignorance, i.e. substitutive language. We need to distinguish two sorts of silence: cultural silence and avoidance. Cultural silence caused by EL2 learners from 'silent cultures' such as Finns or Japanese; while avoidance is induced by ignorance. But learners usually prefer to try to express themselves in the TL by alternative means: they 'beg, steal or borrow'. This is what we have said before the substitutive language (called IL). Error Analysts study it in relation to the TL.

I. The Description of Error

A. Error Detection

In the criminal investigation, a line-up of individuals is assembled and then let an eyewitness to pick out the perpetrator of the crime. Analogically, in EA we assemble a line-up of utterances produced or processed by a learner and ask the 'witness' or knower to pick out the one or ones that look suspicious, that is , those which are potentially erroneous. You may think error detection is simple, but in fact it is just the opposite. It is interesting to find out that to spot error in spoken, informal language is harder than in written, formal texts. In addition, spotting one's own errors is more difficult than spotting other people's errors. Even the native speakers sometimes cannot detect error correctly.

B. Locating Errors

Error location is in the same way with what the police ask an eyewitness to identify the suspect, such as saying he is the third from the left. However, error location is not always so straightforward; some errors are diffused throughout the sentence or larger unit of text that contains them: they are known as global errors. Burt and Kiparsky (1972) suggest that we should identify errors by reference to the TL. And there is a reasonable suggestion: the learners first need to stop making the error, and then start to produce the TL form. Gatbonton (1983) adopts the gradual diffusion model of language change, which suggests that learning involves two sages: the first is the learning stage and the second involves extirpating all the old and wrong learning so only the good ones are left.

C. Describing Errors

There are two reasons for why the standard EA practice of describing the learner's errors should be in terms of the TL: firstly, learner's language and TL are co-dialects of the same language, so they should be describable in terms of the same grammar. Secondly, EA is TL-oriented. According to Corder (1981), the system used for the description of learner's errors must be one having two essential characteristics: 1) the system must be well-developed and highly elaborated, since many errors made by even beginners are remarkably complex. 2) The system should be as simple, self-explanatory and easily learnable as possible. Because of the two characteristics James (1990) points out that Chomsky's Universal Grammar has little usage for describing learner errors.

II. Levels of Error

In this part, we recognize three levels of language: the levels of substance, text and discourse. If the learner was operating the phonological or the graphological substance systems, that is spelling or pronouncing, we say he or she has

produced an encoding or decoding error. If he or she was operating the lexico-grammatical systems of the TL to produce or process text, we refer to any errors on this level as composing or understanding errors. If he or she was operating on the discourse level, we label the errors occurring misformulation or misprocessing errors.

A.   Misspellings.

There are four types of misspelling: the first one is punctuation errors, among which the most frequent are overuse of the exclamation (!) by some writers; misordering of closing inverted comas; under or overuse of capitals; over inclusion of a comma between an antecedent and a restrictive relative clause; and misselection of the colon instead of the comma after the salutation in letters. The second one is typographic errors. People who are normally good spellers might be poor typists. Their problem is in automatizing the required temporal and spatial mechanisms that underlie skilled fingering on the typewriter, or keystrokes on the word-processor. In fact, we are dealing here with mistakes rather than errors, and this probably explains why psychologists interested in skill learning have paid more attention to typing errors than applied linguists have. The third on is dyslexic errors. Some of the errors dyslexics make are MSs: e.g. <parc> for <park> is a misselection from two letters that can represent the same sound 〔k〕 in English. Dyslexics also produce errors that are not MSs, e.g. <deb> for <bed> involving the reversal of the letter <b>into<d> or strephosymbolia. The fourth one is confusibles. Let's look at the amusing example given by Carney (1994): 'to marry a devoiced woman' and observes that these are lexical errors involving confusion between similar sounding morphemes and words. Perhaps literacy raises people's awareness of differences to the point where they can avoid such confusions in their writing at least.

B.   Lexical Errors.

According to Chomsky (1980) lexis is sharply different from grammar. Grammar is said to be organized in closed systems, to be systematic and regular. Lexis is, by contrast, said to consist of open systems, to be irregular and unsystematic. Recently, lexis has begun to take a central role in language study. There are a number of reasons for this. First, the boundaries between lexis and grammar are now seen to be less clear-cut than was assumed. Morphological aspects of words, which used to be treated as part of grammar, can just as well be viewed as part of the word: e.g. words of different form classes can be derived from the same root: bright→ brightness→ brightly. Secondly, learners themselves believe that vocabulary is very important in language learning. Though this view may not be correct, it is likely to influence learning. Thirdly, for some learner groups, lexical errors are the most frequent category of error. Fourthly, native speakers consider the lexical errors in learners' IL to be more disruptive and irritating than other types. Finally, vocabulary carries a particularly heavy functional load, especially in early IL. There is little grammar in such IL, and the message often has to be inferred, mainly from the lexical terms assembled for its representation.

We classify lexical errors from two perspectives: formal errors and semantic errors. Formal errors of lexis include formal misselection, misformations and distortions. Semantic errors in lexis refer to confusion of sense relations and collocational errors.

C.   Pragmatic Errors.

Pragmatic errors involve putting linguistic knowledge into practice, so we may call them pragmalinguistic deviations. They arise when ever speakers misencode a message, not to the detriment of its meaning but to the detriment of its pragmatic force, that is, what speech act it is intended to perform or what rhetorical force it should carry. On the other hand, there are discoursal or interactional gaffes that arise not out of linguistic incompetence but out of sociocultural incompetence. Thomas (1983) calls it *sociopragmatic failure*. Sociopragmatic failures result from culture-clashes, from cultural differences of view concerning what is appropriate social behavior in certain settings. There are a number of sources of such infelicities, such as *taboos, size of the imposition*, *values* and *power and social distance.*

III.   DIAGNOSING ERRORS

James (1990) once commented on the desirability of distinguishing between error description and error diagnosis. There is widespread acceptance of this principle: Dulay, Burt and Krashen (1982) clearly state that 'the accurate description of errors is a separate activity from the task of inferring the sources of those errors'. We might ask what motivates this insistence on keeping description and diagnosis separate. To illustrate it more clearly, let's look at how doctors diagnose diseases: sick patients visiting the doctor show visible signs of their illnesses, which the doctor describes in order to reach a diagnosis. In addition, the patients are usually asked to describe their sensation to the doctor, who interprets this account in terms of a diagnosis. The same is true for EA. The diagnosis question is therefore one that transcends description and invokes explanation, tracing errors to their causes, sometimes called error *etiology.*

The ultimate cause of error is ignorance of the TL item aimed at. It is worth noting that any formal deviance can have either declarative or procedural causes. When the required TL item is unknown and the learner borrows an L1substitute, the consequence is an L1 transfer error, but when the learner knows the TL item but fails to access it, and instead accesses an L1 substitute, we have a case of an L1 interference mistake.

There is general agreement over the main diagnosis-based categories of error. There are four major categories: interlingual, intralingual, communication-strategy and induced.

The clearest proof of L1 interference is where L1 nonstandard dialect features get transferred to L2. let's look at an example made by L1 Portuguese learners of EL2: the fronted preposition in *With who did he come?* Ninety-nine per cent of the time the learners might prefer: *Who did he come with?* Now when they come to learn French or German, they will have a problem, since in these languages the preposition must be fronted. Failure to do so results in errors like *Wem ist er gekommen*mit?*

Intralingual errors are based on learning strategy. The author gives us a list of errors. We will discuss some of them: 1) false analogy: the learner wrongly assumes that the new item B behaves like A, e.g. boy→boys, then child→* childs. 2) Misanalysis: the learners have formed a hunch or hypothesis concerning an L2 item, which they are now putting into practice. The hypothesis is not based on L1 knowledge at all, e.g. '*Tinker, Tailor', as every story *who tells about spies…*The learner has hypothesized that since the book's title refers to humans, therefore the 〔+ human〕 relative pronoun should be selected. 3) Hypercorrection: this results from the learners over-monitoring their L2 output, and attempting to be consistent, so it is akin to system simplification: *Il est descendu et *est (a) attendu.* The learner seems to have learnt that the marked auxiliary *etre i*s used with *descendre* but wrongly assumes that it should also be used with *attendre*.

Communication strategy-based errors include holistic strategies and analytic strategies. The term 'holistic' refers to the learners' assumption that if you can say X in the L2, then you must be able to say Y. The most general term for this is approximation. It takes on a number of forms, the first of which is to use a near synonym, e.g.* *credibility* for the intended *truth.* Alternatively, one can use a superordinate term: **fruits* for *blackberries.* A third option is to use an antonym or opposite, and fourth option is to coin a word. *Analytic strategies* express the concept indirectly, by allusion rather than by direct reference: this is circumlocution. The learners identify one or more criterial attributes of the referent and mention these in an attempt to refer to the entity in question.

Induced errors was first used by Stenson (1983) to refer to learner errors 'that result more from the classroom situation than from either the students' incomplete competence in English grammar or first language interference'. Some of what Stenson (1983) calls induced errors could be explained in terms of the diagnostic categories we have outlined above. Similarly, there are those errors induced by imprecise teacher explanations: for example, the pedagogical 'explanation' which distinguishes the modals *should* and *must* on the grounds that the former is 'stronger' than the second. The error precipitated was *we *should have worked in order to buy clothes*, *but we *must have worked in order to eat.* The learners are attempting to convey the idea that it is less important to spend money on clothes than on food. In fact the learners have hypothesized a false concept not on the basis of their own analysis of input but on that of their teacher's mediation of the lexical opposition.

IV. CONCLUSION

Error analysts claim that learners' errors, to a large degree, are not caused by the influence of their L1; instead, their errors reflect some common learning strategies. EA tries to find out the regular things in the process of foreign language learning through the study of learners' errors. In this way it has a great contribution for FL teaching: teachers should be sensitive to their students' errors and summarize what kind of error students are most likely to make at certain period, and then modify their teaching materials in order to adapt to the students' need.

REFERENCES

[1]   Burt, M. and Kiparsky, C. (1972). The Gooficon: A Repair Manual for English. Newbury House, Rowley, MA.
[2]   Carney, E. (1994). A Survey of English Spelling. Routledge, London.
[3]   Chomsky, N. (1980). Rules and Representations. Blackwell, Oxford.
[4]   Corder, S.P. (1981). Error Analysis and Interlanguage. Oxford University Press, Oxford.
[5]   Dulay, H., Burt, M. and Krashen, S.D. (1982). Language Two. Newbury House, Rowley, MA.
[6]   Gatbonton, E. (1983). Patterned phonetic variability in second language speech: a gradual diffusion model, in B.W. Robinett and J. Schachter (eds), *Second Language Learning: Contrastive Analysis, Error Analysis and Related Aspects.* University of Michigan Press, Ann Arbor, MI. pp. 240-55.
[7]   James, Carl. (1990). Learner language, *Language Teaching* Vol. 23 No. 4: 205-13.
[8]   James, Carl and Garrett, P. (eds) (1991). Language Awareness in the Classroom. Longman, London.
[9]   Stenson, N. (1983). Induced errors, in B.W. Robinett and J. Schachter (eds), *Second Language Learning: Contrastive Analysis, Error Analysis and Related Aspects.* University of Michigan Press, Ann Arbor, MI. pp. 256-71.
[10]   Thomas, J. (1983). Cross-cultural pragmatic failure, *Applied Linguistics* Vol. 4 No. 2: 91-112.

Wenfen Yang was born in Shandong, China in 1965. She received her M.A. degree in linguistics from Shandong Teachers' University, China in 1993.

She is currently an associate professor in the School of Foreign Languages, Qingdao University of Science & Technology, Qingdao, China. Her research interests include linguistics and translation.

Returning to Youth and Nature —*The Catcher in the Rye* in Ecocriticism

Cui Wang

Dezhou University, Dezhou 253023, China

E-mail: pengfei5188@sina.com

Xiaofen Zhang

Dezhou University, Dezhou 253023, China

Email: dzzxf369@163.com

Abstract— J.D. Salinger's The Catcher in the Rye depicted a young man Holden Caulfield who spurned the adults' world and was eager to be a catcher in the rye, which showed his passion for returning to youth and nature and his thoughts of ecophilosophy, Which is of eternal significance.

Index Terms— Salinger, The Catcher in the Rye, ecocriticism, return, youth, nature.

I. INTRODUCTION

"Do you happen to know where they go, the ducks, when it gets all frozen over?" This is a question repeatedly occurring in *The catcher in the rye*. It shows the hero's nervousness in his current situation and puzzle on the future, which is also shared by the author and the whole postwar generation. J.D. Salinger is not a prolific writer. Apart from several short stories, *The Catcher in the Rye* is his only full-length novel that has been published. Yet due to this controversial novel, he gained remarkable reputation in the fifties and became popular in the country. So far, J.D. Salinger has been recognized by many critics and readers as one of the most popular and influential fiction writers in the contemporary American literary history.

The catcher in the rye successfully portrays an emotionally disturbed sixteen-year-old boy from a middle--class family. With a first--person narration, the protagonist introduces his own three-day experience in New York after he was expelled from school for his poor study. During his two days' vagrancy, he encounters various people, e.g. nuns, a prostitute, his younger sister, his former teachers etc. He talks with these people, discloses the phoniness of the adults and appreciates the innocence of the children. Holden talks a lot, but he is not able to really communicate with the outside world. The story ends in a mental institution where Holden accounts his own story to the readers. The story has enjoyed a readership that has transcended the boundaries of age, education, and culture. Its reputed charm has moved a variety of critics. More than 30 years after its publication, it has still been considered as one of the two "modern classics" in contemporary American literature. And it stands out to be Salinger's only novel that sets up his fame to this day as well. In the story Holden want to be "the catcher in the rye", which showed his passion for returning to youth and nature and his thoughts of ecophilosophy. It had great influence on the literature and culture in America after the Second World War.

II. ECOCRITICISM

In the Ecocriticism Reader, Cheryll Glotfelty defines ecocriticism as "the study of the relationship between literature and the physical environment". There is a certain appeal in the simplicity and inclusiveness of this definition. Yet it begs the question: How exactly is this new perspective? Or does ecocriticism merely put old wine in a new bottle? In The Environmental Imagination, Lawrence Buell defines ecocriticism as "[a]study of the relationship between literature and the environment conducted in a spirit of commitment to environmentalist praxis"(430). Buells' definition is valid, as far as it goes, and it indicates that ecocriticism is not just a means of analyzing nature in literature but implies a more ecocentric world-view, which extends the environmental ethics. Under the guidance of this world-view, human beings may broaden their conception of global community to include nonhuman life forms and the physical environment. Ecocriticism would advocate reconsidering how the narrowness of our traditional idea about the natural world has limited our ability to realize a sustainable society. The ecocritics aim to examine the role literary work plays in the complex relationships between humankind and environment, between mind and world, between thinking, being and dwelling. In endeavoring to reconnect culture with nature, ecocritics should resist the illusion of totally returning to the good old days when human and nature lived in complete harmony. Rather, they should attempt to make a change in consciousness, seeking in all sorts of creative literary works for a different way of viewing nature which may save human from the current ecological crises. As what Mazel said in his book *A Century of Early Ecocriticism*, "No matter

how it is defined, ecocriticism seems less a singular approach or method than a constellation of approaches, having little more in common than a shared concern with the environment".(2001:2)

Ecological consciousness was first advocated by Aldo Leopold (1887-1948) in his posthumous book, A Sand County Almanac, in 1949. Aldo Leopold emphasizes that we should be striving for harmony with the land and admitting at the outset that the thing we need must grow from within. Once humanity looks at organisms as individuals, having intrinsic value in them, we are more likely to show them respect. Ecological consciousness makes possible the extension of an ethical attitude toward nature, pointing the way to a new relationship between nature and man. It is something that lies at the heart of humanity-it must develop almost as a matter of instinct

III. HOLDEN'S ECOLOGICAL CONSCIOUSNESS

What the concept of ecological consciousness suggests to us is that man should recognize that man is but one element in the ecology. This idea becomes a fundamental component in the contemporary environmental movement. Human beings tend to wait for destruction before any action is taken. Aldo Leopold emphasizes that we should be striving for harmony with the land and admitting at the outset that the thing we need must grow from within. Once humanity looks at organisms as individuals, having intrinsic value in them, we are more likely to show them respect. Ecological consciousness makes possible the extension of an ethical attitude toward nature, pointing the way to a new relationship between nature and man.

A.   The Catcher in the Rye

The "Catcher in the Rye" makes its first appearance in chapter 16, when Holden admires a kid singing the poem *Coming through the Rye* by Robert Burns:

"It wasn't as cold as it was the day before, but the sun still wasn't out, and it wasn't too nice for walking. But there was one nice thing. This family that you could tell just came out of some church were walking right in front of me—a father, a mother, and a little kid about six years old...the kid was swell. He was walking in the street, instead of on the sidewalk, but right next to the curb. He was making out like he was walking a very straight line, the way kids do, and then the whole time he kept singing and humming. I got up closer so I could hear what he was singing. He was singing that song. 'If a body catch a body coming through the rye'…He kept on walking next to the curb and singing 'If a body catch a body coming through the rye.' It made me feel better .It made me feel not so depressed any more. (P115)

And it recurs in chapter 22, when Phoebe asks Holden what he wants with his life, he replies with his image again of a "catcher in the rye". He imagines a field of rye perched high on cliff, full of children romping and playing. He says he would like to protect the children from falling off the edge of the cliff by "catching" them if they were on the verge of tumbling over:

"I keep picturing all these little kids playing some game in this big field of rye and all. Thousands of little kids, and nobody's around--nobody big, I mean--except me. And I'm standing on the edge of some crazy cliff. What I have to do, I have to catch everybody if they start to go over the cliff--I mean if they're running and they don't look where they're going 1 have to come out from somewhere and catch them. That's all I'd do all day. I'd just be the catcher in the rye and all."(P173)

Two meanings can be derived from Holden's dream: the first one is to "be in the rye". Definitely, rye symbolizes the nature which is peaceful, beautiful and unpolluted; Nature, as the purest and the holiest force on humans, is a symbol of human spirit. It is believed that humans can find good in nature. When one feels blended into nature and becomes one with nature, the soul of the individual is part of nature. As to Holden, nature is the media to seek for the divinity of humans, and an activator for humans to cultivate themselves and elevate themselves spiritually. Nature is in fact a helper for human perfection. Thus, although he grew up in a big city, Holden is always longing for leaving the skyscrapers and prosperity for the pure and fresh rye, which is the last Eden garden not destroyed by human beings. The second one is "to be a catcher". Just as his name indicates, he always tries to "catch" or "hold on" something, that is, innocent and natural nature of human beings. In a society where human relationships are marked by superficiality, and humans are measured in terms of social status and money income, to some extent, the frustrated, disillusioned boy succeeded in rebelling against the "phoniness" around him, striving for certain durable human goods—truth, freedom and love. Obviously, Holden's wish to stay in the rye and prevent the children from falling off the cliff is of profound symbolic significance. In addition to the symbolic meaning of rye, a group of children playing in the rye can be regarded as the symbol of a harmonious state between man and nature; children's falling off the cliff symbolizes that human beings are separated from nature, trapped in the mortal world and polluted by the worldly affairs. What Holden wants to do is to be the guardian of innocence and protector of innocents. Thus, we also can discern Salinger's implied creed—man, who is pure in his childhood, is not corrupted until he enters adult society. Besides, man in his early state is more harmonious with nature.

In a word, nature is highly symbolic to Holden. He saw a close association with nature as a means toward a fuller life. Living as naturally as possible and giving up those unnecessary material needs is one of the possible ways toward the perfection of life. It is the endless source for him to seek for the ultimate spiritual truths. By returning to nature and being in harmony with nature human beings can find a counteraction against the alienating power of commercialism. His distinctive identity of "the catcher in the rye" to catch and prevent kids from being hurt and killed is the typical

embodiment of his ecological consciousness.

B.   The Return to Nature

Besides Holden's dream, he cherished another romantic fantasy--fleeing far away to seek seclusion as an anonymous deaf-mute in an idyllic cabin near the woods. This kind of emotion can be conceived in the following passages:

"You're probably the only reason I'm in New York right now, or anywhere. If you weren't around, I'd probably be someplace way the hell off. In the woods or some goddam place."(P131) "They'd let me put gas and oil in their stupid cars, and they'd pay me a salary and all for it, and I'd build me a little cabin somewhere with the dough I made and live there for the rest of my life. I'd build it right near the woods ,but nor right in them, because I'd want it to be sunny as hell all the time .I'd cook all my own food ,and later on, if I wanted to get married or something, I'd meet this beautiful girl that was also a deaf-mute and we'd get married. She'd come and live in my cabin with me, and if she wanted to say anything to me, she'd have to write it on a goddam piece of paper, like everybody else."(P 199)

Although born in cities, Holden is eager to leave the prosperity of New York for nature, in his pursuit of freedom and love. His enthusiasm for nature, in a way, indicates the spiritual healing value of nature—nature is people's spiritual sanctuary. When one is hurt in his heart, he can return to nature and find spiritual consolation. And if the one who is hurt returns to the embrace of nature heart and soul, he will feel relieved; all his troubles will completely vanish. Nature can sublimate one's sentiment, purify his heart and improve his morality. Throwing oneself into nature heart and soul, one can exist as a pure, natural, real being, and can reveal his true personality and feelings and can find his true self. This is the spiritual healing value of nature. Being a deaf-mute and recluse helps Holden to be alienated from the phony world and living in the woods helps him to embrace the nature.

As to the museum of natural history, Holden tells explicitly the symbolic meaning of the displays appealing to him because they are frozen and unchanging. He also mentions that he is distressed by the fact that he has changed every time he returns to them. The museum also represents the world Holden wishes he could live in: "it's the world of his "catcher in the rye" fantasy, a world where anything never changes, where everything is simple, understandable, and infinite."

C.   The Passion for Children—Image of Nature

In addition to all those details showing Holden's obsession with "nature", the image of children is, undoubtedly, a key point among all the details in Holden's ecological consciousness.

Child is part of nature, which is the common conception in the history of the romantic literature toward nature. The innocence and goodness of children is one of the primary cultural heritages left by Rousseau for the later generation and it is also reflected in the romantic poets. It is the romantic poets that have first realized man is wandering and questing in the wrong way, so they have taken the motif of "returning to home" as their final purpose. And it is also among the possibilities of returning to home, children assume this important role: a bridge to nature.

Salinger holds the belief that the human animal is pure in his childhood and he is not corrupted until he enters society. And Salinger is not the first writer who openly declared the redemptive effect of the children's world. Wordsworth once wrote:

The child is father of the Man;
And I could wish my days to be
Bound each to each by natural piety.

"The child is father of the man", which seems contrary to the common practice, in essence it contains profound spiritual pursuit demonstrates the call by those alienated for the purest and most beautiful spiritualism. The spiritual trauma in the adult world and all the agonies can be purified and healed in the children's world. Holden, as an adolescent boy on the brink of adulthood, is extremely tired of the hypocrisy and degradation in modern society. What he's eager to do is to escape from a world of alienation and quests for self-identity, going back to nature and seeking a new place existing only in the children' innocent world. So children in The *Catcher in the Rye* such as Allie, Phoebe, and the kid humming the title song, play a role of beacon light in Holden's mind.

Though in the adult world Holden's quest for innocence and love ends in sheer desperation, his efforts receive an award in the children's world. It's children's natural and simple nature that offers him pleasure and solace in a phony world. In a phony world, his candid communication with children and his dream of childhood become the inevitable harbor for his turbulent heart.

To a certain degree, children's innocent and simple nature gives him warmth and strength. Holden' feeling towards children shows that he wants to recover the lost self as well as the lost paradise. The power of children in the novel is of great significance, as it is the foundation for Holden's self-redemption and the spiritual power of revival. And through children's intuitive power, Holden can obtain a more profound understanding of society. It is children who help Holden to be alienated from the phony world and embrace the nature.

IV.   HARMONY

A.   Harmony with Nature

Resembling Leopold and Naess, everything in nature is a living being to Holden. Lagoon, situated in the Central Park,

is endowed with life, power and character of purity in his mind. In Holden's eye, lagoon is no longer a common pond in New York. It is an epitome of the whole nature. What people do to lagoon is what they do to the whole nature. It is the image of purity. It feeds ducks and fishes in it, and transforms the purity into them.

Holden shows great concerns for other creatures. The matter of the Central Park ducks is to be forever in Holden's mind during his Christmas weekend in New York. Confused by where the ducks go in winter, he insists on figuring out their future. Besides asking the cabbies about them, he looks for them all around the Central Park lagoon in the midnight. He assumes his responsibility to care for, save and protect those helpless creatures.

The ducks live in the pond that belongs to part of nature, and the nature has great power to protect or take care of the lives, as the cabdriver says: "if you was a fish, Mother Nature would take care of you, wouldn't she?"(P83)

Holden wishes to set up a harmonious relationship with the animals and plants at the Central Park. He knows the movement of each kind of animal in four seasons; and believes that animals exist for their own sake. Humans and animals are all part of nature. One should not be over the other. Nature does not exist without animals; ducks and fish are not only wild creatures, but also part of mountains and rivers, part of nature.

B.   Harmony between Humans and Nature

Since the very advent of human civilization, with conqueror's might and pride, man has exerted great influence on nature. Meanwhile, the civilized society has also imparted bondage and depression to man. Under the yoke of civilization, man has forever cherished a passionate yearning for returning to nature and recapturing the lost heaven. Such tendency of going back to nature, though it changes with times, has been an eternal theme in every culture. Generally, the tendency of going back to nature reveals passive escape from society, so it is often compulsory, passive, and with a touch of guilty consciousness. Being tortured to the verge of breakdown by modern civilization, Holden is compelled to quest for the West for a spiritual asylum in spite of his longing for nature. In history, the West was the habitat for those who were not fit for society.

"With its wider hospitality to the values of rugged individuality, self-reliance, and boundless freedom, the West has a deep, mythic appeal."

"We'll stay in these cabin camps and stuff like that till the dough runs out. Then, when the dough runs out, I could get a job somewhere and we could live somewhere with a brook and all, and, later on, we could get married or something. I could chop all our own wood in the winter-time and all. Honest to God, we could have a terrific time!"(P132)

Holden's expectation shows he is a descendant of American Transcendentalists'. Holden's vision of the idyllic life bears more than a few resemblances to the one Thoreau outlines in Walden. For Holden, nature is a spiritual haven. In desolate and uninhabited woods, at least he can virtually escape from phony society, achieve benefit to his traumatic psychology tranquility and inhale clean air. And those will be of great and declining vigor. Unconsciously he tells a fact—being far from civilization, nature has become a spiritual heaven. What's more, one can only behave to his principles and attain a kind of pure, natural and true existence in nature. He may make a living out of honest work exempted from all kinds of fraud and hypocrisy. In a civilized society, it is impossible for one to behave decently all the time, as one must pursue money. In contrast, chopping in nature can not only ensure him an honest living but also the perfection of his soul. In nature, he can totally escape from the bondage of ethics, tradition and religion, thus he may regain vigor and sound mind. In some philosophers' view, man and nature are harmonious entity. It's self-evident that Holden's going back to nature is to establish a completely idyllic world, that's to say, the pursuit of ideals and beliefs. Indeed, in nature man can discover the essence of life and spiritual values.

Holden's constant concern with ducks also implies that he has an unswerving tendency towards nature. His escape, I n a sense, is the quest for spiritual perfection and enlightenment. And his going back to nature, in consequence, is an active return. Though he cannot really retreat to nature, this dream really helps him cherish such a quest with all his enthusiasm and belief. He really can enjoy matchless happiness and consolation. Moreover, if he abandons modern life and goes back to nature, nature will take care of him. In his eyes, in nature, everything is true, so it can provide humans with freedom and tranquility. Modern civilization has spread to the remotest corner, thus he finds in the real world no sanctuary, no place to escape. He has no final destination. Nevertheless, his quest for nature, to a certain degree, soothes him and helps him regain a sound soul.

Nature does not belong to humans. On the contrary, according to the ecologists, humans are part of nature; humans are just particles in the circle of the ecosphere. This circle may go on functioning without humans as it once did. However, humans cannot go on living beyond this circle. Holden is strongly conscious of his oneness with nature. The sense of sympathy between humans and nature is vividly expressed as follows:

He looks down upon people who love cars, and he himself prefers horses:

"Take cars, I said it in this very quiet voice. Take most people, they're crazy about cars. They worry if they get a little scratch on them, and they're always talking about how many miles they get to a gallon, and if they get a brand-new car already they start thinking about trading it in for one that's even newer. I don't even like old cars. I mean they don't even interest me. I'd rather have a goddam horse. A horse is at least human, for God's sake."(P130)

Comparing cars with horses, Holden obviously rejects the modern industrial society, yearning for primitive and peaceful world. It can be concluded that Holden's choice of horse represents his ecological consciousness.

V. Conclusion

The Catcher in the Rye is concerned with human society and nature. It urges us to understand that nature is the headstream of human lives, the root of human foothold and the basis of our emotions. From the perspective of social significance, *The Catcher in the Rye* awakens us into thinking over such questions: how can humans and nature, civilization and environment both survive? As for individuals, how can we achieve a more meaningful and wiser life? Confronting the present global ecological crisis and alienation of human civilization, human civilization should move on to a higher-level eco-civilization. From the perspective of the whole ecological benefit, we are supposed to take the ecological responsibility, to respect the values and rights of all forms of life and to greatly enrich our spiritual lives. Only in this way will human being live more harmoniously with nature in the future.

References

[1] Salinger, J.D. (1951). The Catcher in the Rye. Boston: Little, Brown, and Company, Inc.
[2] Mazel ,David. (2001). A Century of Early Ecocriticism. Athens and London: The University of Georgia Press.
[3] Aldo, Leopold. (1987).A Sand County Almanac, and Sketches Here and There. New York: Oxford University Press.
[4] Harold, Bloom. (1987). Modern Critical Views: J.D. Salinger. Chelsea House Publishers.
[5] Pinsker, Sanford. (1993). The Catcher in the Rye Innocence Under Pressure. New York: Twayne Publishers.
[6] Worster, Donald. (1993). The Wealth of Nature: Environmental History and the Ecological Imagination. New York: Oxford University Press.
[7] Xuesheng,Yuan. (2004). Returning to Youth and nature – The catcher in the Rye in Ecocriticism. *Journal of Nanchang University* (humanities and social sciences) vol.35. No.3.
[8] Jieming, Zhang. (2002). Permanent Mystery: Yearning for Nature –The Catcher in the Rye. *Journal of Xiangtan University* (Philosophy and Social Sciences) vol.26. No.3.
[9] Garrard, Greg. (2004). Ecocriticism. London: Routledge.
[10] Glotfelty, Cheryll and Fromm. (1996). Harold(eds).The Ecocriticism Reader: Landmarks in Literary Ecology. Athens: The University of Georgia Press.

Cui Wang was born in Qingdao, China in 1981. She will receive her M.A degree in American Literature from Liaocheng University, Shandong Province, China in 2010.

She is currently an English teacher in De Zhou University, China. Her research interests include English language and American literature.

Xiaofen Zhang was born in Dezhou, China in 1963. She received her B.A. degree in ELT (English language teaching) from Liaocheng University, Shandong Province, China in 1996.

She is currently an associate professor in De Zhou University, China. Her research interests include English language and American literature.

Quine's Indeterminacy of Translation Thesis

Xiang Xu

College of Foreign Language, Qingdao University of Science and Technology, Qingdao 266061, China
E-mail: stephenxu10@163.com

Abstract—**This paper aims to analyze Quine's major theories of Indeterminacy of Meaning and Inscrutability of Reference by their definition and appearance, then comments them in daily communication and practical translation activities.**

Index Terms—**Quine, indeterminacy of translation, indeterminacy of meaning, inscrutability of reference**

I. INTRODUCTION

In the preface to *World and Object* (WO), Quine claims that Language is social art. In acquiring it we have to depend on intersubjectively available cues as to what to say and when. He considers language as a social activity rather than a private one. In his view, man's understanding about language depends on the observations on the listener's responses towards the language. However, it is obvious that the responses of different people towards the same linguistic expression may differ greatly so there are all kinds of understandings, which is the source of indeterminacy of translation. According to his expression, the main content of the IT thesis should be as follows--manuals for translating one language into another can be set up in divergent ways, all compatible with the totality speech dispositions, yet incompatible with one another. In countless places they will diverge in giving, as their respective translations of a sentence with none-verbal stimulation, of course, the less drastically its translations can diverge from one another from manual to manual.

Actually, the IT thesis originates in Quine's epistemology. He thinks the primary goal of epistemology is to provide a factual account of how our theory of the world can arise from observation. Afterwards, it develops into the naturalistic and behavioral conception of language, which deserves the general background of the outcome of indeterminacy. In Quine's eyes, the key of translation cannot be determined in man's mind but be open to different explanation. So translation should not be judged by the criterion of right or wrong, and the criteria should be multiple.

To speak correctly, the IT thesis is mainly of two aspects--one is the indeterminacy of meaning (IM) which affects any native expression to maintain a specific meaning, the other is the inscrutability of reference (IR) which affects the terms of the untouched language. Hence, a closer look and a detailed study of IM and IR would certainly help a lot in understanding Quine's IT thesis.

II. INDETERMINACY OF MEANING (IM)

A. Definition

According to Quine's analysis, the indeterminacy of meaning is to claim that consistent with all possible dispositions to behavior on the parts of all concerned, different systems of analytical hypotheses can be formulated which render different English translations of the same use of an aboriginal expression which differ in meaning, and there is no sense to the question of any one translation being the uniquely correct one. Based on his naturalistic linguistic view, and in order to destroy the focus of determinacy thesis of meaning and translation, Quine holds that people should make it clear to what degree translators can solve the problem of translation from one language into another only by means of pure experiences rather than language itself.

To understand this, we cannot use languages as close as German and English in our translation, for they share much in common in language and culture. In this way, translators will rely on supposed commonly shared features of human interests and behaviors to help translation and to eliminate indeterminacies. On the contrary, we must get away from those nonessentials and only examine an extreme case of such translation, which Quine calls radical translation. It is unaffected by the considerations about how much or how little the linguist and his subjects have in common. Therefore, the linguist must compile a translation manual through his observation of the behaviors of others. However, because of the infinity of words and sentences, he may have to work harder on the vocabulary of the unknown language. Perhaps we can show how Quine thinks the IM arises through the following general account of an imaginary linguist's activities, which is quite famous.

B. Arising of IM

Above all, it should be made clear that translation is just handled as a special case of linguistics in Quine's philosophical system. Suppose that the linguist begins by observing the aboriginals speaking--all one has to go on in learning a language is observation. Since the philosophical point Quine intends to make is unaffected by the linguists

concern with the aboriginals phonemes, the linguist can omit the phonemic analysis in the translating process and transfer to the most elementary steps in this translation. As Quine imagines in *World and Object*, a rabbit scurries by, an aboriginal says Gavagai, and the linguist puts down the sentence Rabbit as a tentative translation subject to testing in further cases.

Hence the next task for the linguist is to settle down the aboriginal expressions for assent or dissent to decide whether the meaning is right or wrong. It is a necessary step for the following two reasons. Firstly, what the linguist is interested in is not the language-in-use of any particular native subject but his language–in-disposition. There many situations in which an aboriginal could say something conforming to the present stimulation, but the question is where he does not say. The linguist's solution is to put himself in a specific situation to query the native with their sentences, to see if the native would assent to, or dissent from these sentences in various stimulatory situations. Secondly and more importantly, only when the linguist has mastered the native expressions for assent and dissent could he is able to distinguish among the aboriginal terms in their reference.

Generally, the linguist relies on what appears to be the assent behavior and dissent behavior to arrive at his identifications for assent and dissent, this method may seem not so certain though.

In this way, the linguist can make close identifications of stimulus meanings between the two languages. Yet, because stimulus meanings are quite subjective, the linguist cannot easily compare his own stimulus meaning for some sentence of English with his subject's stimulus meaning of the unknown language. However, he can learn that the aboriginal will assent to or dissent from the query Gavagai under just those same public conditions where the linguist would do to Rabbit. Therefore, the linguist concludes that the two stimulus meanings are approximately the same with each other. The linguist could continue to make English translations for various aboriginal observation sentences.

In the whole process, what is extremely important to notice is that the linguist could possibly make mistakes, suppose, he made the wrong generalizations. He may find that on some future occasion his stimulus meaning for Gavagai differ greatly. Hence, stimulus situations offer an objective criterion for judging between the proposed equating of a single expression from the untouched language with one or the other of two non-equivalent English expressions. This is an important feature of translation, for it is this point that attends some later stages of radical translation and directly leads to the IM. As far as the stimulus meaning is concerned, more than just the aboriginal observation sentences can be translated. Whatever parts of the unknown language the linguist could learn on the ostensive basis, and then translate into English at the stimulating level.

III. INSCRUTABILITY OF REFERENCE (IR)

A. Definition

Apart from the indeterminacy of meaning, the inscrutability of reference is another factor leading to the IT thesis. Through the examination of Quine's argumentation, it is very clear that the inscrutability of reference originates in translation by the behavioral evidences. It has a special emphasis, except what can be established on behavioral evidence. Here the IR is to say that consistent with all possible dispositions to behavior on the parts of all concerned, different systems of analytical hypotheses can be formulated. And further, if the native expression is translated as a term of divided reference, then there will be further alternative systems of analytical systems of analytical hypotheses which will settle the reference of the term differently, thereby imparting different ontology to the native speakers, neither in the matter of term hood, nor in the matter of reference, is there any sense to the question of there being a uniquely correct translation.

B. Appearance of IR

To answer the question as how the IR comes into being, we can take Quine's famous Gvagai example to illustrate the IR and make it clear why Quine draws this conclusion.

Suppose that, from his correlation of the observation sentences including Gavagai and Rabbit, the linguist concludes that Gavagai is a concrete term, and is uniquely translated as rabbit, in other words, the linguist is convinced that Gavagai and Rabbit refer to just the same animal. Yet the linguist may make a big mistake for his self-confidence because the correlation of the observation sentences Gaivagai and Rabbit fixes the reference of the term Gaivagai uniquely with Rabbit. However, it is quite possible that if Gavagai is an abstract singular term referring to rabbit species, or a concrete general term which is not of rabbits but of some part of rabbit, or of the rabbit current stage. Hence, we say at the level of ostensive translation, reference is inscrutable on the basis of behavioral evidence, quite different from stimulus meanings. The problem of inscrutability arises because the only difference between rabbits, undetached rabbit parts, and rabbit stages lies in their own characteristics. The scattered portion of the world that is made up of rabbits, and made up of the undetached rabbit parts, and made up of rabbit stages are all three just belonging to the same scattered portions of the world. Only when an undetached rabbit part appears can the whole rabbit appear. Similarly, only when a rabbit has appeared for a period of time can we ensure the appearance of the whole rabbit.

The only way for the linguist to settle such instances of the Iris to fix upon the aboriginal equivalents of English plural endings, pronouns, numerals, the *is* of identity, and its adaptations *same* and *other*. These will constitute the interrelated grammatical particles and constructions, with which the individual terms of divided references in English are connected. Besides this, the linguist will have to formulate a system of analytical hypotheses in connecting with

other aboriginal expressions as well. Once the linguist has finished the tasks, he could begin to ask the aboriginal questions like "Is this gavagai the same as that one? Is this one gavagai or two?" And so on. This may help a lot, but the premise is that the linguist has enough knowledge of the aboriginal language to ask these questions, which is just what he needs to acquire. And once the linguist can ask the aboriginal such questions, he would feel it a little easy to determine whether to equate gavagai with undetached rabbit part or with rabbit, or rabbit stage.

But after all, this method is not sufficient enough to deal with the indeterminacy between translating gavagai as rabbit, or as undetached rabbit part, or as rabbit stage and the like absolutely. For if one workable system of analytical hypothesis help to translate a given aboriginal expression into *is the same as*, perhaps another workable system would translate the same expression into something like *has something to do with* or other instead. Thus, when the linguist attempts to ask "Is this gavagai the same as that?", he could as well unconsciously be asking "Dose this gavagai has something to do with that?". From this perspective we could see, the native assent cannot be used to settle the reference of gavagai absolutely.

It is at this point in translation that the IR shows clearly its appearance. Even through analytical hypotheses we could only settle the reference of gavagai in a relative way, thus to determine the reference thoroughly is impossible. Now that the reference is inscrutable, how can you expect translation to be completely accurate? Therefore, IR becomes another important factor leading to the indeterminacy of translation.

IV.   COMMENTS AND INTERPRETATIONS

A.   Indeterminacy in Daily Communications

People may doubt that the problem of indeterminacy is only special to the context of the radical translation thus is totally insignificant. But this is a mistake, because it overlooks the similar behavioral proofs of radical translation and ordinary language learning and using. Generally speaking, the communication with our fellow people is also a kind of native language learning, the success of which depends on how the listener understands the mother tongue from the other speaker. However, due to the variety of dialectal phonemes, regional cultures and individual backgrounds, different listeners can hold quite different understandings towards the same word or sentences, which is crucial to translation process. Therefore, it is tolerable to say that different listeners or readers can maintain different translation criteria even in a domestic environment.

Therefore, in the rabbit example, we could reconstruct our neighbor's apparent reference to rabbits as references to inseparable parts of rabbits or the stage the rabbit being in. According to Quine's understanding, we could reconcile all this with our neighbor's verbal behavior, by cunningly readjusting our translations of his various connecting predicates so as to compensate for the switch of ontology. In short, we can reproduce the inscrutability of reference at home. Here lies the implication that even people's everyday verbal communication is also characterized by the nature of the indeterminacy, especially the inscrutability of reference. Hence, in the process of translation or interpretation, the inscrutability of reference ranks another factor leading to the indeterminacy of translation.

B.   Absolute Right or Wrong Translation

People have long been accustomed to the discussion of whether the translation is right or not. And they tend to divide all translations into two parts labeled with either right or wrong. Quine's view on meaning is based on behavioral grounds. He holds that meaning of language is actually that of the behavior or behavioral episode concerned, and semantic facts concerned are only external inclinations of verbal activities. Due to the IM and IR, different manuals of translation, though incompatible with each other, show no difference with totality of those external facts and inclinations— all of them could be correct from different observing angles. So it is hard for people to decide which is right and which is wrong among different manuals, since they can hardly find any distinctive facts of the matter for judging the translation to be right or wrong. Moreover, for the lack of behavioral facts, people cannot decide which manual of translation is more exact as well. If they just want to talk about the exactness, they are all exact in a general sense and no one is mire exacter than any other one. All of them are suitable for the totality of the inclinations of verbal activities.

It is important to note that Quine's translation thesis does not mean to provide a protecting power for those translation works with low quality. Quine's idea is that evidences of verbal activities themselves cannot be the only proofs to decide the manual of translation, the compilation of which is intervened by the subjective factors of the translators. So translations in line with different manuals produce some indeterminacy towards the same event or text. As to the linguistic translation in our daily lives such as English-Chinese translation or Chinese-English translation, they are dealt with under the guidance of well accepted translation manuals, which is the integration the common understanding about two languages and their exchanges among the linguists and translators, in this way they can be determined. According to the above analysis, unless we establish different criteria and norms, we can still judge different translation works with the same criterion. Here, the problem lies not in whether there is an objective criterion, but what criterion should be established and consulted.

REFERENCES

[1] Bassnett, S. Lefevere A (2001). Constructing Cultures: Essays on Literary Translation .Shanghai: Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press.
[2] Benjamin, Walter (1992). The Task of the Translator. Arendt, Hannah. Illuminations. New York: Fontana Press.
[3] Catford, J.C (1978). A Linguistic Theory of Translation. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
[4] Davis, Kathleen.(2004). Deconstruction and Translation. Shanghai: Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press.
[5] Derrida, Jacques (1981). Positions. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press.
[6] Derrida, Jacques (1976). Of Grammatology. Baltimore and London: Johns Hopkins University Press.
[7] Derrida, Jacques (1982). Margins of Philosophy. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
[8] Derrida, Jacques (1985). Des tours de babel. Difference in Translation. Cornell University Press.
[9] Dorit Bar-on (1993). Indeterminacy of Translation—Theory and Practice. Philosophy and Phenomenological Research.
[10] Gentzler, E (1993). Contemporary Translation Theories. London: Routledge.
[11] Katan, David (2004). Translating Cultures—An Introduction for Translator, Interpreters and Mediators. Shanghai: Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press.
[12] Kirk, Robert (1973). Underdetermination of Theory and Indeterminacy of Translation Analysis.
[13] Munday, Jeremy (2001). Introducing Translation Studies: Theories and Applications. London and New York: Routledge.
[14] Newmark, Peter (2001). A Text Book of Translation. Shanghai: Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press.
[15] Newmark, Peter (2001). Approaches to Translation. Shanghai: Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press.
[16] Nida,E (2000). A Language, Culture and Translating Shanghai: Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press.
[17] Nida,E.A (1984). On Translation. Chinese Translation and Publishing Corporation.
[18] Niranjana, Tejasinini (1992) .History, Post-structuralism and the Colonial Context. Berkeley, University of California Press.
[19] Nord, Christiane (2001). Translating as a Purposeful Activity—Functionalist Approaches Explaine. Shanghai: Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press.
[20] Quine (1960). world and object. Cambridge University Press.
[21] Reiss, Katharina (2004). Translations Criticism-The Potentials& Limitations. Shanghai: Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press.
[22] Schick, Karl(1972). Indeterminacy of Translation. *The Journal of Philosophy*.
[23] Steiner, George (1975). After Babel: Aspects of Language and Translation. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
[24] Sweetman, Brendan (1999). Postmodernism, Derrida, and Diff érance: A critique. *International Philosophical Quarterly*.
[25] Venuti, Lawrence (1992). Rethinking Translation: Discourse, Subjectivity, Ideology. London: Routledg

Xiang Xu was born in Qingdao, China in 1971. He received his M.A. degree in literature from Shan Dong Normal University, China in 2004.

He is currently a lecturer in the School of Foreign Languages, Qingdao University, Qingdao, China. His research interests include British literature.

Naturalism Presented in *The Call of the Wild*

Xiaofen Zhang

Dezhou University, Dezhou 253023, China

E-mail: dzzxf369@163.com

Abstract—**Naturalism was first proposed and formulated by French novelist Emile Zola, and it was introduced to America by American novelist Frank Norris. It is a theory in literature emphasizing scientific observation of life without idealism or avoidance of the ugly. Naturalistic writers were influenced by the evolution theory of Charles Darwin. They believed that one's heredity and social environment determine one's character and influence the actions of its subjects. Jack London (1876-1916) was one of the most popular American writers of his time and regarded as one of the greatest naturalist novelists of America. He was deeply influenced by Darwin's ideas of constant struggle in nature and "the survival of the fittest. He showed his philosophy of naturalism completely in *The Call of the Wild*. The paper tries to explore the features of Naturalism in *The Call of the Wild* in an attempt to seek a deep understanding of naturalist literature.**

Index Terms— **naturalism, Jack London, *The Call of the Wild***

I. INTRODUCTION

A. Jack London's Early Life

Jack London (1876-1916) was born in San Francisco of an unmarried mother Flora Wellman. London grew up in extreme poverty: from earliest youth he supported himself with mental and dangerous jobs, experiencing profoundly the struggle for survival that most other writers and intellectuals knew only from observation or books. By the time he was eighteen he had worked in a cannery and as an oyster pirate, seaman, jute mill worker, and coal shoveler. Realizing that he could never become great by doing odd jobs, he determined to educate himself and prepare himself for better than grueling labor. He attended Oakland High School at age nineteen. A thirst for knowledge snatched young London and he read every book he could get. London consciously chose to become a writer to escape from the horrific prospects of life as a factory worker.

B. His Works

He read many philosophical books and his philosophical thoughts were greatly influenced by the four great teachers of him: Darwin, Spencer, Marx and Nietzsche. London believed in Darwin's evolutionary theory of "survival of the fittest." He studied other writers and began to submit stories, jokes, and poems to various publications, mostly without success. *"Fate brought him the answer and gold was found in Klondike"* (Pizer, 1984). On July 12, 1897, London and his brother-in-law, James Shepard, sailed to join the Klondike Gold Rush where he would later set his first successful stories. London's time in the Klondike, however, was quite detrimental to his health. Fortunately London survived the hardships of the Klondike. Spending the winter of 1897 in the Yukon provided the metaphorical gold for his first stories. There he got familiar with the northern life and especially with kinds of dogs. The materials he collected there prepared him for the writing of his two famous novels *The Call of the Wild (1903) and White Fang (1906)* and his other early works that are a series of short stories called "northern stories". Most of them are adventurous stories set in a primitive environment and they relive the scene of Klondike gold rush and describe the hard and mysterious life of the god-seekers, their strong will and persistence in fighting with nature, and also a series of conflicts among the fellow men in the wilderness, in the valley and in the huts. London read many books and believed in Darwin's evolutionary theory of "survival of the fittest" and also Nietzsche's superman. Both his experience and the philosophical thoughts affected his character, his mind and hence his works. He became one of the most popular American writers of his time and regarded as one of the greatest naturalist novelists of America. He had been in the forefront of the move toward naturalistic fiction and realism in America. He showed his philosophy of naturalism completely in *The Sea-Wolf, White Fang and The Call of the Wild.*

II. SUMMARY OF THE CALL OF THE WILD

The Call of the Wild is a novel by Jack London. The plot concerns a previously domesticated and somewhat pampered dog named Buck, whose primordial instincts return after a series of events.

Buck lived at a big house in the sun-kissed Santa Clara Valley. During the four years since his puppy hood he had lived the life of a sated aristocrat. Buck's first owner was Judge Miller, who took good cares of him. But one day, his life changed. Manuel, who was one of the Judge's employees—a gardener's helper cheated him and sold him to a strange man. From then on, his frustrated life began. He hated the new master, a man in a red sweater, he jumped at the man, and barking. But the man beat him down to the ground. Finally he submitted to the man. In the treacherous, frigid Yukon, he served as a sled dog. The bad weather, the terrible Husky dogs, his dead friend, the fights, especially with Spitz, a Cunning

lead dog in Perrault's team and rival of Buck, and many things made Buck knew he was surrounded by savages... Buck realized there was no goodness and kindness in this world. There was only one rule: *dead or kill; eat or be eaten off.* There was no fair play. Only fight and war could help him. Finally, he began to master his new surroundings. His ability to rule and his great intelligence and good judgment were wonders to everyone. Then, Buck was sold once more. He had two stupid owners. And then John Thornton rescued Buck. Buck loved Thornton as he had loved no other man, for Thornton treated him as if he were his own child. Yet Buck also had a deep yearning for the wilds, which the rough northern climes awakened in him. One day, on his way back to Thornton's camp, he smelled strangers and senses something is wrong. The Yeehats, an Indian tribe killed all the people, include John. Buck was very angry, and he killed most of the Yeehats. He was very proud of himself, because he killed people. John was dead. Buck's last tie with people was broken. Finally, he was ready to answer the call of the wild. He often listened to some special voice of the wild. He ran with wolves, side by side with his wild brothers, shouted as he ran. Sometimes, he raised his great head, and with the wolves, he sounded the call of the wild. That's the most wonderful voice and future for Buck.

III. NATURALISM

Webster's Dictionary gives naturalism a concise definition: A made of thought (religious, moral or philosophical) glorifying nature and excluding supernatural and spiritual elements close adherence to nature in art or literature, esp. (in literature) the technique, chiefly associated with Zola, used to present a naturalistic philosophy, esp. by emphasizing the effect of heredity and environment on human nature and action (The Webster's Dictionary of the English Language, 1989, p. 667). Naturalism was first proposed and formulated by Emile Zola, the French writer and theorist, who is universally labeled as the founder of literary naturalism. Naturalism was a literary movement taking place from 1865 to 1900. A literary work should present life exactly as it is. The naturalist writer also attempted to be painstakingly scientific, objective and detached observation of life without idealism or avoidance of the ugly. It emphasizes that social conditions, heredity, and environment have inescapable force in shaping human character. Naturalistic writers were influenced by the evolution theory of Charles Darwin. They believed that one's heredity and social environment determined one's character and influenced the actions of its subjects.

IV. NATURALISM PRESENTED IN THE CALL OF THE WILD

A. Determinism Theory of Heredity – Atavism: Hearing and Responding to the Call of the Wild

At the beginning of *The Call of the Wild*, Jack London presents a quotation from "Atavism," a 1902 poem by John Myers O'Hara that encapsulates one of the main motifs of the novel:

"Old longings nomadic leap,
Chafing at custom's chain;
Again from its brumal sleep [brumal: winter]
Wakens the ferine strain." [ferine: savage, fierce, wild]

One characteristics of naturalism is *Determinism theory of Heredity*. In the novel heredity is mainly represented in "atavism". "Atavism" is one of the themes of *the call of the wild.* It is an animal's recovery of the instincts of his wild ancestors.

For Buck, this recovery involved repeated visions of his primitive past, which usually occurred late at night when he was lying alongside a campfire. Buck had visions in which he and a hairy man traipsed through the wilds long ago, in some primordial age. The man could leap high and swing in trees. "*And closely akin to the visions of the hairy man was the call still sounding in the depths of the forest. It filled him with a great unrest and strange desires. It caused him to feel a vague, sweet gladness, and he was aware of wild yearnings and stirrings for he knew not what. Sometimes he pursued the call into the forest, looking for it as though it were a tangible thing, barking softly or defiantly, as the mood might dictate.*" (Chapter VII, "The Sounding of the Call"). Buck's experiences in the northland wilderness awakened in him the long-dormant instincts of a wild carnivore. When he acted on these instincts—by killing the moose, for example, or befriending the "wolf brother"—he was responding to the call of the wild. His atavism—that was, his reversion to the behavior of his canine ancestors—gradually transformed him into a wolf like creature that prefers to live in a savage environment in which he must fight and kill to live.

In the last chapter of *The Call of the Wild*, there was always a scene that Buck felt the call of the life in the wild drawing him away from mankind, away from campfire and towns, and into the forest. The only thing that prevented him from going and kept him tied to the world was his master, his love for John Thornton. Buck loved Thornton as he had loved no other man, for Thornton treated him as if he were his own child. If he had been the charge of a less worthy man, he would have run off and become part of the wilds. Yes, Buck acted at times like a house dog as he sat next to Thornton's fire. "*But behind him were the shades of all manner of dogs, half-wolves and wild wolves, urgent and prompting, tasting the savor of the meat he ate, thirsting for the water he drank, scenting the wind with him, listening with him and telling him the sounds made by the wild life in the forest, dictating his moods, directing his actions, lying down to sleep with him when he lay down, and dreaming with him and beyond him and becoming themselves the stuff of his dreams.*" (Chapter VI, "For the Love of a Man").

When Buck found the dead body of John Thornton killed by Yeehats in a pool of water, it was at this moment that Buck completed his transition from servant of man (or, in the case of Thornton, friend of man) to wild animal free and unattached. While brooding over Thornton's body, he heard and answered the call of the wild:

"From far away drifted a faint, sharp yelp, followed by a chorus of similar sharp yelps. As the moments passed the yelps grew closer and louder . . . It was the call, the many-noted call, sounding more luringly and compellingly than ever before. And as never before, he was ready to obey. John Thornton was dead. The last tie was broken. Man and the claims of man no longer bound him." (Chapter VII, "The Sounding of the Call"). Buck killed a number of Yeehats, *"stealing from their camps in fierce winters, robbing their traps, slaying their dogs, and defying their bravest hunters"* (Chapter VII, "The Sounding of the Call"). Some of their hunters want into the forest but never returned, for the Ghost Dog had come upon them and slashed their throats. To attack or kill a human being would once been unthinkable for Buck, and his willingness to do so now symbolized the fact that the docile, pet dog , had been transformed into a beast that killed with impunity and without any kind of remorse.

B.   Determinism Theory of Environment -*"Survival of the Fittest"*

Naturalism also emphasizes that environment has inescapable force in shaping human character and influencing the actions of its subjects. In Naturalism, characters have no free will, extended and internal forces, while environment or heredity controls their behavior. This is just determinism. All determinists believe in the existence of the will, but the will is often enslaved on account of different reasons. Jack London's naturalism could primarily be attributed to the fact that he was an ardent exponent of and a firm believer in the "survival of the fittest" theory. This concept, according to him, is a matter of the violence of force against force—the weak dwindle into insignificance and perish. There was no room for the weak in London's world. Only the strong prevailed and inhabited the hard world. For the main character Buck, from a civilized, gentle, moral, tame, and happy-go-lucky domestic pet dog to a wild, cruel, leader of the wolves, besides heredity, it was the environment that transformed Buck and his adaptation made him survive in the cruel world.

On Judge Miller's vast estate in sunny Santa Clara Valley, California, four-year-old Buck was the top dog. He lived comfortable life. *"The whole realm was his," "He plunged into the swimming tank or went hunting with the Judge's sons; he escorted Mollie and Alice, the Judge's daughters, on long twilight or early morning rambles; on wintry nights he lay at the Judge's feet before the roaring library fire; he carried the Judge's grandsons on his back, or rolled them in the grass, and guarded their footsteps through wild adventures down to the fountain in the stable yard, and even beyond, where the paddocks were, and the berry patches"* (Chapter I, "Into the Primitive"). *But* In the hostile living environment in the North land, Buck not only adapted him self to the new circumstances, he had learned well the law of club and fang. While a man in a red sweater opened the crate and releases Buck, immediately Buck sprang at him, but the man dealt him a brutal blow with a club. A dozen times he charged, and as often the club broke the charge and smashed him down. Dazed and drained of energy, Buck now realizes that he could not compete with the club. He learned to subdue his rage and remained where he has fallen. *"You've learned your place, and I know mine," the man says* (Chapter I, "Into the Primitive"). Over the next few days, the man similarly greeted other dogs—some docile and some defiant like Buck. One dog that continued to resist died under the club.

On the trail, he was a fast learner. He learned how to dig a snow shelter for cold nights and how to answer the stop and go commands, *ho* and *mush*. He quickly mastered the ways of the sled dog. In the north, Buck knew the furious fights between the dogs, and the death. Buck first realized the importance of the sharp teeth in the competition. There was a strong dog, Spitz. He often bullied the weaker, even Buck. He often ate the other's food; let them hunger. He often slept the other's comfortable hole, made the other sleep in the wind yard in snowy winter night. So Buck decided to have a fight with the Spitz, live or death, happy or suffering. In fighting with Spitz, although he was strong, he was serious damaged. But he did not give up. He knew that once a dog was down on the ground, he was dead, a loser. The laughing of the Spitz enraged him. Finally, he alters his tactics after first failing to penetrate his foe's defenses and kills Spitz. Buck took up the duties of leadership.*"Buck was merciless. He had learned well the law of club and fang, and he never forewent an advantage or drew back from a foe he had started on the way to Death. He had lessoned from Spitz, and from the chief fighting dogs of the police and mail, and knew there was no middle course. He must master or be mastered; while to show mercy was a weakness. Mercy did not exist in the primordial life. It was misunderstood for fear, and such misunderstandings made for death. Kill or be killed, eat or be eaten, was the law; and this mandate, down out of the depths of Time, he obeyed."(*Chapter VI. For the Love of a Man. London, 1994: 63)

In the wilds, he himself became wild, stalking and killing prey, including a moose. One day, Buck encountered a wolf pack. One attacked him, but Buck broke his neck. Three others then set upon him, but they retreat after Buck rips them open. When the other wolves close in, Buck holds them off, whirling left and right with snapping jaws. Finally, a wolf approaches him docilely and rubs noses with him. It is the wolf Buck romped with earlier in the forest. Then an old wolf came forward and, with a howl, welcomed Buck into the pack. Eventually he became the leader of a wolf pack. Buck's strength and courage supported him through his ordeals. However, more than anything else, it was his ability to adapt to his environment that ensures his survival.

In contrast to Buck, the good-natured Newfoundland, Curly, failed to survive because she acted civilly in a savage environment. She did not adapt. As an animal, Buck's behaviors represented "the survival of the fittest." He was struggling for his life. Facing trouble, to survive was the most important thing. He must adapt to the new environment and defeat the other animals so that he can survive. From portraying the dog's images to revealing the formation and

development of the dog's character, the novel embodies obviously genetic determinism and environmental determinism advocated by Zola. Darwin's theory of "the big fish eat up the small, the fittest survive" is fully expressed through Buck's image.

C. Objective

The naturalist strives to be objective and detached, even documentary in his presentation of material; the naturalist writer prefers to observe the characters as if they were animals in the wild and then report on their activity. In the world of jungle, to exist is the most important. So the naturalists adopt an immoral attitude toward human life, and they neither criticize nor praise human beings' actions. The naturalists don't hide or avoid the existence of the dark side of society, and they describe the dark side honestly. The characters in the works of naturalism are unsavory. They pay no attention to morals and they offend public decency, they often act against the social norms or against their will under the pressure of circumstances. Buck's image reflects the character of naturalism in literature: there is only the cruel fight to survive and no human sympathy there. Buck must defeat the other animals so that he can survive. It is the same with human beings who must invade and defeat other people so that they can gain their place in the society.

Nietzsche (1844-1900) developed the concept of the *Übermensch*, or superman, a person who attains superior status in society after mastering himself and exhibiting a "will to power" and creative use of his energies. In *Also Sprach Zarathustra* (*Thus Spake Zarathustra*), Nietzsche enunciated his *Übermensch* theory, saying the achievement of superman status requires the individual to reject democracy, modern civilization, religion, and western morality because they inhibit him from realizing his full potential. London loosely applied some principles of Nietzsche's complex philosophy to Buck, as demonstrated when Buck mastered his passions and achieves dominance through creative use of his powers. In the end, Buck choose to forsake civilization and lived in the wilds as an "über" wolf—that was, the leader of the pack.

The characters in the works of naturalism are usually dominated by the fundamental desires to live such as fear, hunger, and sexual desire etc. In the world of jungle, to exist is the most important. So the naturalists adopt an immoral attitude toward human life, and they neither criticize nor praise human beings' actions. The naturalists don't hide or avoid the existence of the dark side of society, and they describe the dark side honestly. The characters in the works of naturalism are unsavory. They pay no attention to morals and they offend public decency, they often act against the social norms or against their will under the pressure of circumstances. Buck's image reflects the character of naturalism in literature: there is only the cruel fight to survive and no human sympathy there. There are no rules there, the only rule is massacring and reeking of blood. This is against traditional moral doctrines. But it is just one feature of literary naturalism.

V. Conclusion

In conclusion, American naturalism is an important literary trend and it is influential to realism and also modernism. As a famous writer, London played an important part in the naturalistic trend, and he made great contribution to the world's literary history. He was strongly influenced by Darwin's theory of evolution. The determinism and "the big fish eat up the small, the fittest survive" theory of naturalism are clearly shown in the novel. *The Call of the Wild* exposes the essence of human's life: from the society perspective, there seems to be only one law in this world, which both men and beasts obey - only the fittest can survive in the strongly competitive world. Buck's struggles toward independence can symbolize the struggles every human faces in life. We should learn something from Buck, who progresses toward independence after learning to cope in a hard world.

References

[1]   London, Jack. (1994). The Call of the Wild. Beijing: Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press.
[2]   The Webster's Dictionary of the English Language.(1989). Lexicon Publications.
[3]   Zola, (1988). Naturalism . Beijing: China Social Sciences Press.
[4]   Donald, Pizer. (1984). Realism and Naturalism in Nineteenth-Century American Literature. Southern Illinois University Press.
[5]   Weiren, Wu. (1990). History and Anthology of American Literature Volume 2. Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press.
[6]   Xinguo, Ma. (1994). History of Western Literary Theory. Beijing: Higher Education Press.
[7]   Wen, Zhu.(1992). Naturalism in Literature. Shanghai: Shanghai Art and Literature Publishing House.
[8]   The Project Gutenberg EBook of The Call of the Wild. http://www.gutenberg.org/files/215/215-h/215-h.htm.
[9]   Michael J. Cummings. (2008). The Call of the Wild (A Study Guide). http://www.cummingsstudyguides.net.
[10]   Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia. Web Transcription Tool. http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Jack London
[11]   Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia. Web Transcription Tool. http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Naturalism (literature).

Xiaofen Zhang was born in Dezhou, China in 1963. She graduated from the English Department of Dezhou University, Shandong Province, China in 1986. She received her B.A. degree in ELT (English language teaching) from Liaocheng University, Shandong Province, China in 1996.

She is currently an associate professor in Dezhou University, China. Her research interests include English language and American literature.

Features of Input of Second Language Acquisition*

Xiaoru Wang

Xianyang Normal University, Shanxi, China 712000

Email: wxrdgq@sina.com

Abstract—**Input plays a significant role in second language acquisition; some researchers classify input into conscious and unconscious. What kind of input is most helpful to learner? This paper discusses the optimal input Krashen defined compared with first language acquisition.**

Index Terms— **optimal input, first language acquisition, second language acquisition**

I. FEATURES OF INPUT

The general term input might include a variety of student and teacher characteristics, such as intelligence, sex, personality, general learning or teacher style, previous experience, motivation, attitudes, and so on. Here we narrow down or simplify the term input on general learning or teacher style. Most learners of English in China, who have little contact with the second language (L2) environment, are likely to depend mostly on conscious classroom learning to improve their English. The only place most L2 learners are exposed to the L2 is in the classroom. The kind of language used in the classroom is known as Teacher talk. This has also been studied and its main characteristics are that:

--language teachers usually use short, simple, grammatically correct sentences and general, high frequency vocabulary. They adjust their speech to reflect feedback from L2 learners. If they recognize that learners do not understand them, they too repeat, rephrase or expand the intended message.

--typical interactions in the classroom follow a very rigid three-part pattern: teacher initiates, learner respond, and the teacher provides feedback to the learner. An example:

Initiate: Is the clock on the wall?

Respond: Yes (it is.)(The clock is on the wall.)

Feedback: Good. The clock is on the wall.

--teachers ask a lot of unreal questions, questions to which they and the learners already know the answers. As a result, learners are trained to use the language in unnatural ways. They are taught how to reply, but not how to initiate conversation.

--the topics dealt with, the contexts in which the L2 is set, are often uninteresting and bear little relationship to the possible needs and interesting of the learners.

--teachers, not learners, do most of the talking.

If we compare the language environments provided for L1 and L2 learners, we find that Teacher Talk: Emphasizes the production of correct grammatical forms. Teachers are not really interested in what the learners have to say. The L2 is used unrealistically for the sake of practicing structures, not in order to DO things that the learners wish or need to do in the L2. Teacher talk does not focus on topics that are in the learners' 'here and now', such as topics that are of immediate relevance and interest to what are usually adult or adolescent learners. As a result of the above, Teacher Talk allows learners very little chance to test out what they can do with the structures that they know. There are thus few chances for learners to obtain tangible proof of their progress in the L2. This is likely to negatively affect motivation.

Much L2 input and output emphasizes correctness of form, having little concern for the meanings which forms can express and the uses to which they may be put. The result is often that L2 learners may appear to be more or less equally proficient at the passive recognition of correct grammatical forms but are very varied in the extent to which they are able to use the forms they appear to know.

Teachers need to try and provide their learners with opportunities for more than merely mechanical classroom practice. If SLA does have parallels to L1 Acquisition, then both the input that they are given and the chances they have to produce the L2 should enable learners to develop and test hypotheses about how the L2 actually works in real-life. In practice, this means that teachers should: Try to use the L2 for organizational and social purpose in the classroom from the very beginning of students' L2 learning. Activities in the classroom are, after all, a valid and naturally occurring context. Begin the production part of language teaching by using the 'here and now'. There are a number of relevant topics within the classroom: the learners themselves--appearances, families, clothing, likes and dislikes; items found in the classroom--their shapes, sizes, colors and what they are made of. Interesting topics from outside the classroom

should also be selected. Devise language activities that enable learners to see clearly the relationships between forms and meanings, activities that expect them to show understanding of listening and reading input, by using it to DO something, activities that demand that they use the spoken or written forms of the language to achieve a certain goal.

II. OPTIMAL INPUT

Krashen (1982) defined that optimal input should be comprehensible, be interesting and /or relevant, not be grammatically sequenced, be in sufficient quantity. If the leaner can be exposed to input having to these features, it is considered acquisition is more likely to occur.

A. Be Comprehensible

According to information processing theory concerning comprehension and production (Carroll,1990), if the learner cannot keep up with the rate of exposure and the input content is far beyond his linguistic competence, he will fail to comprehend and therefore, to acquire. Therefore the teacher must ensure that the material he chooses is not so demanding on student. Although some research results show that a large amount of exposure to L2 leads to proficiency, some had doubted whether it would help by sheer exposure without comprehension. This point of view was derived from the observation and study of the 'Motherese' (Snow, 1977) in first language acquisition and was extended to second language acquisition theories. Psychological findings (Carroll, 1990) have also provided evidence that only when the meaning of an utterance or a sentence is understood and processed can it be stored in the long-term memory. Krashen (1978) argues that the learner's brain functions like a filter of the information or input provided by the outside world. Only the part that is understandable can possibly pass through the filter and become intake of the leaner. Not only does the incomprehensible part fail to facilitate acquisition to occur, but also it will take too much effort on the part of the learner to filter it out. Therefore, the incomprehensible part of the input contributes little to learning but only hinders it by frustrating the learner.

Corder (1981) has also pointed out that simply presenting a certain linguistic form to a learner in the classroom does not necessarily qualify it for the status of input, since input is "what goes in", not what is "available" for going in. Those language forms which cannot be processed by the learner can by no means become the intake of the learner, let alone to become the output of the learner. To look at this question from another angle, it is generally agreed that comprehension usually precedes production, and without comprehension learning will not occur.

B. Be Interesting

It is often found that the input available to the Chinese students can seldom meet this third requirement. Textbooks are designed to cater to the needs and taste of examinations, and almost all English tests at all levels have the following items: listening comprehension, reading comprehension, vocabulary and structure, close tests, error correction, and composition writing with no more than 150 words. This orientation of the testing system has done serious harm to both teaching and learning.

To pass these tests, the student has to do a lot of simulated test papers and have little time to read more authentic and interesting materials. Collection of test papers are often so badly compiled that they contain a lot of errors. Such activities are not only boring and time-consuming, but also misleading and harmful.

C. Be in Sufficient Quantity

The purpose of language teaching, in a sense, is to provide optimal samples of the language for the learner to profit from. However, if the quantity of input cannot be ensured, the input still cannot be said to be optimal. That is why Krashen (1982: 71) has claimed that optimal input should be in sufficient quantity.

Actually the quantity of input is the main concern of our optimal input hypothesis, since the big difference between foreign learning in the mother tongue environment and SLA in the target language environment lies in the amount of input that is available to the learner. In this regard, Chinese learners of English are at a big disadvantage. They usually depend on only one textbook for learning the language. The textbook is really made full use of. In learning each text, the teacher first explains to the student every grammatical point and language item in detail, and then there is usually an exercise-book which contains nearly everything related to the content of the text. After that, the text is read over and over again until it is memorized by the student. The students' attention is, most of the time, focused on the language forms rather than reading for meaning. The students have so much homework to do that they can hardly squeeze any time for extra-reading by themselves outside the class. This is how language input is supplied for the beginners at middle schools.

For learners of higher levels--the college students, there is little difference. Only the text is longer and there is an intensive/extensive reading class distinction. However, Emphasis is laid on the intensive part in the division of class hours. The extensive reading course is only secondary for most students. In order to prove that the student can learn more easily and better if they are given more input than is required by the syllabus.

D. Be Authentic

I had a persistent misconception about "authentic language" that all the natural meaningful sentences or utterances produced by native speakers are authentic language until one day I read the book entitled Second Language Learning

and Language Teaching by Vivian Cook. He cited the following conversation from the textbook Flying Colors by Garton Sprenger and Greenall in 1990(Cook, 1991:93):

(1) Nicola: Do you like this music?

Roger: Not very much. I don't like jazz.

Nicola: What kind of music do you like?

Roger: I like classic music…

To most people, this is perhaps authentic language; Cook, however, comments that in real-life conversations, people do not speak in such full grammatical sentences, and do not keep to a clear sequence of turns. They may just say "Like this music?" "Not very much. Not jazz." "So what?" (with rising pitch). "Classical." Evidently, this dialogue is intended for the students to learn the expression of "Do you like…?" and "What kind of…do you like?".

Cook also supplies an example of authentic language from the course book English Topics:

(2) Mrs bagg: Oh, how extraordinary.

Jenny Drew: So 'cos quite a quite a lot of things like that.

Mrs bagg: I mean were they frightened? 'Cos I think if I actually…

Jenny Drew: No.

Mrs bagg: saw a ghost because I don't believe in them really, I would be frightened you know to think that I was completely wrong. (ibid.)

This conversation about a ghost is an example of authentic language since it is "created to fulfill some social purpose in the language community in which it was produced."(in Cook, 1991:93)

For students who are living in the target language environment, this informal spoken English can possibly be heard and acquired in daily communication. But for Chinese students who are learning a L2 mainly from the textbooks, they mistake the non-authentic conversation in (1) for the way English is actually spoken on every occasion, so they are being handicapped by never hearing authentic speech in all its richness and diversity. No wonder one American professor I encountered said that her students are very bookish, when they were talking to her they spoke so formally as if they were reciting from a textbook, but when they turned to writing, their language use was so informal as if they were talking to her. Cook (1991) reported that the exercises and courses have taken a turn away from specially constructed classroom language to any pieces of language that have been really used by native speakers. The use of authentic text in teaching has been adequately justified by Little et al (See Cook, 1991:94).

Another feature of non-authentic material is that our texts are often simplified both lexically and syntactically by the compilers and thus lose their naturalness and appropriacy, since it is almost impossible for the wording to be changed without losing some of its original nuances and flavor. In addition, some cultural meaning is also lost during such rewriting. In a word, simplification is often achieved at the expense of authenticity.

III. CONCLUSION

In conclusion, we may tentatively include the above as the most important features of optimal input though they do not exclude any others. What we want to point out is that these features should be borne in mind. The immediate implication of this hypothesis is for English language teachers to provide the learner with optimal input and encourage him to also explore optimal input on their own outside classroom. If teachers could employ this strategy in their teaching, they should find their teaching more effective.

REFERENCES

[1]   Carrol, J. M.(1990) 'Universals and Second Language Learning: Some Comments on the state of Current Theory'. *Language Learning.*

[2]   Cook, V. (1991). Second Language Learning and Language Teaching. Edward Arnold.

[3]   S. Pit. Corder. (1981), Error Analysis and Interlanguage. Oxford University Press.

[4]   Baker, C.(1992). Attitude and Language. Multilingual Matters Ltd.

[5]   Ellis Rod. (1985). The Study of Second Language Acquisition. Shanghai: Shanghai Foreign Education Press, p18.

[6]   Ellis Rod. (1999). Understanding Second Language Acquisition. Shanghai: Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press, p127.

[7]   Krashen, S.D.(1982). Principles and Practice in Second Language Acquisition. Pergamon Press.

[8]   Krashen, S.(1978). Two Studies in Second Language Acquisition and Language Learning. *ITL: Review of Applied Linguistics.*

[9]   Snow, C. E.(1972). Mothers speech to children learning language. *Child Development.*43,549-565.

[10] Snow, C.(1977). Taking to Children. Cambridge University Press.

Xiaoru Wang was born in Shaanxi, China in 1976. She received M.A. degree in linguistics from Shanxi Normal University, China in 2007.

She is currently an associate teacher in the department of Foreign Languages, XianYang Normal University, China. Her research is Second language Acquisition.

Historical Background of the Translatological Dictionaries

Lei Gao

School of Foreign Languages, Huaiyin Normal University, Huai'an, Jiangsu, China
E-mail: mrgaolei@163.com

Abstract—This paper will first talk about the history, production, and importance of the dictionaries. Dictionaries play an important role in developing the social culture so it is quite necessary and reasonable to take them as a kind of research subject. Lexicography, which is generally considered to be built on modern linguistics, must possess its own theoretical system and research methodology. In terms of the properties of lexicography, the paper will discuss such aspects as multidisciplinary integration, open perspectives, and practice orientation. Any new perspective to deal with the dictionary may be possible or feasible on condition that it satisfies the requirements of lexicography. With the development of translatology and lexicography, the translatological dictionaries (TD) came into being. The TD has already become a research subject under translatology in China.

Index Terms—dictionary, lexicography, translatology, translatological dictionaries (TD)

I. INTRODUCTION

To trace the origin of the TD, this chapter will first survey the development and some properties of the dictionary. There is a long history of the dictionary culture, but lexicography, which mainly deals with the dictionary-making and dictionary research, is just developed in the latter half of the 20th century. The discussion of the dictionary, lexicography, and their properties or characteristics will reveal the dictionary tradition of the TD. The naissance of the TD comes from the integration of lexicography and translatology.

II. DICTIONARY

With the cultural development, it is necessary for people to store, spread or normalize the various kinds of knowledge, so dictionaries are produced. The dictionary is a kind of cultural crystallization, without which it is almost incredible for a certain civilization to survive. The dictionary, to some extent, can reflect its corresponding cultural conditions. Judging from the history, we find that any mature academic discipline must have its corresponding dictionaries. We can safely say that the dictionary-making and research is a very important cultural activity. YONG He-ming said:

From relevant literature, we can conclude that the earliest dictionary originated from the Middle East. The dictionary-making has a history of more than 4 000 years, which can be dated back to 5 000 years BC in the southern region of Mesopotamia, where Sumerian was spoken in the tribes. (YONG He-ming 2006: 27)

In China, the dictionary culture has a history of about 2 200 years, which can be traced back to the dictionary of *Er Ya* (《尔雅》). In Europe, the earliest Greek glossaries, the preliminary dictionaries, were mostly used to explain the difficult words in a particular author's work, especially to help understand the canons of the 8th century BC, e.g. Homer's *Iliad* and *Odyssey*. In India, in the 1 000 years BC or so, the old Indians listed out some difficult words in the Buddhist scripture of *Veda*, and made a pamphlet of the glossary to help spread the scripture, which is regarded as the start of the dictionary-making in India. The compilation of dictionaries is an inevitable outcome of the development of culture and language, and any dictionary is a marked achievement in developing a certain culture.

The dictionary history of China, according to the statement of YONG He-ming, can be divided into four phases: 1) Budding and initiate phase (from the West Zhou to Han dynasties); 2) Exploring and building phase (from Wei and Jin dynasties to Yuan dynasty); 3) Evolution and shaping phase (from Ming dynasty to Qing dynasty); 4) Dreary and thriving phase (during 20th century). (YONG He-ming 2006: 8) In the past, the theories about dictionary-making were mainly composed of the comments of a particular dictionary, and they appeared more often than not as the prefaces, notes on the use, appendices of the dictionaries, and so on. During the 20th century, with the introduction of modern linguistics and other related theories, the compilation techniques of dictionaries were getting more advanced, and the theoretical system of lexicography had been set up.

In modern society, dictionaries and other reference books are playing a very important role, as they are greatly conducive to people's practice and research. We can even say that excellent dictionaries in a certain field represent, to a great extent, the maturity of the field. In this respect, SUN Ying-chun remarked:

The dictionary is a kind of tool used to learn knowledge and go in for research. The importance of the dictionary is salient in the information society. In some developed countries, dictionaries occupy more than 20% of all the

publications, so the dictionary culture is formed. The study of dictionary is becoming more and more important, and it has branched off from linguistics, standing on its own firm feet as an independent discipline. (SUN Ying-chun 2008: Preface)

A.   Definition of the Dictionary

According to the Chinese dictionary of *Ci Hai* (《辞海》), the dictionary is defined as "a kind of reference book, which collects the vocabulary of a particular language, arranges them in a certain order, and gives definitions to each one." The definition offered by the *Collins Cobuild's Essential English Dictionary* (*CCEED*) is a little more detailed: 1) A book in which the words of a language are listed alphabetically and their meanings are explained. 2) A book in which words in one language are listed alphabetically and are followed by the words in another language which have the same meaning. 3) An alphabetically ordered reference book on a particular subject. The definition of the *CCEED* covers three kinds of dictionaries: general dictionary; bilingual dictionary; specialized dictionary. Though comparatively complete in dealing with the types of dictionaries, this definition is still loose in nature, as it does not pinpoint all the noumenal characteristics of a dictionary. It is perhaps very tricky to give a perfect or ideal definition of a dictionary, as different lexicographers may stress different aspects of a dictionary.

HUANG Jian-hua argued that "the dictionary is a kind of reference book, in which the lemmas are collected in a certain order and dealt with separately to supply a certain quantity of information." (HUANG Jian-hua 2001: 2) We think that HUANG Jian-hua's definition of the dictionary is more accurate, as it touches the form, content and function of the dictionary. As far as the form is concerned, this definition stresses that the entries (words) should be conducted respectively as independent texts, and the entries should be arranged according to a kind of order, which is conducive to being consulted; as far as the content is concerned, a dictionary should centre on words or vocabulary, and the range and scale the entries cover in information should be determined by the nature and scale of the dictionary. In terms of the nature of a dictionary, LI Er-gang put forward:

A dictionary is a kind of miniature linguistic work, which collects the words (vocabulary) to solve the puzzles, and in which the entries are dealt with separately, and supplied with definitions and relevant knowledge. (LI Er-gang 2002: 13)

LI Er-gang's definition gets the characteristics of the entry, but he thinks that a dictionary acts as a kind of linguistic work, which is meant to spread linguistic knowledge instead of being consulted as a kind of reference book, and thus the function of a dictionary is a little misunderstood. In the article of "Characteristics and Entry-Explaining Principles of Translatological Dictionaries", ZHANG Bo-ran argued that a dictionary should be composed of two elements, which means that:

One element lies in the form; the other element lies in the function. A dictionary must have the headwords and their definitions, which are indispensable to any dictionary, the headwords lexicographically called "left core" and their definitions "right core". This is the formal elements. The main task of the dictionary is to pertinently offer readers information and solve their puzzles. This is the function of the dictionary, which constitutes their functional element. The formal function and the functional function are mutually connected and unified. (See SUN Ying-chun 2005: 4)

ZHANG Bo-ran's definition stresses the formal and functional elements of the dictionary. His theory is reasonable, for it is perhaps just the formal and functional elements that determine the being of a dictionary.

From the aforementioned statements about the definition of the dictionary, we can find that the form, content and function are the most important elements in determining the being of the dictionary. Integrating the nature, function, stylistic layout and so on of the dictionary, SUN Ying-chun stated:

The dictionary is a kind of reference book which collects words, deals with the words respectively and organizes them in a certain manner. By offering a certain quantity of information, this kind of reference book can describe the language, regulate the application of the language, solve people's puzzles and promote human communication. (SUN Ying-chun 2008: 114)

In addition, there are many other definitions about the dictionary, of which "the best definition in metalexicography is actually a list of features draw up by Rey-Debove for her study of modern French dictionaries." (Béjoint 2002: 9) According to Rey-Debove, a dictionary can be defined by the following eight characteristics:

a) A dictionary is a series of separate paragraphs;
b) A dictionary is meant to be consulted, not read;
c) Dictionaries have a double structure;
d) A dictionary is an ordered set;
e) A dictionary is a list of linguistic units;
f) A dictionary is a didactic book;
g) A dictionary gives information about linguistic signs;
h) A dictionary is a structured representation of predetermined lexical set.
(Béjoint 2002: 10-24)

From these characteristics, we can find that a), c) and d) stress the formal elements of the dictionary; b) and f) stress the functional elements; e), g) and h) stress the contents. Therefore, we can say any definition of the dictionary should centre on the formal, functional and content elements, which in turn constitute the criteria to measure a dictionary. Besides, the formal elements of a dictionary mainly consist of the lemmas and their definitions, the former

lexicographically called "left core" and latter "right core". And the main task of a dictionary is to offer users information and solve their problems, which is called the reference function of a dictionary. The formal element and the functional element should be unified organically.

B. Properties of the Dictionary

The properties of a dictionary can reflect its nature, so different kinds of dictionaries may possess different properties. Understanding the properties, we can better make clear the nature and function of a dictionary. In addition, there exist properties that almost all the dictionaries may share in common.

The prescriptiveness and descriptiveness of the dictionary remain as a constant topic for the lexicographers. Generally speaking, dictionaries have two main functions, one to record the situation about a language and its culture and the other to normalize a language. The former function is descriptive in nature, and the latter prescriptive. With the development of the dictionary-making, not all the dictionaries can equally show both these properties, some to be descriptive and some to be prescriptive. Béjoint wrote:

The aim of the very first monolingual dictionaries was to describe lexical usage, but in the eighteenth century lexicographers felt it was their duty to indicate—and in some cases decide—what was good and what was bad usage. They recommended some forms and banned others. (Béjoint 2002: 100)

Rey-Debove once argued that the prescriptiveness and descriptiveness are based on two different norms: a "qualitative" norm and a "quantitative" norm (Rey-Debove 1972). In terms of these two norms, Béjoint wrote:

The qualitative norm is based on the usage and on the opinion of the "best" language users, as determined by a more or less clear consensus—often, in fact, only educators and well-known writers. (Béjoint 2002: 100)

The quantitative norm is based on the observation of the linguistic usage of all the reasonably fluent users of the community. Any form is good as long as it is used by a certain number of speakers. The difficulty here is to determine the minimum number of speakers, or of recorded uses, required to make a usage acceptable. The quantitative norm corresponds to the modern corpus, which can be studies with statistical methods in order to determine frequencies. The dictionary is prescriptive if it uses a qualitative norm, descriptive if it uses the quantitative. (ibid)

From Béjoint's statement, we know that the prescriptive dictionary is to normalize a language and the descriptive dictionary is to faithfully record the use situation of a language. Zgusta once remarked, "The aim of prescriptive dictionaries is to fix the language, to try to prevent it from changing, change usually being equated with deterioration." (ibid) Being afraid of the deterioration of a language, lexicographers tend to design prescriptive dictionaries. People may think that all the dictionaries are prescriptive, as any dictionary can give an authoritative impression upon its readers. In addition, a dictionary is always a reference book, in which one tries to find out the relevant information to solve their puzzles, so it would seem more normative than descriptive. But more often than not,

The distinction between descriptive dictionaries and prescriptive dictionaries is much clearer in the declarations of lexicographers and of some of their public than in the reality of the dictionaries themselves. Total descriptiveness is impossible, because the lexicographer can not avoid making choices, and total prescriptiveness does not work if it is estranged from the realities of usage ... (Béjoint 2002: 101)

The macrostructure and microstructure of the dictionary constitute the text of a dictionary. The structure of a dictionary, which can be compared to the muscular tissues or vessels of a dictionary, is the carrier of the compilation ideas about a particular dictionary. Traditionally, the structure of a dictionary is considered to consist of the macrostructure and microstructure, which in turn consist of other substructures. Macrostructure usually refers to "the overall List structure which allows the compiler and the users to locate information in a Reference Work". (Hartmann & James 2000: 91) Microstructure usually refers to the detailed information about the lemmas. Macrostructures mainly deal with vertically the arrangements of entries, which are mostly based on nouns (or terms, concepts); microstructures mainly deal with horizontally the arrangements of the information about a lemma. The interweavement of the macrostructure and microstructure will make up a systematic textural structure of a dictionary.

Dictionaries vary according to the amount of information they provide and how they present the information. Different types of dictionaries may require different arrangements of the macrostructures and microstructures. And the contents of these two structures are closely related to the lexicographers' purposes. The lemmas, which are usually based on nouns (or terms, concepts), should be concise, typical and systematic in presenting the related materials. The right core of a lemma should systematically arrange the information the designers want to present to the prospective users. In addition, the number of lemmas is often subject to the scale of a dictionary. Moreover, Fenner (1998) claimed that dictionaries are independent texts since their entries meet all the normal criteria of referential cohesion. (Hartmann 2005: 63)

The structure of something is the way in which it is made, built, or organized; a structure is something that has been built or formed in a particular way; a system or activity that has structure is well arranged and organized and is therefore efficient (*CCEED* 1989). From this definition, we can find that a structure should be systematic, watertight, and efficient in its organization. As for the "structure" of the dictionary, Hartmann pointed out that, in the literature on lexicography, it had been used in a similar fashion to refer to the manner in which the component parts of a dictionary are related to each other and to the whole. (Hartmann 2005: 57-58)

In addition, LI Er-gang proposed that dictionaries should have such properties as: the words collected for the users' reference; comprehensive definitions; intensive knowledge; separate retrieval. (Li Ergang 2002: 4) Collecting the words

for the users' reference is the purpose of the lexicographers, as dictionaries are used to be consulted rather than to be read. Comprehensive definitions mean that the language used in a dictionary is either to define or to be defined. Intensive knowledge means that it should be intensive in presenting the related knowledge. Separate retrieval, a formal property of the dictionary, means that the dictionary unit should lie in the individual lemma that is relatively independent; meanwhile, the lemmas should be in an aggregate arrangement, which can form a system to convenience the readers' reference.

C. Function of the Dictionary

Dictionaries are generally considered as a kind of reference book, in which people can consult the relevant information they want. This can be called the dictionary's function of practicality, which is generally regarded as a criterion to evaluate the quality of the dictionaries. For a long time, the dictionaries have been endowed with such images as guardian of the purity of language, as thesaurus of the whole lexicon, as thesaurus of all the collective knowledge of the society, as guardian of absolute and eternal truth, as guardian of the moral and ideological values of the society, as a means of social promotion, and as a patriotic emblem. (Béjoint 2002: 116-138) Some of these images are derived from the laymen's perception, and some from lexicographers' empiricism.

The function of dictionaries should be closely related to their types. In this respect, J. et C. Dubois argued that dictionaries should realize such functions:

1) Dictionaries can help the readers to understand, translate and write another language, or to communicate with the people speaking another language, which constitutes the functions of the bilingual or multilingual dictionaries;

2) Dictionaries can help the readers to understand the special terms or the vocabularies about science and technology on the basis of their mastered general words, which constitutes the functions of the various specialized dictionaries;

3) Dictionaries can help the readers to well master the linguistic expressions and to improve their philological knowledge by offering related semantic, syntactic, morphological and phonetic information, which constitutes the functions of the monolingual language dictionaries;

4) Dictionaries can help the readers to extend their knowledge or to deepen their knowledge by offering various kinds of knowledge in the entries, which constitutes the functions of the various encyclopedic dictionaries. (HUANG Jian-hua 2001: 5-6)

The quality of dictionaries is determined, to a certain extent, by the functions accomplished in the users. To realize the various functions of the dictionary is mainly preconditioned by the scientificalness, knowledgeableness, practicality, and so on of the dictionary. Nowadays "the dictionary continues to be seen as an instrument designed to provide quick and superficial support in case of emergency." (Béjoint 2002: 152) Trying to serve the users, the dictionary should try to satisfy the preset objective of compilation. But "research into dictionary use has revealed that there can be a discrepancy between the functions intended by the compiler and the actual look-up practices in specific situations of use." (Hartmann & James 2000: 60)

YONG He-ming argued:

The traditional study of the function of dictionaries has always been influenced by the research method of the linguistic noumenon, so it can not get out from the confinement of the instrumental theory, which takes the dictionary as a kind of reference book to be consulted. (YONG He-ming 2006: 194)

We know that the function of the dictionary is more than to be a reference book, as the dictionary is sure to be endowed with the functions of communication, culturing, ideological instruction and the like. So YONG He-ming generalized three functions of the dictionary: "descriptive function, didactic function, ideological function". (YONG He-ming 2006: 194) In terms of the functions of the dictionary, the statement made by SUN Ying-chun is very inspiring. He said:

The dictionary is product of the social needs, and it is like a mirror of the society, reflecting the social development. In modern society, with the increasingly detailed division of social labor, the dictionary today is incomparable in the quantity, quality, variety, and so on. The knowledge and information people need to consult are becoming more than those that people need to read or memorize. Generally speaking, the role the dictionary plays in the society is becoming more and more salient, and greater and greater. (SUN Ying-chun 2008: 5)

III. LEXICOGRAPHY

A. Development of Lexicography

For a long time, people have issued their research achievements, comments, ideas or suggestions on the nature, properties, types, functions and some other aspects of the dictionary. Thus, with the accumulation of the achievements made in the dictionary making and research, lexicography has wormed its way to an independent discipline. Nowadays, as an independent discipline, lexicography has formed its theoretical system, research methodology, representative works, leading figures, and so on. To study its course of development can give us much inspiration.

The dictionary-making can be dated back to more than 4 000 years ago, so we can say that lexicography has a glorious history. Meanwhile, we can also say that lexicography is very young, for lexicography should be based on modern linguistics, and its theoretical system and research methods had not formed until the contemporary times. In the past, the compilation of dictionaries was just taken as empirical practice without any academic value. "Lexicographers

have always been linguists of a sort, but they have tended to be considered as non-linguists, and to be rejected by the academic world of linguistics." (Béjoint 2002: 169) So for a long time, the dictionary had been considered to be too unscientific to be worthy of academic concern, and only an impure by-product of linguistics. At the same time, dictionary-makers thought that the compilation of dictionaries was a kind intuitional work, which had nothing to do with theories. In this respect, Henri Béjoint wrote:

Lexicographers and dictionary publishers did not particularly want the contribution of linguists in the compilation of dictionaries either. They failed to see what linguists could contribute to the practical task of dictionary-making: they thought that academics would be of little use in lexicographical work, with all its practical and social constraints, to which linguistic theory is ill-adapted. (Béjoint 2002: 170)

As for the early dictionary-making, YONG He-ming also described:

The early dictionary-makers hardly had any guidance from the linguistic theories, and knew nothing about the application of the phonetic knowledge. They solved the problems about dictionary-making only by their acute insight and subjective perception, surmising the meaning of the words and their approximate pronunciation, so mistakes were unavoidable. The early glossaries and dictionaries were characterized by their comprehensive lemmas, monotonous functions, poor information, and messy structures. (YONG He-ming 2006: 37)

Dictionary compilation is a part of cultural activities, leaving behind a long history. In this respect, Hartmann remarked, "In Europe, the lexicographic tradition goes back to early Greek glossaries in the fifth pre-Christian century, in Mesopotamia, southern India and China even further." (Hartmann 2005: 6) From these early glossaries, we can find the prototype of modern dictionaries and their functions. But the first actual English dictionary did not appear until the 17th century. For a long time in the past, the dictionary making had escaped from the academic research. In the 18th century in the West, lexicographers began to talk about the quality of dictionaries, and "it is reported that Albert Way was the first scholar to study the compilation of English dictionaries. His research subject was *The Promptorium Parvulorum Sive Cleric rum*, an English-Latin bilingual dictionary, which can be dated back to 1843." (YONG He-ming 2006: 83) The case in China is much later, as is pointed out by LI Er-gang. He remarked:

In China, there was almost vacant in dictionary theories before 1970s, and therefore, there was no talk about the characteristics of dictionaries. In 1979, *Ci Hai*, a grand comprehensive dictionary, was republished, which embodied the painstaking effort and the wisdom of a new-generation scholars. In summing up their experience of compilation, scholars began to generalize the principle knowledge about dictionaries. (LI Er-gang 2002: 1)

What LI Er-gang said is not completely correct, as we can easily find there is a lot of literature before 1970s about the dictionary compilation, which always appeared in the preface, postscript, appendices or stylistic notes of the dictionaries. Maybe we can say that modern dictionary theories did not come into being until 1970s, for they must be based on modern linguistics.

YONG He-ming argued, "The compilation of dictionaries originated directly or indirectly from relevant language studies, the achievements of which were completely or partially employed in the dictionary-making." (Yong He-ming 2006: 80) In 1898, the publication of MA Jian-zhong's *Ma Shi Wen Tong* (《马氏文通》) marked the naissance of Chinese linguistics. After that, YONG He-ming pointed out:

Grammar, lexics, phonetics, semantics, dialectology and the other research achievements of the branched studies of linguistics were increasingly used in the practice of dictionary-making and theoretical studies, which had set the foundation for the development of the lexicographical theories. (YONG He-ming 2006: 573)

From the forties of the 20th century, the linguists and lexicographers began to show interest in each other's profession. In this respect, Béjoint described as follows:

The many conferences on lexicography are attended by linguists as well as lexicographers: the first was held in Bloomington, Indiana, in 1960, and it was followed by many others. The first to be held on English territory was organized by R. Hartmann in 1979 at Exeter. Several well-known linguists (William Labov, Uriel Weinreich, James McCawley, Charles Fillmore, Dwight Bolinger, Randolph Quirk, Anna Wierzbicka, etc.) have published papers or books on dictionaries. Some have even been closely involved in the compilation of dictionaries: David Crystal, A. C. Gimson, John Sinclair, Igor Meľčuk, etc. At the same time, many practicing lexicographers are also expert metalexicographers or linguists: Patrick Hanks, Robert Ilson, etc. (Béjoint 2002: 172)

Lexicography and linguistics are now inextricably mixed. With the help of linguistics, lexicographers have come to get a deep knowledge of the content, function, form and the other aspects of the dictionary, which have developed into lexicographical theories. In the latter half of the 20th century, lexicography witnessed its great progress. Modern linguistics and many other disciplines gave lexicography a great momentum of development. In addition to many kinds of dictionaries and academic papers about dictionary, several specialized journals of lexicography were launched, a large number of specialized conferences organized, and some special series of metalexicographical books were published.

YONG He-ming pointed out that "the early lexicographical studies is mainly confined to the partial and micro-level studies of the dictionary, e.g. the compilation skills, a certain section of the compilation process, or the comments or studies of a particular dictionary." (YONG He-ming 2006: 84) But in 1971, Ladislav Zgusta had his monograph of *Manual of Lexicography* published, which is generally regarded as the starting point of lexicography as a relatively independent discipline. In 1989, Franz Josef Hausmann et al compiled the dictionary of *An International Encyclopedia*

of Lexicography, which meant that lexicography had made a great leap forward. In 2001, R.R.K. Hartmann and Gregory James published their *Dictionary of Lexicography*, which elucidated from the historical perspective that lexicography is not a dependency on linguistics but an independent sui generis, liquidating various vague understandings of the disciplinary nature of lexicography, putting forward new ideas about the classification of dictionaries, emphasizing the participation of the users in the dictionary compilation, and illustrating the influence of the publishing media and carriers of dictionaries on the development of the dictionary. Meanwhile, *Dictionary of Lexicography* has played an active role in normalizing the lexicographical terms.

LÜ Shu-xiang's *Modern Chinese Dictionary* pioneered the stylistic layout of Chinese dictionaries, which set a good model for the later dictionaries. The Chinese academia of lexicography began to discuss the nature and the theoretical framework of the lexicography as an independent discipline from the end of 1970s. The periodical of Lexicographical Studies issued some important papers about lexicography, e.g. YANG Zu-xi's "Preliminary Discussion of Lexicography" (1979) and "Preliminary Probe into the Basic Problems of Lexicography" (1988), and HUANG Jian-hua's "On Lexicography" (1983, 1985). What's more, a group of lexicographical monographs were published. In 1982, HU Ming-yang had his *A Survey of Lexicography* published by the People's University of China Press. In 1987, HUANG Jian-hua's *Studies in Lexicography* was published by Shanghai Dictionary Press. These two books set the foundation for the lexicographical studies in China. In 1992, Xuelin Press published YANG Zu-xi and XU Qing-kai's *Dictionary of Lexicography*, in which the authors discussed the dictionary in terms of such aspects as the history, typology, function, and so on, promoting the development of lexicography and normalizing the lexicographical terms. The 20th century boasts its importance in the development of lexicography, home and abroad. In terms of the case in China alone, YONG He-ming wrote:

The lexicographical theories of the 20th –century China had developed from a shallow state to a deep one, from the sporadic to the systematic, from the empirical to the theoretical, getting larger and larger in scale, and deeper and deeper in depth. During the 20th century in the mainland of China 7 357 academic papers on lexicography were published. In the last two decades of the 20th century the Chinese lexicography got its summit, and stepped into the 21st century with a forceful momentum. (YONG He-ming 2006: 572)

Against the academic background of interdisciplinary studies, lexicography has been influenced by some other disciplines, and it has in turn influenced the other disciplines. The mutual influence will give an endless impetus to the development of lexicography. The development of the other disciplines can also absorb some inspiration from lexicography. The real meaning of lexicography lies in its study of the dictionary compilation and use to improve the quality of the dictionaries, making the metalexicography and dictionary practice fused into a systematic and scientific organic body. And "the role of the metalexicographer is neither merely to describe nor idly to criticize; it is to help the lexicographer put current practice into perspective, and eventually participate in the improvement of dictionaries." (Béjoint 2002: 5)

B.   Some Characteristics of Lexicography

i) *Multidisciplinary Integration*

Hartmann and James once wrote:

Lexicography, often misconceived as a branch of linguistics, is sui generis, a field whose endeavors are informed by the theories and practices of information science, literature, publishing, philosophy, and historical, comparative and applied linguistics. Sister disciplines, such as terminology, lexicology, encyclopedia work, bibliography, terminography, indexing, information technology, librarianship, media studies, translation and teaching, as well as the neighboring disciplines of history, education and anthropology, provide the wider setting within which lexicographers have defined and developed their field. (Hartmann & James 2000: F16)

With the development of the lexicography, people are now well aware of that it can not further its theory and practice without the relevant disciplines. But we know that for a long time in the past the dictionary research had just taken the dictionary-making as a kind of pure linguistic behavior, which was divorced from the other disciplines. The compilation of a dictionary was merely dependent upon the compilers' philological awareness. The relationship between the dictionary and social culture was often ignored. The role of the dictionary in the fields of culture and society was not paid enough attention to. The chief function of the dictionary was generally considered to record, normalize, or spread the language or a particular science. Historically, in the past the awareness of interdisciplinary studies could not creep into the minds of the dictionary researchers, as the physical and cultural conditions were relatively poor. In addition, the interdisciplinary study of a particular subject was really rare in the past, so people had no inspiration to deal with the dictionary with an integrative perspective.

Historically speaking, no dictionary is monotonous in the coverage of its contents. In this regard, YONG He-ming remarked:

The range covered by the contents of the early dictionaries went beyond the definitions of the words. It almost involved every aspect of the human life, ranging from the usage of words, the diction in poetry, vernacular vocabulary, technical vocabulary, law vocabulary, to the other special vocabularies, greatly meeting people's demands in business, law, religion, administration and their everyday life. (YONG He-ming 2006: 37)

The integration of the contents of the dictionary demanded the integration of different compilation theories. Against this background, the modern linguistics triggered the trend. The interdisciplinary characteristic of modern lexicography

means that lexicography should not be confined to the compilation skills only, but be taken as sui generis involving linguistics, anthropology, sociology, pragmatics, cognitive theory, translatology, computer science and so on. New disciplines are emerging constantly, so the perspectives to study the dictionary are various, and the contents and types of the dictionary are increasingly richened. For example, at the end of 1940s the Americans began to study the machine translation, which during the following decades encouraged many scholars to engage in relevant research. As a consequence, in 1970s people invented the electronic dictionary, which was based on the achievements made in the machine translation. This can be called the outcome of computer science integrated with lexicography. In China, modern lexicography, as YONG He-ming said:

Not only takes in the essence of the traditional dictionary theories and the foreign linguistics, but also the nutrients from the contemporary Chinese linguistics, psychology, pedagogics, communication studies, cognitive theories, information science, computer science, and the social and natural sciences, broadening the research fields of lexicography. The combination between lexicography and the neighboring disciplines is increasingly strengthened, which has produced many branch disciplines, practical or theoretical, e.g. Communicative Lexicography, Cognitive Lexicography, Computer Lexicography, and so on. (YONG He-ming 2006: 605)

Integrating the lexicography and translatology, the translatological dictionary, a kind of specialized dictionary, has emerged as a new academic field in China. The production of the translatological dictionaries (TD) is a logical outcome of the interdisciplinary studies. Nobody can say that there will be no new kinds of dictionaries in the future. Historically speaking, we can say that the development of lexicography lies in its integration with and constant reference to the neighboring disciplines.

ii) *Open Perspective*

The compilation skills of the dictionary, the matters covered by the dictionary, and the presentation media of the dictionary are always in evolution, so no one can put a full stop to them. And many other aspects about dictionary will also change with the time passing. Therefore, the perspectives in the study of the dictionary must be open.

The presentation media are in evolution. The changes of the publishing media or carriers of the dictionary have changed, to some extent, people's concept about the dictionary-making and dictionary research. In general, the dictionary is taken as a kind of reference book, which collects the words, deals with the words respectively and organizes the words in a certain order. But how to collect the words, deal with the words, and organize the words is, to some extent, dependent upon the objective physical conditions, which may determine the characteristics of the dictionary. WEI Xiang-qing et al described:

Since the ancient Chinese invented the paper and printing, the publishing media and carriers of the dictionary have experienced about four historical phases. The first phase refers to the handwork tradition of the compilation, which is characterized by the "hand" and "paper"; the second phase refers to printing period, which is characterized by the "fire" and "lead"; the third phase refers to the times of computer, which is characterized by the "light" and "electricity"; the fourth phase refers to the new era of network, which is characterized by the "internet". Every improvement of the media and carriers will always facilitate the spread of the dictionary culture, especially in its breadth and depth. (WEI Xiang-qing et al 2001: 56)

The application of the computer takes a tremendous change to the dictionary compilation and research, which dramatically influences every phase of the dictionary-making. Different from the paper dictionaries, the electronic dictionaries are characterized by the integration of the multi-media and the super interlinkage techniques, making the dictionaries rich in sound, color, picture and the approaches of wording. The on-line dictionaries, which are made up by the language of HTML, take the network as the presentation medium, and they are characterized by the abundant resources, user-friendliness, convenient retrieval, and interactive operation.

WEI Xiang-qing et al argued:

The evolution of the media and carriers of the dictionary not only exerts revolutionary influence on every phase of the compilation and publication of the dictionaries, but also plays an important role in changing people's concept on the reference approach of the dictionary, which have produced new problems, and developed some new research areas, thus enriching the contents of lexicography. (ibid)

The progress of the presentation media of the dictionary does not necessarily mean that the latest medium is the best for all kinds of dictionaries. The paper dictionaries, the electronic dictionaries, and the on-line dictionaries can go forward abreast, as none of them can completely replace the others in certain aspects. Each kind of the dictionary has its strongpoints and shortcomings. They can be mutually complementary in functions. With the development of science and technology, the presentation methods of the dictionary will be doomed to renovate, so it must be open for the researchers to deal with the presentation media or carriers of the dictionaries.

The compilation method is developing all the time. As for the traditional dictionaries, the mountainous materials were often collected by hand, making the dictionary-making a kind of drudgery. With the computer used in the compilation, the compilation methods have been greatly changed. YONG He-ming pointed out:

The dictionary culture of the world has realized the second substantial leap forward with the application of the computer techniques and corpus in the compilation of dictionaries. The electronic technique has penetrated into every inner step of the dictionary compilation and research. It is more direct and efficient than the printing, which can only improve the outer conditions of the dictionary-making, in improving the compilation efficiency, the scientificalness and

normalization of the dictionaries and their compilation. This can push the dictionary culture of the world to a higher status. (YONG He-ming 2006: 66)

At the annual conference of the third session of the Chinese Association for Lexicography, WANG Yao-nan said that the corpus building and the application of electronic techniques turned to be one of the important agenda at the lexicographical conferences, which had produced an active effect. To apply the electronic corpus to the dictionary theory and practice has proved a trend of lexicography. For example, by using the corpus technique, the Collins has published such dictionaries as *Collins COBUILD Dictionary of the English Language*, *Collins COBUILD Essential Dictionary*, *Collins COBUILD Learner's Dictionary*, *Collins COBUILD English Learner's Dictionary*, *Collins COBUILD Student's Dictionary, International Edition*, *Collins COBUILD Dictionary of Idioms*, and *Collins COBUILD Dictionary of Phrasal Verbs*. The role of the computer is so important in the contemporary dictionary-making that some lexicographers even put forward a new interdisciplinary subject of Computational Lexicography, which takes linguistics and lexicography as the theoretical basis, and the computer science, computer linguistics, and the corpus linguistics as the technical basis. In the future, the techniques of the dictionary-making borrowed from the computer science and other relevant advanced sciences will be unlimited.

The subjects covered by the dictionary will be unlimited. At the early stage, lexicography was considered as a branch of linguistics, as it directly adopted many theories of linguistics. We may even say there would no lexicography without linguistics. Today, many linguistic theories are still very useful to lexicography. In the West, linguistic theories began to be used in the compilation of dictionaries in the 19th century, but it is in the 20th century that the modern linguistic achievements began to be used in the compilation of dictionaries. YONG He-ming remarked, "From the middle period of the 20th century, the lexicographical academia have theoretically and systematically probed into the application of linguistic studies in the lexicographical theories and practice." (YONG He-ming 2006: 594) For example, CHEN Chu-xiang's "Comparative Linguistics and Bilingual Lexicography"(1992), ZHANG Yi-hua and HUANG Jian-hua's "Effects of Linguistic Theories upon Lexical Definitions" (2000), HU Tao's **"**On Linguistics and Dictionary-making" (2003) and so on discussed the close relationship between linguistics and lexicography from different perspectives. In addition, in 2004 Shanghai Dictionary Press published WANG Fu-fang's monograph of *Current Linguistics and Lexicographic Innovation*, which further talked about the various relations between the dictionary-making and linguistics.

Interdisciplinary study of lexicography has been always on the plateau since the end of the 20th century. Let's take the case in China for example. ZHANG Bo-ran's monograph of *Essays on Bilingual Lexicographical Studies* (2001) talks about the research and compilation of bilingual dictionaries from the perspectives of cognitive linguistics, prototype theory, cultural studies, philosophical theories, and corpus research. LI Ming and ZHOU Jing-hua's monograph of *An Introduction to Bilingual Lexicography* (2002) involves the application of corpus in the compilation of bilingual dictionaries. Integrating the communication theories and social culture, YONG He-ming's *Lexicography from a Communicative Perspective* (2003) puts the users into the framework of communicative theories about dictionaries, probing into the lexicographical problems from an integrative perspective. The content of ZENG Dong-jing's *Studies of Bilingual Dictionaries* (2003) covers a wide range of topics: the history of bilingual dictionary, compilation of the bilingual dictionary, definition and citation, corpus, culture, pragmatics, lexis, translation, dictionary criticism, readers and dictionaries, and so on. In her book of *Studies of the Translated Meaning of Bilingual Dictionaries* (2005), WEI Xiang-qing probes into the translated meaning of the bilingual dictionaries by integrating the studies of semantics, bilingual lexicography, translation studies, and receptive reflection theory. In 2008, Sun Ying-chun had his monograph of *On Translation and compilation of Scientific Dictionaries* published, in which the author discusses the translation and compilation of the scientific dictionaries in a scientific, systematic way by the integration of lexicography and translatology. The list of the various perspectives to deal with the dictionaries, I think, will be endless.

In 2005, the Chinese Association for Lexicography held a conference in Guangzhou, at which Huang Jianhua made a statement like this: with the application of the new linguistic achievements and computer techniques to the dictionary research and making, the compilation, publication, and research of Chinese bilingual dictionaries would certainly present an interdisciplinary, multi-perspective, and multi-dimensional character. His words have now come true. Nowadays, the translatological dictionaries (TD) are a kind of new research subject both to translatology and lexicography.

iii) *Practice Orientation*

The dictionary practice or making is very important to lexicography, as it determines the existent meaning of the dictionary theories. All the dictionary theories should aim at improving the quality of the dictionaries, and making the dictionaries practical. YONG He-ming described:

The dictionaries are getting more and more practical, and experts from various fields are increasingly joining in the dictionary compilation and even in the dictionary research. For example, the famous scientists QIAN Xue-sen, YU Guang-yuan, and so on joined in the entry-writing of the large-size dictionaries, and time after time wrote articles expressing their original opinions about the dictionary compilation. (YONG He-ming 2006: 579-580)

To the common people, the dictionary is a good friend in their study and lives. People have well understood the functions of the dictionary to spread knowledge, to instruct, and to solve the problems. In the 21st century, people will have a higher expectation on the dictionary in terms of its variety, quality, typology, and presentation means. There will

be a better market for the dictionaries, and the dictionaries will be doomed to be diversified. XIA Nan-qiang remarked:

The dictionary is a kind of cultural commodity, and its compilation is preconditioned by the users' needs. Due to the division of the social work, there have formed various user groups. Their demands for the cultural knowledge naturally differ from one another. To study the users and to satisfy their tastes undoubtedly constitute an important aspect in the compilation and publication of the dictionaries. (XIA Nan-qiang 2003: 16)

The user perspective is one of the important factors to make the dictionaries practical. The purpose of the compilers, the function of the dictionaries, and the need of the users should be connected closely. Different users may need different types of dictionaries, and the function of the dictionaries lies in the service of different users.

The practice-oriented characteristic of the dictionaries can also lie in the normalization of the dictionary research, especially the lexicographical terms. For a long time, the normalization of the lexicographical terms has been in a kind of spontaneous state. Sometimes people adhere to the precedent terms, and sometimes they formulate new ones. The development of dictionary research and practice makes it necessary to normalize the lexicographical terms. By the reference to the ISO 19751-1973 "dictionary compilation codes", in 1989 the Chinese State Bureau of Technical Supervision approved the "dictionary compilation codes" of GB 11617-89 as a national standard, and from the following year it came into force. In addition, in 1992 the Chinese Association for Lexicography approved the "basic terms for dictionary compilation" as an international standard. These standards have played a very important role in normalizing the lexicographical terms.

The specialized dictionaries have much clearer purposes in directing the social practice. The richer the social practice is, the richer the specialized dictionaries will be. In terms of the importance of the specialized dictionaries, XU Shi-yi argued:

The specialized dictionaries are important tools to consult the scientific and cultural knowledge. The specialized dictionaries are very rich in their types, involving almost all the scientific and cultural fields. A specialized dictionary of a discipline, especially of a big discipline tends to reflect the level of scientific research within the discipline. The scientific level of a country can be seen, to a certain extent, from the development of its specialized dictionaries. (XU Shi-yi 1995: 97)

In addition, the dictionaries also play an important role in the cultural communication. The intercultural communication between China and the foreign countries is becoming more and more frequent. Against this background, it is necessary for China to know about the outside world, and the outside world to know about China. The various dictionaries can facilitate the cultural communication, and bridge the cultural gaps. To make a comprehensive survey of the development course of the Chinese dictionaries, we can find out the close relationship between the dictionary-making and social demands. The history of the dictionary is just a history to serve the society.

IV. TRANSLATOLOGICAL DICTIONARIES

The multidisciplinary integration of lexicography elucidates that modern dictionary making or research can not be dealt with from any single discipline. The interdisciplinary study of the dictionary suits with the trend of modern learning. The translatological dictionaries (TD) are just the outcome of the integration of lexicography and translatology. As for the "open perspectives", I mainly think that the perspectives to study the dictionaries should be various and endless, so the TD, a new dictionary type, must be reasonable in their existence. By "practice orientation", I mean that all the dictionaries should be practice-oriented, as they are used either to describe people's practice or to normalize people's practice. The naissance of the TD can meet people's demands in their translation research or practice.

Comparatively, the TD are much younger, with a short history of more than two decades. Therefore, the study of translatological dictionaries (STD) is too young to arouse enough attention from the scholars. As a matter of fact, the translatological dictionaries are produced from the integration of translation theories and lexicographical ones. Theoretically, the emergence of some influential translatological dictionaries can well represent the maturity and independence of translation studies as a discipline. The year of 1988 met the first publication of a Chinese translatological dictionary—*A Dictionary of Chinese Translators*. Up to now, there have appeared about 20 translatological dictionaries in the world, among which 4 are generally considered as the most important in China. These four dictionaries are *A Companion for Chinese Translators* (1997) mainly compiled by LIN Huang-tian, *Aspects of Translation* (1999) by SUN Ying-chun, *Dictionary of Translation Studies* (1997) by Mark Shuttleworth & Moira Cowie and *Routledge Encyclopedia of Translation Studies* (1998) by Mona Baker.

To probe into the compilation theories of the TD, in 2001, SUN Ying-chun wrote an article of "A Brief Exposition on the Compilation of Comprehensive Dictionaries of Translatology" published by Shandong Foreign Languages Journal, which pioneered the STD. From then on, many Chinese scholars have gone in for the STD, dealing with the translatological dictionaries in terms of the nature, methodology, typology, structure, function, criticism and so forth. The STD aims at systematically dealing with the translatological knowledge by means of the form of the dictionary. In fact, we can conduct the translation studies from various perspectives, since translatology is open in nature. Gideon Toury once said:

Each of these question areas is legitimate, as well as interesting; and each one of us may choose an area to his or her own liking. Still, it should be realized that they belong to different domains of Translation Studies, and it simply won't do to mix them all in one neutral, or neutralizing bag. (Anderman & Rogers 2006: 18)

As a consequence, there should be various schools of scholars in the translation studies, some turning to descriptive studies, some explanatory, and some normative. The STD should be regarded as one of these various schools. The translatological dictionaries are precious resources for the theoretical research of the TD. Professor SUN Ying-chun's article of *On the Compilation of Comprehensive Translatological Dictionaries* triggered the study of the TD in China. From then on, the academic study of the TD has met its five national conferences: Yantai conference in 2002, Weihai conference in 2004, Shanghai conference in 2005, Dalian conference in 2007, and Weihai conference in 2009. In September 2006 *A Doctoral Anthology of Translatological Dictionary Studies*, which was chiefly edited by SUN Ying-chun and assisted by HUANG Xi-ling and ZHAO Wei, was published by Tianjin Education Press. In April 2007 Professor ZENG Dong-jing's monograph *Theoretical Research of the Compilation of Translatological Dictionaries* was published by Shanghai University Press. In 2009, SUN Ying-chun's monograph *On Translatological Dictionaries* is published by Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press, in which the author mainly discusses the TD in terms of its nature, function, typology, compilation principle, macrostructure, microstructure and so on, and discusses the STD in terms of its the research object and structure, disciplinary location, value and evaluation, methodology and so on. With the deepening in the STD, the name and nature of the TD have been gradually established, and the knowledge of the TD has been improved from the perception to reason.

REFERENCES

[1]   Anderman, G. & M. Rogers. (2006). Translation Today: Trends and Perspectives. Beijing: Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press.
[2]   Baker, M. (2004). Routledge Encyclopedia of Translation Studies. Shanghai: Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press.
[3]   Béjoint, Henri. (2002). Modern Lexicography: An Introduction. Beijing: Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press.
[4]   Bo-ran ZHANG, Xiang-qing WEI. (2001). Essays on Bilingual Lexicographical Studies. Nanjing: Jiangsu Education Press.
[5]   Dong-jing ZENG. (2003). Studies of Bilingual Dictionaries. Shanghai: Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press.
[6]   Dong-jing ZENG. (2007). Theoretical Research of the Compilation of Translatological Dictionaries. Shanghai: Shanghai University Press.
[7]   Er-gang LI. (2002). Introduction to Modern Lexicography. Shanghai: Chinese Dictionary Press.
[8]   Hartmann, R.R.K. (2005). Teaching and Researching Lexicography. Beijing: Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press.
[9]   Hartmann, R.R.K. & G. James. (2000). Dictionary of Lexicography. Beijing: Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press.
[10] He-ming YONG. (2003). Lexicography from a Communicative Perspective. Shanghai: Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press.
[11] He-ming YONG et al. (2006). On the History of Chinese Dictionary. Beijing: Zhonghua Book Company Press.
[12] Huang-tian Lin. (1997). A Companion for Chinese Translators. Wuhan: Hubei Education Press.
[13] Jian-hua HUANG. (2001). On Dictionary. Shanghai: Shanghai Lexicographical Publishing House.
[14] Ming-yang HU et al. (1982). Introduction to Lexicography. Beijing: People's University of China Press.
[15] Ming LI, Jing-hua ZHOU. (2002). An Introduction to Bilingual Lexicography. Shanghai: Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press.
[16] Nan-qiang XIA. (2003). Dictionary Compilation Should Advance With the Times. *Editor's Friend* 3.
[17] Shuttleworth, M. & M. Cowie. (2004). Dictionary of Translation Studies. Shanghai: Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press.
[18] Shi-yi XU. (1995). Social Demands and the Dictionary Compilation. *Lexicographical Studies* 4.
[19] Xiang-qing WEI et al. (2001). New Horizon of Lexicographical Studies in the New Century. *Foreign Languages and Their Teaching* 4.
[20] Xiang-qing WEI.(2005). Definition Research of the Bilingual Dictionaries. Shanghai: Shanghai Translation Publishing House.
[21] Ying-chun SUN. (1999). Aspects of Translation. Beijing: Chinese Foreign Languages Press.
[22] Ying-chun SUN. (2001). A Brief Exposition on the Compilation of Comprehensive Dictionaries of Translatology. *Shandong Foreign Languages Teaching* 1.
[23] Ying-chun SUN. (2005). 2004 Anthology of Translatological Dictionary and Translation Theory Studies. Tianjin: Tianjin Education Press.
[24] Ying-chun SUN. (2006). A Doctoral Anthology of Translatological Dictionary Studies. Tianjin: Tianjin Education Press.
[25] Ying-chun SUN. (2008). On Translation and Compilation of Scientific Dictionaries. Beijing: China Translation & Publishing Corporation.
[26] Ying-chun SUN. (2009). On Translatological Dictionaries. Shanghai: Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press.
[27] Zu-xi YANG, Qing-kai XU. (1992). Specialized Lexicography. Chengdu: Sichuan Lexicographical Publishing House.

Lei Gao was born in Lianyungang, China in 1975. He is currently a PH.D. candidate in translatology in Shandong University, China. He is currently a lecturer in the School of Foreign Languages, Huaiyin Normal University, Huai'an, China. His research interests include translation studies and studies of translatological dictionaries.

Effectiveness of University English Preparatory Programs: Eskisehir Osmangazi University Foreign Languages Department English Preparatory Program[*]

Ümit Özkanal
Foreign Languages Department, Eskişehir Osmangazi University, Turkey
Email: ozkanal@gmail.com

Ayhan G. Hakan
Open Education Faculty, Anadolu University, Turkey

Abstract—**This study aimed to investigate the effectiveness of the English preparatory program based on students' opinions at Eskişehir Osmangazi University Foreign Languages Department. The participants of the study were 129 students who studied at the department in 2006-2007 academic year and finished the program successfully. In this study, questionnaire technique containing Likert type and open-ended questions were used and the quantitative and qualitative data obtained via the questionnaire were analyzed accordingly. In the analysis of quantitative data frequency, percentage and arithmetic mean were studied with the help of program called SPSS. The qualitative data were analyzed with descriptive analysis technique. The findings of the study stated that the students were content with the program, the program was successful in teaching English and the instructors were good at teaching. On the other hand, the students also stressed that the physical conditions of the prep school were not satisfactory and an ESP (English for Specific Purposes) course be implemented in the program since these were seen as the deficiencies of the program in total.**

Index Terms— **foreign language teaching, English preparatory program, English for specific purposes**

I. INTRODUCTION

Nowadays, technological developments are taking place in almost every area. This development and changes bring about cultural changes, too. In this process, mother tongue alone is not enough for communication among individuals, so people feel they have to learn a foreign language (Özdemir, 2006, p. 28; Braine, 2005, p. 13). Foreign languages, especially English, together with expansion of the concept of world citizenship, today are gaining more importance and it has almost become the world's common language (Braine, 2005, p. 13).

English, which has become the most widely used language in almost every area of our age, continues to have an importance as a world-wide language. In our country, English is literally regarded as an equivalent for the term 'foreign language.' Indeed, the majority of university preparatory schools or preparatory programs offer English preparatory education.

A. Foreign Language Teaching

There are many languages in the world and increasing international relations make it difficult for nations to communicate through only their own mother tongue. Therefore the need for learning languages of other countries is increasing. The number of languages learned as foreign languages is limited. A country's political and economic situation is the most significant one among the factors that makes it a requirement for the individuals from other nations to learn that language as a foreign language (Demirel, 1987, p. 5). Languages of the countries dominating the world in all aspects are learned by people of other nations.

Language teaching can be seen as a kind of problem-solving activity. Just like the social environments it takes place in, language teaching is a phenomenon which is constantly changing and challenging the traditional thinking methods (Widdowson, 1990, pp 2-7).

An examination of the historical development of language education in the 20th century shows that the focus of the language teaching approaches are based on changes in teaching methods (Richards, 2001, p. 2).

Language teaching is defined as art since it is an activity which can occur as a result of practices performed through very careful observations and patience and requires pretty high a level of skills; and it is defined as science because it

---

[*] This study was reproduced based upon a doctoral thesis with the title Evaluation of *Eskişehir Osmangazi University Foreign Languages Department and A model Recommendation*.

includes linguistics which provides scientific information about the language taught and can promote the efficiency of language teaching concept (Demirel, 2003, p. 1). Foreign language teaching can be defined as the process in which a language with other concepts, structure and grammar rules different from mother tongue is taught. The success of the foreign language teaching realized in the school environment is known to be significantly related to the principles applied, because these methods and techniques constitute an entire system designed to transfer grammatical structures and rules processed within a particular context (Widdowson, 1990, p. 190).

Foreign language teaching has experienced many significant changes over the years. The language teaching methods before the 20th century faced the dilemma between an approach focusing on speaking and understanding the language and another approach focusing on the analysis of the language, grammatical rules of the language in other words. After 20th century, different approaches methods and techniques about language teaching were developed. Approach in this context is regarded as the main framework including methods and techniques. While approach is considered as a phenomenon that reflects a particular model in language teaching, method is defined as a series of processes and technique as classroom instrument and efficiency (Celce-Murcia, 1991, pp. 3-5).

It is observed that foreign language teaching is seen as one of the most important issues in our country. It is reported that despite all the effort and investment, the desired level cannot be achieved in foreign language education in Turkey (Işık, 2008). It is also pointed out that students receive a total of 6 years of foreign language education in secondary school and high school, but they still can not be effective and competent in foreign language (Tosun, 2006).There have been studies about what should be done for a more efficient foreign language teaching and some foreign language education policy has gone through some changes. For example, foreign language courses have been put in the programs beginning from primary school fourth grade. Foreign language preparatory programs in secondary education have been abolished and foreign language training has been spread to the entire program (Ministry of Education Regulations, 2006).

The medium of instruction at many universities in our country is English and there is an increase in demand for the universities whose language of instruction is English (Kırkgöz, 2005). Foreign language teaching at universities is generally carried out through preparatory programs. All of foundation (private) universities and most of state universities in our country usually offer foreign language preparatory programs lasting for an academic year. After students successfully complete these programs, they continue their education in departments they have been qualified to study at.

B. Eskişehir Osmangazi University Foreign Languages Department English Preparatory Program

In universities there are preparatory schools, schools of foreign languages and preparatory departments offering foreign languages education to solve the problem of foreign language in Turkey and to bring individuals up to an adequate level in terms of foreign languages. These preparatory units usually provide one-year education and some have level system. Some of these levels systems make it possible for students to attend the courses in their departments even if it the middle of an academic year, while some others follow entire-year systems requiring that students attend preparatory programs for at least an entire academic year and go to their departments after they prove successful.

Eskişehir Osmangazi University Foreign Languages Department is a unit of the university which offers foreign language education in a preparatory program. Operating as a unit under the authority of the Rector's Office, the department cannot accept all new students for the program due to lack of enough staff; it can directly accept only students of Electrical and Electronics Engineering and Computer Engineering departments for completing English preparatory program is a pre-requirement and there is a quota for other departments.

The aim of the ESOGU English Preparatory Program is to have the students admitted to university's departments with voluntary or compulsory preparatory education acquire a level of English through which they can understand what they read or listen to in their field in English, perform translations into Turkish and to express themselves by speaking or writing (ESOGÜ, 2005).

II. PROBLEM

Although Eskişehir Osmangazi University Foreign Languages Department English Preparatory Program has been serving since 1995-1996 academic year, it hasn't been subject to any program evaluation and development process or any study to be conducted into the program's purpose, content, learning and teaching process and dimensions of evaluation up to now. It is necessary to determine whether this program meets requirements or not because this program is significant for students' success in the program they are supposed to attend after preparatory education. This study originated from the need to determine the effectiveness of Eskişehir Osmangazi University English Preparatory Program.

III. AIM

The aim of this study is to determine effectiveness of Eskişehir Osmangazi University English Preparatory Program based on student opinions. To this end, the answers to these questions were sought:
What do students think about

- the reasons for attending Eskişehir Osmangazi University English Preparatory Program, the importance of language skills and their opinions concerning the level at which they possess these language skills?
- the level Eskişehir Osmangazi University English Preparatory Program has them acquire the desired qualities?
- the effectiveness of Eskişehir Osmangazi University English Preparatory Program?

IV. METHOD

A. Research Model

This study is a descriptive research conducted to determine the existing status. Research data were collected through survey model using both quantitative and qualitative measurement.

Screening models are research approaches aimed at describing the situations in the past or existing at present. Individuals, objects or events subject to research subjects are described within their own conditions as they already are. The most important consideration here is to make sure that phenomena are observed without trying to change the conditions (Karasar, 2002, p.77).

The study data were obtained through questionnaire prepared by the researcher. Closed-ended questions as well as open-ended ones were included in the questionnaire. Thus, both quantitative and qualitative data were collected together through the questionnaire.

B. Universe and Sample

The universe of the study is the first-year students of Eskişehir Osmangazi University studying at the departments whose medium of instruction is English. No sampling was done due to the accessibility and reasonable size of the study universe. Accordingly, a total of 129 students, 88 males and 41 females, who completed Eskisehir Osmangazi University English Preparatory Program successfully in 2006-2007 academic year and studying in their first year at the time of the research at Faculty of Engineering and Architecture Departments of Electrical and Electronics Engineering and Computer Engineering and Faculty of Arts and Science and Faculty of Economic and Administrative Sciences participated in the study.

C. Data and Collection

A questionnaire form designed by the researcher was employed in the research as an instrument for data collection. The questionnaire was split into three sections. The first part included the participating students' personal information, the second part included questions about the level at which the English Preparatory Program have students acquire the desired qualities and the third section included questions concerning the effectiveness of the English Preparatory Program.

D. Data Analysis and Interpretation

The data collected through the study were analyzed according to the characteristics of the data obtained. Frequency, percentage and arithmetic mean were used to analyze the quantitative data collected by means of the closed-ended questions in the questionnaire. Level of significance was taken as .05 for the statistical analyses performed in the research. Also, SPSS package program was employed for data analysis (the Statistical Packet for Social Sciences).

The qualitative data collected via open-ended questions in the questionnaire were analyzed with the descriptive analysis techniques. Descriptive analysis was conducted in four stages. The first stage is the stage of creating a framework for descriptive analysis. At this stage, a framework was established by taking the research questions, the type of qualitative research method and the conceptual dimension of the research into consideration. At the second stage, how to arrange data in the form of themes according to the framework generated was identified. Data processing was carried out according to the thematic framework. At this stage the data were read, selected for identification purposes and were brought together in a meaningful and logical way. At the third stage, the stage of defining the findings, the data brought together in a meaningful way were clearly defined and supported with direct quotes. At the last stage, interpretation of the findings, described findings were explained associated with some suggestions and interpreted (Yildirim and Simsek 2004, pp.171-172).

To ensure reliability of data in data analysis, the obtained questionnaire responses were converted into "Interview Coding Keys" and were multiplied for 15 students. The researcher and another expert from the field independently read the interview records of 15 students and coded the appropriate corresponding options in "Interview Coding Keys" for the response of each question. After a set of "Interview Coding Keys" was created for each student, the consistency of the "Interview Coding Keys" filled in by the researcher and the expert was compared. After this process, every single response option covering the question item marked by the expert and the researcher was controlled and they were defined as "Agreement" or "Disagreement" among experts. When the researcher and the expert marked the same response option for a question, it was taken as "Agreement" and when they marked different options, it was taken as "Disagreement" and in this case the researcher's choice was taken into consideration.

The reliability of the study was determined by the "Agreement Percentage Formula" quoted from Croll (1986, p.152), Robson (1993, s 222), Bakeman and Gottman'dan (1997, p. 60) by Türnüklü (2000).

Na

P=   -------------------- X 100

NA+Nd

P: Percentage of Agreement   Na: Number of Agreement   Nd: Number of Disagreement

In Table 4 below, the reliability percentages of the questions converted into qualitative data coding keys by descriptive analysis technique based on the students' responses to open-ended questions in the questionnaire were listed in a descending order beginning with the highest reliability on top and the lowest at bottom.

TABLE 1
OPEN-ENDED QUESTIONS RELIABILITY PERCENTAGES

Questions	Reliability Percentages (%)
Question 4	97,2
Question 2	94,5
Question 3	94,5
Question 1	85,3
Total	92,8

In the reliability study of the "Interview Coding Key," the reliability was calculated as 85,3% in question 1 and 94,5% in questions 2 and 3. Having the highest reliability in the "Interview Coding Key", the reliability of question 4 was calculated as 97,2%. The average reliability for all of the questions was calculated as is 92,8%. According to these calculations, the research was considered to be reliable.

V. FINDINGS AND INTERPRETATION

This part of the study included the opinions of the first-year faculty students receiving education in English.

A. Students' Opinions about the Reasons for Attending the English Preparatory Program, the Importance of Language Skills and the Level They Think They Have Language Skills

1. The Reasons for Attending the English Preparatory Program

The opinions of the students involved in the research about the reasons for attending the English Preparatory Program are given in Table 2.

TABLE 2.
THE REASONS FOR ATTENDING THE ENGLISH PREPARATORY PROGRAM

Reason for Attending	f	%
To improve my English	34	26,3
Because it is compulsory in my department	89	68,9
Other	6	4,8
Total	129	100

As can be seen in Table 2, 68,9% of students stated that they attended the English Preparatory Program because the medium of instruction was English in their departments, 26,3% said they attended the program to improve their English and 4,6% indicated other reasons for enrollment in the program.

2. The Opinions of the Students Involved in the Research about the Importance of Language Skills

The opinions of the students involved in the research about the Importance of Language Skills were given in Table 3.

TABLE 3.
THE OPINIONS OF THE STUDENTS INVOLVED IN THE RESEARCH ABOUT THE IMPORTANCE OF LANGUAGE SKILLS

Skills	Very Important		Important		A Little Important		Unimportant		Total	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
Listening	86	66,6	41	31,7	1	0,7	1	0,7	129	100
Speaking	108	83,7	20	15,5	1	0,7	0	0,0	129	100
Reading	49	37,9	64	49,6	14	10,8	2	1,5	129	100
Writing	49	37,9	58	44,9	20	15,5	2	1,5	129	100

Table 3 shows that 66,6% of the students find listening very important; 31,7% find it important; 0,7% find it a little important and 0,7% think this skill is unimportant.

As for speaking skill, 83,7% of the students find speaking very important; 15,5% find it important; 0,7% find it a little important and no student thinks this skill is unimportant.

49,6% of the students regard reading as an important skill; 37,9% find it very important; 10,8% find it a little important and 1,5% think this skill is unimportant.

44,9% of the students think that writing is an important skill, 37,9% find it very important; 15,5% find it a little important and 1,5% think this skill is unimportant.

3. Students' Opinions about the Level They Think They Have Language Skills

The participating students' opinions about the level they think they have language skills were presented in Table 4.

TABLE 4.
STUDENTS' OPINIONS ABOUT THE LEVEL THEY THINK THEY HAVE LANGUAGE SKILLS

Skills	Very Good		Good		Medium		Low		Total	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
Listening	13	10,0	60	46,5	44	34,1	11	8,5	129	100
Speaking	3	2,3	38	29,4	64	49,6	22	17,0	129	100
Reading	18	13,9	79	61,2	28	21,7	3	2,3	129	100
Writing	9	6,9	74	57,3	38	29,4	7	5,4	129	100

As shown in Table 4, 46,5% of students think that they have a good level of listening skill while 34,1% think they have a moderate level of listening, 10% think they have a very good level and 8,5% think they have a low level.

49,6 % of students think that they have a moderate level of speaking skill while 29,4% think they have a good level of speaking, 17% think they have a low level and 2,3% think they have a very good level of speaking.

61,2 % of students think that they have a good level of reading skill while 21,7% think they have a moderate level of reading, 13,9% think they have a very good level and 2,3% think their reading level is low.

57,3 % of students think that they have a good level of writing skill while 29,4% think they have a moderate level of writing, 6,9% think they have a very good level and 5,4% think their writing level is low.

B. Students' Opinions about the Level at which the English Preparatory Program Has Them Acquire the Desired Qualities

Table 5 shows the students' opinions about the level at which the English Preparatory Program have them acquire the desired qualities.

Table 5 shows numerical and percentage distribution and the arithmetic averages related to the realization levels of the 20 skills as a result of the English Preparatory Program based on the opinions of the students who finished English Preparatory Program successfully and studying at their faculty. The arithmetic means indicating whether or not the expected language skills are efficiently achieved at the end of the English Preparatory education vary between 3,21 and 2,50.

According to these arithmetic means, it could be suggested that the skills statements were achieved at a "adequate" level since 19 out of 20 skill statements of English Skills proficiency level had an arithmetic mean greater than mean value of the scale (2,50). However, the arithmetic mean of one of the skill statements was found to be at the limit of the mean value of the scale. It could therefore be said that this skill statement was at the limit. According to the student opinions, this "at the limit" skill statement is "being able to make reports of presentations" (2,50).

According to these data, the overall arithmetic mean of English Skills proficiency level is 2,95. Because this mean is greater than the mean value of the scale (2,50), it could be concluded that the skills statements were achieved at a "adequate" level.

TABLE 5.
STUDENTS' OPINIONS ABOUT THE LEVEL AT WHICH THE ENGLISH PREPARATORY PROGRAM HAS THEM ACQUIRE THE DESIRED QUALITIES

Skills	Definitely Agree		Agree		Don't agree		Definitely don't agree		Total		Arithmetic Mean
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	X
I can ask instructors questions in English	32	25,2	71	55,9	21	16,5	3	2,3	127	100	3,04
I can answer questions asked in English	22	17,4	85	67,4	19	15,0	0	0,0	126	100	3,02
I can participate in activities in English	25	19,6	81	63,7	18	14,1	3	2,3	127	100	3,01
I can use English in lessons	12	9,6	59	47,2	52	41,6	2	1,6	125	100	2,65
I can read a text in English and understand its main idea	30	23,8	86	68,2	10	7,9	0	0,0	126	100	3,16
I can answer the questions about the text	22	17,4	90	71,4	13	10,3	1	0,7	126	100	3,06
I can read and summarize the text	19	15,0	85	66,9	19	14,9	4	3,1	127	100	2,94
I can read the text and paraphrase it	19	15,0	77	61,1	29	23,0	1	0,7	126	100	2,90
I can read and understand a text in English	35	28,0	83	66,4	5	4,0	2	1,6	125	100	3,21
I can understand instructors' speaking in English	31	24,4	86	67,7	9	7,0	1	0,7	127	100	3,16
I can understand listening materials	13	10,2	73	57,4	37	29,1	4	3,1	127	100	2,75
I can understand English presentations	20	15,8	91	72,2	12	9,5	3	2,3	126	100	3,02
I can understand English instructions	26	20,6	81	64,2	17	13,4	2	1,5	126	100	3,04
I can understand class discussions in English	17	13,3	96	75,5	11	8,6	3	2,3	127	100	3,00
I can take notes in English	16	12,6	66	51,9	37	29,1	8	6,3	127	100	2,71
I can write English paragraphs	20	15,8	80	63,4	23	18,2	3	2,3	126	100	2,93
I can make reports of presentations	10	7,9	49	38,8	61	48,4	6	4,7	126	100	2,50
I can summarize in English by writing	15	11,8	68	53,5	37	29,1	7	5,5	127	100	2,72
I can write English letters	23	18,1	81	63,7	17	13,3	6	4,7	127	100	2,95
I can fill in forms in English	31	24,4	86	67,7	8	6,3	2	1,5	127	100	3,15

C. Students' Opinions Concerning the Effectiveness of English Preparatory Program

This part of the research includes findings gained by analysis of the answers provided by the faculty students for the open-ended questions concerning the effectiveness of the English Preparatory Program.

1. The Answers of the Faculty Students to the Question "What Are Your General Opinions about the English Preparatory Program?"

The question "What Are Your General Opinions about the English Preparatory Program?" was the first to be asked in order to get the students opinions about the English Preparatory Program. Faculty students' answers to this question and frequency distributions are shown in Table 6.

As can be seen in Table 6, out of those students who provided positive opinions concerning the program, 29 students said "The program offers necessary knowledge and skills related to English," 9 students said "The program can teach English at a good level," 4 students said "The program is challenging but useful," 3 students said "The program is adequate for faculty courses," 2 students said "The instructors are successful," 2 students said "The program provides a useful infrastructure for those with no background of English" and one student said "The program helps us comprehend English."

For example, Hale, one of the students, pointed out that it is quite a useful program despite its intensity saying "*At first I thought I would lose a year in vain. But I think it is very useful. They challenge us but I saw that this would yield better results*" (st.112-113).

Another student, Suna, expressed her satisfaction with the program by the following words: "*To me they give a good education. The instructors in the preparatory unit do their job really well*" (st. 231).

TABLE 6.
DISTRIBUTION OF THE ANSWERS OF THE FACULTY STUDENTS TO THE QUESTION "WHAT ARE YOUR GENERAL OPINIONS ABOUT THE ENGLISH
PREPARATORY PROGRAM?"

The Answers of the Faculty Students to the Question "What Are Your General Opinions about the English Preparatory Program?"	f
Positive Opinions	
a. The program offers necessary knowledge and skills related to English	29
b. The program can teach English at a good level	9
c. The program is challenging but useful	4
d. The program is adequate for faculty courses	3
e. The instructors are successful	2
f. The program provides a useful infrastructure for those with no background of English	2
g. The program helps us comprehend English	1
Total of Opinions	*50*
Negative Opinions	
a. The program is good but inadequate for faculty courses	8
b. The program is adequate to learn English but inefficient for professional English	6
c. The program could get better	5
d. The program is inadequate for beginner language learners	5
e. Physical conditions of the preparatory unit building are inadequate	4
f. The program is challenging and intensive	3
g. The education offered is not qualified	3
Total of Opinions	*34*

As can be seen in Table 6, of the faculty students who provided negative opinions concerning the English Preparatory Program,8 students said "The program is good but inadequate for faculty courses," 6 students said "The program is adequate to learn English but inefficient for professional English," 5 students said "The program could get better," 5 students said "The program is inadequate for beginner language learners," 4 students said "Physical conditions of the preparatory unit building are inadequate," 3 students said "The program is challenging and intensive" and 3 students said "The education offered is not qualified."

Mert, a student stating his opinion about the program, pointed out that the program is adequate in general but inadequate for technical English by saying *"It is adequate to learn a foreign language but not for professional English"* (st.276).

Tuna, on the other hand, stated that the program was adequate for those with a background of English but inadequate for those with no knowledge of English by saying *"I don't think it is adequate for beginner English learners. I believe that those students from Anatolian high-schools or equivalent schools are a little bit luckier"* (st. 875-876).

2. Students' Answers to the Question "To What Extent the Knowledge of English You Acquired in the English Preparatory Program is Adequate to Follow Faculty Courses in English?"

In order to obtain faculty students opinions concerning the English Preparatory Program through semi-structured open-ended questionnaire questions, the students were addressed the following item as the second question: "To what extent the knowledge of English you acquired in the English Preparatory Program is adequate to follow faculty courses in English?" Faculty students' answers to this question and frequency distributions are shown in Table 7.

TABLE 7.
DISTRIBUTION OF THE STUDENTS' ANSWERS FOR THE QUESTION "TO WHAT EXTENT THE KNOWLEDGE OF ENGLISH YOU ACQUIRED IN THE ENGLISH
PREPARATORY PROGRAM IS ADEQUATE TO FOLLOW FACULTY COURSES IN ENGLISH

Students' Answers to the Question "To What Extent the Knowledge of English You Acquired in the English Preparatory Program is Adequate to Follow Faculty Courses in English?"	f
a. It is adequate but should include Technical English	36
b. It is adequate to a great extent	28
c. It is not very adequate	19
d. It is adequate	9
Total of Opinions	*92*

As shown in Table 7, for the question "To what extent the knowledge of English you acquired in the English Preparatory Program is adequate to follow faculty courses in English?", 36 faculty students said "It is adequate but should include Technical English," 28 students said "It is adequate to a great extent," 19 students said "It is not very adequate" and 9 students said "It is adequate."

Merve, for example, pointed out that the knowledge of English acquired in the English Preparatory Program did not contribute to department courses by saying *"It hardly has any contribution to faculty, not much"* (st. 63).

Fikret, however, stated that the English Preparatory Program was beneficial, saying *"I wouldn't be able to*

understand what is told in lessons if I hadn't attended the Preparatory Program"(st.188).

Another student, Nurhan, expressed that the program was inefficient about Technical English, saying *"It is not very adequate. What we learnt in preparatory program was daily English. It is inadequate for technical matters"* (st. 266).

Lale stated that she did not think the education given was not good, it was impossible to learn a foreign language in one year and a student should be –pre-intermediate level at the beginning of the program so that he or she could improve the language by saying that *"I don't think the program gave enough a good education. To me, a foreign language cannot be taught in just one year. Language means culture at the same time. Is this your fault? No it is all ours. It is the system's fault. A student attending the preparatory program should be pre-intermediate level* (st. 367-369).

3. Students' Answers to the Question "To What Extent Do You Think the English Preparatory Program Offers the Level of English You Need?"

In order to get faculty students opinions concerning the English Preparatory Program through semi-structured open-ended questionnaire items, the students were addressed the following question as the third one: "To what extent do you think the English Preparatory Program offers the level of English you need?" Faculty students' answers to this question and frequency distributions are shown in Table 8.

TABLE 8.
DISTRIBUTION OF THE STUDENTS' ANSWERS TO THE QUESTION "TO WHAT EXTENT DO YOU THINK THE ENGLISH PREPARATORY PROGRAM OFFERS THE LEVEL OF ENGLISH YOU NEED?"

Students' Answers to the Question "To What Extent Do You Think the English Preparatory Program Offers the Level of English You Need?"	f	
a. It offers English at an adequate level	35	
b. It gives knowledge of daily language, but it doesn't give knowledge of professional language	34	
c. It doesn't offer knowledge of English at an adequate level	18	
d. It may vary depending on the level; it is adequate at higher levels but inadequate at lower levels	5	
e. It is inadequate only at teaching vocabulary	3	
f. It offers all the knowledge and skills except for speaking skill	3	
Total of Opinions	*98*	

As can it can be seen in Table 8, for the question concerning the extent to which the English Preparatory Program offers the level of English students need, 35 students said "It offers English at an adequate level," 34 students said "It gives knowledge of daily language, but it doesn't give knowledge of professional language," 18 students said "It doesn't offer knowledge of English at an adequate level," 5 students said "It may vary depending on the level; it is adequate at higher levels but inadequate at lower levels," 3 students said "It is inadequate only at teaching vocabulary" and 3 students said "It offers all the knowledge and skills except for speaking skill."

Sude, one of the students, stated that general English was taught at an adequate level except for technical English, saying *"If it is the technical aspect that is meant by 'need,' it is not very efficient but adequate in other aspects of the language"*(st. 135).

Another student, Murat, also emphasized the absence of Technical English, saying *"It doesn't meet our department's needs because the preparatory program does not give technical English. We face some difficulties when we come to our departments"* (st. 163-164).

Nurgül also mentioned the need for technical English teaching but added that the program was beneficial for a beginner level language learner and that the most important component of language learning process is the individual himself or herself by saying *"I think the education given was inefficient in terms of technical English but adequate for someone just starting to learn English. I also believe that what is learnt in preparatory program is forgotten if not practiced after preparatory education"* (st.612-615).

Like the majority of the students involved in the study, Hamdi agreed with the idea that knowledge of technical area *"should be taught in Preparatory Program"* and said *"I don't think it is very adequate. The education we get only brings us to a level at which we can understand what is spoken. In my opinion, at least for the departments with compulsory English, there should be vocabulary teaching activities for faculty courses. Technical English courses should be offered in Foreign Languages Department not in our own departments* (st. 735- 738).

4. Students' Answers to the Question "What Are Your Suggestions for the English Preparatory Program to Teach English More Efficiently?"

In order to get faculty students opinions concerning the English Preparatory Program through semi-structured open-ended questionnaire items, the students were addressed the following question as the fourth and last one: "What are your suggestions for the English Preparatory Program to teach English more efficiently?" Faculty students' answers to this question and frequency distributions are shown in Table 9.

Students' Answers for the Question "What Are Your Suggestions for the English Preparatory Program to Teach English More Efficiently?"	f
a. Speaking skill should be emphasized	38
b. Technical English should be emphasized	38
c. Listening skill should be emphasized	16
d. Native speakers of English should teach	6
e. Speaking clubs should be functional	6
f. Writing skill should be emphasized	5
g. Instructors should manage lessons in English	5
h. Video lessons should be emphasized	5
i. Students of each faculty/department should be separated	5
j. Grammar should be emphasized	4
k. Student-centered teaching should be realized	3
l. Vocabulary game tournaments among classes are useful, they should continue	3
m. Instructors' quality should be increased	2
n. Students should be informed about the objectives at the beginning of the academic year	2
Total of Opinions	*138*

As shown in Table 9, students were asked about their suggestions for the English Preparatory Program to teach English more efficiently. 38 students said "Speaking skill should be emphasized," 38 students said "Technical English should be emphasized," 16 students said "Listening skill should be emphasized," 6 students said "Native speakers of English should teach," 5 students said "Writing skill should be emphasized," 5 students said "Instructors should manage lessons in English," 5 students said "Video lessons should be emphasized," 5 students said "Students of each faculty/department should be separated," 4 students said "Grammar should be emphasized," 3 students said "Vocabulary game tournaments among classes are useful, they should continue," 2 students said "Instructors' quality should be increased" and 2 students said "Students should be informed about the objectives at the beginning of the academic year."

Sabri pointed out that the program should include Technical English and some activities were needed especially for the departments with compulsory English Preparatory Program education with the following words: *"In addition to what is already performed, general technical knowledge related to departments could be useful. There could be some activities particularly for the departments whose medium of instruction is English"* (st.257-258).

Asu came up with the suggestion that a program including Technical English and emphasizing listening and reading would be appropriate and said *"The program should emphasize listening and reading and meet the requirements of departments (technical English for Engineering and economic English for Economy)"* (st. 288-289).

Harun stated his satisfaction with the program, saying *"I was pleased with the program. However, I think repeating the program due to failure shouldn't be abolished because nobody takes it seriously then"* (st. 305-306); he pointed out that the 2006-2007 revision in regulations making it possible for students of departments with no compulsory preparatory education to attend their departments in case of failure in the program after one year decreases students' motivation and that this situation should be corrected.

Another student, Selda, stated that the main textbook used focused more on communication, but students need grammar and technical English more by saying *"Our textbook, 'Innovations' are based on speaking making the process difficult for those students with no background knowledge of English as it covers almost no grammar at all. When it presents a piece of grammar, it is usually a difficult part; so grammar should be emphasized more and students should be taught the professional vocabulary relevant to our departments so that we do not have difficulty there"* (st. 594-597).

Zafer, on the other hand, said *"students should be trained in a way that has them understand lecturers and take notes in lessons"* and pointed out to the fact that one of the requirements of students was note-taking during lessons and a relevant training was needed.

VI. RESULTS, DISCUSSION AND SUGGESTIONS

This part of the study includes the results gained through the analysis of the data collected by means of data collection tools.

A. Results

1. Results Concerning Students' Opinions about the Reasons Why Students Enroll in the English Preparatory Program, the Importance of Language Skills and the Level They Think They Have Language Skills

- 68,9% of students state that they attended the English Preparatory Program because the medium of instruction was English in their departments, 26,3% said they attended the program to improve their English and 4,6% indicated other reasons for enrollment in the program.

- Of the students involved in the study, 66,6% are of the opinion that listening skill is very important; 83,7% find speaking skill very important; 37,9% find reading skill very important and 37,9% think that writing is a very important skill.
- Of the students involved in the study, the percentages of the students thinking that they possess listening, speaking, reading and writing skills are 46,5%, 29'4%, 61,2% and 57,3% respectively.

2. Results Concerning the Students' Opinions about the Level at which the English Preparatory Program Has Them Acquire the Desired Qualities

- Students think that the acquisition level of 19 skills out of the language skills intended to be acquired by students are adequate (I can ask instructors questions in English; I can answer questions asked in English; I can participate in activities in English; I can use English in lessons; I can read a text in English and understand its main idea; I can answer the questions about the text; I can read and summarize the text; I can read the text and paraphrase it; I can read and understand a text in English; I can understand instructors' speaking in English; I can understand listening materials; I can understand English presentations; I can understand English instructions; I can understand class discussions in English; I can take notes in English; I can write English paragraphs ; I can summarize in English by writing; I can write English letters; and I can fill in forms in English) while they think the acquisition level of 1 skill is "at the limit" (I can make reports of presentations). Therefore, the arithmetic mean of the Program for the acquisition of the desired language skills is 2,95, which makes us conclude that the English Preparatory Program is "satisfactory" in having students acquire language skills.

3. Results Concerning Students' Opinions about the Effectiveness of English Preparatory Program

- According to their statements, students think the program offers the necessary skills; it can teach English at a good level; the instructors are successful, the program provides a useful infrastructure; it helps comprehend the language and provides a good level of English. However, they think physical conditions of the preparatory unit building are inadequate and knowledge of Technical English is not provided at an adequate level.
- Students think that English courses in the program are adequate to follow faculty courses in English and the program offers a high level of English education, However, they also claim that the program should certainly include Technical English, it is not adequate for beginner learners, the fact that the program focuses more on daily use of language is negative for students and language used in the faculty is relatively limited.
- Students state that they think the program offers a level of English meeting their needs for the faculty and in general they are satisfied with the education they received in the preparatory program. However, they point out that the program is very inadequate in terms of Technical English and their expectations were not met in terms of acquiring neither grammar nor vocabulary and other technical terms.
- For the program to provide a better English education, students suggest that speaking and listening skills should be emphasized, the speaking club should be more functional, there should be more emphasis on "note-taking" skill.

B. Discussion

Conducted into the effectiveness of English preparatory education offered at universities, this study revealed that in general students acquired the language skills intended to be acquired by students in the English Preparatory Program except for "being able to make reports of presentations" and that the program provided the required skills, the program offers the necessary skills; it can teach English at a good level; the instructors are successful, the program provides a useful infrastructure; it helps comprehend the language and provides a good level of English education. However, apart from these positive qualities, students' point out to shortcomings of the program such as the fact that physical conditions of the preparatory unit building are inadequate and knowledge of Technical English is not provided at an adequate level.

The most significant finding of this research based on the data from students is the fact that the English Preparatory Program is stated to be inadequate about Technical English. This finding of the research matches up with Kınsız's (2005) study emphasizing that "foreign language education should be interdisciplinary, participatory and innovative," arguing that "the need of professions for foreign language knowledge should be met" and therefore highlighting the importance of professional English. This finding is also in parallel to Kocaman's (1983) study stating that a new foreign language learning situation for specific purposes emerged and this situation is better defined and suitable for use in addition to general objectives in foreign language teaching; it is called professional English or English for specific purposes or foreign language, there are and should be courses related to technical terms, usages and field knowledge. Also, the finding of this study that the program should certainly include Technical English supports Mirici and Saka's (2004) emphasis that students of engineering faculties in particular have to learn English for both general and specific purposes in order to keep up with the latest technological and scientific developments and Technical English is a requisite. As a matter of fact, the findings derived from this study explain to some extent why students at Eskişehir Osmangazi University have difficulty about some English terms and concepts in their first year in the faculty.

C. Suggestions

- English Preparatory Programs should focus on speaking and listening skills, too. Also, the number of activities like speaking club should be increased for speaking skill.

- Technical English should definitely be included in the program and its functionality should be increased in terms of both structure and vocabulary acquisition.
- The program should focus more on "ability to make reports of presentations" and "note-taking" skill as well as grammar.
- The effectiveness of English preparatory programs should be determined in a way covering the applications in all universities and by using different methods as well as separate evaluations.

REFERENCES

[1] Bakeman, R., and Gottman, J. M. (1997). Observing interaction: An introduction to sequential analysis (2nd ed.). New York: Cambridge University Press.
[2] Braine, G. (2005). Teaching English to the World: History, Curriculum and Practice, USA: Lawrence Arlbaum Associates.
[3] Celce-Murcia, M. (1991). Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language. Boston: Heinle and Heinle Publishers.
[4] Croll, P. (1986). Systematic Classroom Observation. Lewes, Falmer Press.
[5] Demirel, Ö. (1987). Foreign Language Education: Principles, Methods and Techniques. Ankara: USEM Yayınları.
[6] Işık, A. (2008). Where Do the Mistakes in Our Foreign Language Education Source from? *Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies*. (4) 2.
[7] Karasar, N. (2002). Scientific Research Method. Ankara: Nobel Yayınları.
[8] Kınsız, M. (2005). Contribution of Professional English Education to Sustainable Development. *Journal Selçuk University Institute of Social Sciences*.
[9] Kırkgöz, Y. (2005). Motivation and Student Perception of Studying in an English-medium University, J*ournal of Language and Linguistic Studies*. (1) 1.
[10] Kocaman, A. (1983). New Approaches in Foreign Language Education. Turkish Language Education Special Edition.
[11] Mirici, İ.H. and Saka, Ö. (2004). Dissemination of A proposed English Preparatory Class Model for The Black Sea Region Countries Through Internet, *Turkish Online Journal of Distance Education-TOJDE* (5) 2.
[12] Özdemir, E. (2006). The Reasons Why English Learning Is Becoming More Popular, *Journal of Mersin University Faculty of Education*. (2) 1.
[13] Richards C. J. (2001). Curriculum Development in Language Teaching. Cambridge University Press.
[14] Robson, C. (1993). Real World Research: A Resource for Social Scientists and Practitioner Researchers. Oxford: Blackwell Publishers Ltd.
[15] Tosun, C. (2006). Problem of Education in a Foreign Language, *Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies*. (2)1.
[16] Türnüklü, A. (2000). A Qualitative Research Technique That Can Be Used Actively in Educational Sciences Researches: Interview, Educational Management with Theories and Practices. (24).
[17] Widdowson, H. G. (1990). Aspect of Language Teaching. Hong Kong: Oxford University Press. http://www.ogu.edu.tr/~ydb/hakkinda.htm, Date of access: 24.05.2005

Dr. Ümit Özkanal- He is assistant director of Eskişehir Osmangazi University Foreign Languages Department and has been working at the same department for 14 years. He has got a PhD degree of Educational Sciences at Anadolu University in Eskişehir, Turkey. His research areas are ELT, ELT curriculum, curriculum development and curriculum evaluation.

Prof. Dr. Ayhan G. Hakan- He is a professor of Educational Sciences and has been working for Anadolu University for 20 years. His research areas are curriculum development, curriculum evaluation and open education.

A Brief Analysis of Corrective Feedback in Oral Interaction*

Ying Zhang

English Department, Ordnance and Engineering College, Shijiazhuang, China
Email: zhangying672000@yahoo.com.cn

Lanqin Zhang

English Department, Ordnance and Engineering College, Shijiazhuang, China

Leilei Ma

English Department, Ordnance and Engineering College, Shijiazhuang, China

Abstract— Over the last few years, the role of corrective feedback in language acquisition has become a highly controversial issue. Though disputed theories and research articles collide with each other, there appears to be a growing consensus among the majority of researchers and language practitioners concerning the significance of the role played by corrective feedback in the process of second language acquisition. Systematical theories on oral error feedback have been established over the past few decades. Many researchers, such as Bailey, Chaudron, Long, etc., have contributed much to this field. They bring forward the models and measures for oral error feedback. On the basis of the model proposed by Chaudron, this thesis deals with a comparison of students' and teachers' attitudes towards oral error feedback.

Index Terms—second language acquisition, corrective feedback, oral interaction, attitude

I. INTRODUCTION

As the focus of classroom instruction has shifted over the past few decades from an emphasis on language forms to functional language within communicative context, the question of the place of error correction has become more and more important (Brown, 2004). Over the last few years, the role of corrective feedback in language acquisition has become a highly controversial issue. Though disputed theories and research articles collide with each other, there appears to be a growing consensus among the majority of researchers and language practitioners concerning the significance of the role played by corrective feedback in the process of second language acquisition. Second language acquisition researchers' opinions on the effectiveness of corrective feedback are different. One group holds that corrective feedback is necessary (e.g. White, 1991) because it can match the learners' utterance with its corresponding version in the target language and draw the learners' attention to structures that have not been mastered, thus initiating a learning process; while another group maintains that changes in the learner's competence can only be initiated by primary linguistic data, not by corrective feedback recognized as such (e.g. Schwartz, 1993) and some researchers even advocate to abandon the corrective feedback in classroom interaction due to its problems (e.g. Truscott, 1999).

A number of studies have examined whether corrective feedback in a communicative or task-based language classroom is effective. Their studies provide positive evidence for the effect of formal instruction and corrective feedback in improving the students' accuracy level on certain targeted linguistic features.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. *Definition of Error Feedback*

Chaudron (1998) holds that the term corrective feedback incorporates different layers of meaning. In Chaudron's view, treatment of error may simply refer to "any teacher behavior following an error that minimally attempts to inform the learner of the fact of error".

Lightbown and Spada (1999) define corrective feedback as: any indication to the learners that their use of the target language is incorrect. This includes various responses that the learners receive. When a language learner says, "she clean the room everyday", corrective feedback can be explicit, for example, "no, you should say cleans, not clean" or implicit "yes, she cleans the room everyday", and may or may not include metalinguistic information, for example, "Don't forget to make the verb agree with the subject".[1]

Long's (1996) view of feedback in general is more comprehensive. It suggests that environmental input can be thought of in terms of two categories that are provided to the learners about the target language: positive evidence and

---

negative evidence. Long defines positive evidence as providing the learners with models of what is grammatical and acceptable in the target language; and negative evidence as providing the learners with direct or indirect information about what is unacceptable.

In this thesis, all the terms about corrective feedback refer to the same meaning: any indication to the learners that their use of the target language is incorrect.

B. Theoretical Stances of the Role of Corrective Feedback

The role of corrective feedback in the process of learning a foreign language is closely related to the conception of the role of different kinds of language input in language acquisition (Doughty & Williams, 1998). Whether it is positive input/evidence or negative input/evidence has the greater impact.

According to nativist theory, advocated by Chomsky (1975), negative input/evidence hardly plays any role at all, which is based on Chomsky's "theory of Universal Grammar". The nativists believe what makes language acquisition is UG and instruction has little impact on forms within UG. (Carroll, 1996).

Gass argues that corrective feedback function as an attention-getting device and without direct or frequent corrective feedback in the input, which would permit learners to detect discrepancies between their learner language and the target language, fossilization may occur. Ellis (1991) shares the similar view that the acquisition process includes the steps of noticing, comparing and integrating.

Corrective feedback or negative evidence plays a crucial role in the hypothesis testing models of acquisition, in which the learner is assumed to formulate hypotheses about the target language, and to test these hypotheses against the target norm. Ohta (2001) takes corrective feedback a step further by showing that if the correct form is provided, learners may have the chance to compare their own production with that of another. In this way, corrective feedback may stimulate hypothesis testing, giving the learner the opportunity to grapple with form-meaning, relationships.

III. DISCUSSIONS AND ANALYSIS

The author designed a simple questionnaire mainly focusing on whether learner errors should be corrected or not, when errors should be corrected, what kinds of errors should be corrected, how errors should be corrected and who should correct learner errors. In this study, the author wants to explore whether there are any significant differences between students' and teachers' attitudes towards oral error feedback in classroom interaction.

The results reveal that students and teachers do have some different perceptions of error feedback. Though most of the students and teachers hold positive attitudes towards oral error feedback, they have different opinions on some specific questions. Most students hold that "every error in their oral production should be corrected", but the majority of teachers hold opposite opinions. Most teachers hold that too much error correction may make them frustrated and even lose confidence but students do not agree. The differences of their opinions indicate that students need more corrective feedback than teachers expected.

The findings reveal that students and teachers think phonological, lexical, grammatical errors should be corrected, but their perceptions of whether different error types should deserve the same attention are significantly different. Students hold that lexical errors should deserve the most attention; grammatical errors rand the second and phonological errors rank the last. However, teachers report that they provide the most feedback to lexical errors; phonological and grammatical errors share the second. This reveals that the mean of each error type for students is much lower than the mean for teachers, which indicate that students expect more feedback from their teacher.

Students' and teachers' attitudes towards when learner errors should be corrected are significantly different. To phonological errors, most students like immediate treatment best and dislike delayed treatment. To lexical and grammatical errors, students like delayed treatment best. However, to phonological and grammatical errors, most teachers like delayed treatment best and postponed treatment the second.

As to how to correct learner errors, there are significant differences between students and teachers. Students say they prefer explicit correction and only a few like metalinguistic clues better. But teachers provide different feedback types across different error types: to phonological errors, teachers like to use explicit correction and metalinguistic clues; to lexical errors, teachers like to use explicit correction; to grammatical errors, metalinguistic clues are preferred. Even to the same type of error, different teachers may employ different types of error feedback.

The findings do not suggest significant differences between students' and teachers' attitudes towards who should correct learner errors. Most students and teachers hold that to phonological, lexical and grammatical errors, teacher-correction is better than self-correction or peer correction.

IV. PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

Oral error feedback is a complex decision making process. When a student commits an error, the teacher firstly should decide which kind of error it is, whether to correct it, if so when and how to correct it, and who should correct it. Teachers should take students' cognitive, affective reality and as well as students' preferences of error feedback into consideration.

Providing effective oral error feedback is a difficult and complex process involving many challenges and complexities, and probably the most difficult aspect of the correction process is tailoring corrections to individual students. Teachers who wish to give effective feedback should consider its effects on each individual student. They should know their students well, including their language proficiency, characters, preferences, etc, and also should know when and how to correct their errors.

Only by bearing students' cognitive, affective reality and preferences of feedback in mind, can teachers provide effective feedback and otherwise, the feedback will be unfruitful.

REFERENCES

[1]   Brown, H. D. (2004). Principles of Language Learning and Teaching. Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press.
[2]   Chaudron, C. (1988). Second Language Classrooms: Research on Teaching and Learning. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
[3]   Carroll, S. (1996). The Irrelevance of Verbal Feedback to Language Learning. In L, Eubank, *The current State of Interlanguage*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
[4]   Doughty, C., & Williams, J. (1998). Pedagogical Choices in Focus on Form. In C. Doughty & Williams, *Focus on Form in Classroom Second Language Acquisition*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
[5]   Elllis, R. (1991). Grammar Teaching Practice or Consciousness-raising? In R.Ellis, *Second Language Acquisition and Second Language Pedagogy*.
[6]   Lightbown, P. M. & N. Spada (1999). How Languages are Learned. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.
[7]   Ohta, A. S. (2001). Second Language Acquisition Processes in the Classroom: Learning Japanese. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
[8]   Schwartz, B. (1993). On Explicit and Negative Data Effective and Affecting Competence and Linguistic Behavior. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition.*
[9]   Truscott, John. (1999). What's Wrong with Oral Grammar Correction, *The Canadian Modern Language Review*.
[10] White, L (1991). Adverb Placement in Second Language Acquisition: Some Effects of Positive and Negative Evidence in the Classroom. *Second Language Research*.

Ying Zhang was born in Hebei, China in 1978. She received her M.A. degree in linguistics from Beijing Languages and Culture University, China in 2008.

She is currently a lecturer in English Department of Ordnance and Engineering College, Shijiazhuang, China. Her research interests include teaching methodology and applied linguistics.

Lanqin Zhang was born in Hebei, China in 1954. She received her B.A. degree from PLA Foreign Languages University, China. She is currently a professor in English Department of Ordnance and Engineering College, Shijiazhuang, China. Her research interests include translation and social linguistics.

Leilei Ma was born in Hebei , China in 1971. She received her M.A. degree in English literature from Hebei University in 1997. She is currently a lecturer in English Department of Ordnance and Engineering College , Shijiazhuang , China. Her research interests include English literature and teaching methodology.

A Comparative Study of Boys' and Girls' English Study Differences

Xin Xiong

Foreign Studies College of Hunan University of Arts & Science, Changde, Hunan, China, 415000
Email: xiongxin73@163.com

Abstract—**English learning is influenced by many factors which are directly or indirectly affecting the students' English acquirement. Among these, the learner himself or herself is the most direct and important. This passage emphasizes the point of English educational psychology and from it we can see that the motivation factor, ability factor and intellect factor affect the students' English learning most. Girls' internal motivation is stronger than boys' in the foreign language studying and most of the girls aim at gaining English knowledge. The process of English learning itself can make them contented and basically they will not be interrupted by the external factors.**

Index Terms—**middle school boy, middle school girl, English learning, comparison**

I. INTRODUCTION

During the course of English teaching, it is discovered that schoolgirls' achievement is better than those of schoolboys'. However, most of the teachers have never thought over the problems such as: Where do the schoolgirls do well? How much better? Why better? etc. It also means we only pay attention to the conventional teaching principles such as teaching students in accordance with their aptitude, but turn blind eye to the differences in studying psychology, studying ability and so on between the schoolgirls and schoolboys. It's very necessary to compare the features and differences in language learning between them, and to further explore the questions: What's the difference? How to improve their achievements by making use of the differences?

In the mingled middle school, almost half of the students are schoolgirls. What's more, there is nobody to study the gender differences of English teaching in our country's middle school. We all ignored the gender differences in the teaching process and didn't make systematic analysis and research of the differences between the schoolgirl and the schoolboy, so we didn't fully understand the differences between them in language learning psychology and the language learning ability etc. That is based on the foundation of teaching students in accordance with their aptitude. This research can compensate the blind spot in the English teaching and strive to explore the student's potential energy and improve the practicability of the English teaching.

To our students, English is a foreign language; there are many factors which affect their language studying. Among these, the teachers' factor is the external cause; the student himself or herself is the internal one. Internal cause is the key factor, so I deal with the internal one in details and make a simple analysis about the external causes and explore some related research results, together with my investigations and experiments. From these we can know how much the factors mentioned above can affect the schoolgirls' and schoolboys' English learning.

II. MOTIVATION DIFFERENCES

Motivation is the internal trend and strength which inspire people to take action (it includes personal will, wish, psychological conflict or intending to reach the goal etc.) It is the psychological state which motive and sustains people's action. Motivation is what moves us from boredom to interest. It is something like the engine and steering wheel of an automobile. The motivation of foreign language learning manifests the desire of language learning and desire for knowledge. It is one of the internal motivations, which directly motivate the foreign language learning. It can be divided into integration, instrumental, intrinsic, extrinsic, long-ranged and short-ranged etc.

In order to know the similarities and differences of the motivations in English learning，I made a questionnaire (name-signing not needed) as to the interesting extent about English and the reasons. Career ideal ect of the middle school students on January twelfth and fifteenth 2005. The questionnaire includes members of 105 girls and 105 boys in the six classes of grade two in Shi Fang Ping. The results are as follows:

Girls 1

The extent of likeness	Students number	Proportion
Like	61	58.1%
General	37	35.2%
Dislike	7	6.7%

Boys 1

The extent of likeness	Students number	Proportion
Like	30	28.6%
General	24	22.9%
Dislike	51	48.5%

Results 1 shows that, compared with the schoolboys', more schoolgirls are fond of English learning, and there are quite a lot of more schoolgirls answer: like or most interested. These show the schoolgirls' internal motivation is stronger than the schoolboys' in the foreign language studying.

Jia Guanjie pointed out in *The Psychology of Education in English*: Internal motivation is the foundation of the English learner's internal himself. In the process of foreign language learning, the aims pursued as: the desire for knowledge, curiosity, interesting fancy or the wish to express him etc. All these factors are called short-ranged motivation.

From the questionnaire we can know among the schoolgirls who like English, some girls study the foreign language, only hoping to gain more knowledge; some are fond of English; some have special feeling about English; some want to improve their abilities, more girls are interested in it.（refer to result 2）The things are different for the boys, most of them are not interested in English. So, we can say that most of the schoolgirls aim at gaining English knowledge. The process of English learning itself can make them contented and basically will not be interrupted by the external factors. This is the first advantage of the schoolgirl in learning English.

Girls 2

The extent of like English	Cause	The number of student	Proportion	Cause	The number of student	proportion
Like	Utility	25	23%	Interested	36	34.3%
General	Less utility	19	18.1%	Less interested	11	10.4%
Dislike	Too difficult	4	3.8%	No interesting	3	2.9%

Note: 1.Give a most direct cause
2. The number of the students who generally like English and the cause having no interest even occupy 6.7%

Boys 2

The extent of like English	Cause	The number of student	Proportion	Cause	The number of student	proportion
Like	Utility	19	18.11%	Interested	11	10.5%
General	Less utility	14	13.41%	Less interested	10	9.5%
Dislike	Too difficult	23	21.9%	No interesting	28	26.69%

The language learners who have integrative motivation aim at being integrated into the second language community and in order to meet and communicate with the members of the second language community. The instrumental motivation emphasizes some practical purposes in foreign language learning. That is, how to do research work by using a foreign language as a tool so as to improve one's social status etc, and especially how to emphasize the practicability of the language.

Integrative motivation and instrumental motivation are also called long-ranged motivation. It is the important factor affecting the foreign language studying. From result 2 we can also know how English is useful, important, and helpful in the personal development. The proportion of the students who want to undertake the work directly or indirectly related to English is quite large, which refers to result 3. However, only a few boys recognize that English is useful to them and they are fond of engaging with the work related to it. They have no career ideal. This is what Jia Guanjia said girls have more integrative motivation and instrumental motivation, which is the second advantage of the girls who study English.

Girls 3

Career ideal	Number of student	Proportion
The career directly related to English such as English teacher, English translator, journalist, cicerone foreign company, diplomat, external trade, go abroad, computer, net ect.	About 36（most is teacher journalist, translator, foreign company,）	34.3%
The career indirectly related to English such as: manager, finance, doctor, lawyer, customer, nurse, officer designer, etc.	About 30 （most is doctor, lawyer, finance）	28.6%
The career may be unrelated no English, such as clerk, artist, shopkeeper, etc.	About 9	8.6%
Have no ideal career temporary	30	28.6%

Boys 3

Career ideal	Number of student	Proportion
The career directly related to English such as English teacher, English translator, journalist, cicerone foreign company, diplomat, external trade, go abroad, computer net ect.	About 21 （most is　foreign company, external computer etc　）	20%
The career indirectly related to English such as: manage, finance, doctor, lawyer, customer, nurse, officer, designer, etc.	About 19　（most is doctor, lawyer, financer）	18.1%
The career may be unrelated no English, such as clerk, artist, shopkeeper, etc.	About 25	23.8%
Have no ideal career temporary	40	38.1%

I made the same questionnaire in the four classes in grade one and grade three. These were 102 girls taking part in it. The results are:

The proportion of likeness is 47.68%, the less likeness is 36.23%, and the dislikeness is 16.09%. One class of the grade one, the proportion of likeness is 64.5%, which is the highest and there is only one student who doesn't like English.

The main reason of likeness is that English is practical or the student is interested in it. The students' ideal career mainly is doctor, lawyer, teacher, translator etc, and most of the work needs a good command of English.

From the analysis above, we can conclude that the schoolgirls have stronger motivation than schoolboys in learning English and also have more interest in English.

III.　ABILITY DIFFERENCES

The people who can learn English well generally have a special quality. This quality is the cognition ability, which people need when they learn English. It is the language ability. The language ability especially refers to: The genius of learning English does not include intelligence, studying motivation, interest etc.. Language ability is composed of listening, speaking, reading, and writing abilities. Generally speaking, the genius of language ability is the main reason of the learner's difference in learning English, so knowing the differences of the boys and girls in language study can help us to predict the performance of the learner.

McCormick and Jacquelire figured in *The psychology of the gender difference*: Girls have better language ability than boys which is the chief aspect in the obvious gender difference of boys and girls. In order to specify the differences of the different sex middle school students in English learning ability, I made a comparison with the English study performance conducted in No.6 Middle School in Changde City.

The results are as follows:

⑴.Grade one students in the middle school (24 boys, 21 girls)

Five excellent students are all girls'. The boys' average mark is 49. The girls' average mark is 61. Boys' pass rate is 41%, while girls' is 76%.

⑵. Grade two students in the middle school (23 boys, 18 girls)

Boys' excellent rate is 9% and girls' excellent rate is 17%. Boys' pass rate is 58% and girls' pass rate is 77%. Boys' average mark is 45, and girls' average mark is 51.

The English studying performance above all can speak for that schoolgirls have incomparable advantages than boys in English learning ability.

⑴. From physiology, female's pronunciation organ, development and maturation is earlier than male's ,which leads to the schoolgirls good at listening and expressing , so their abilities of expressing and listening are better than boys'. Their English speaking and listening performance is better than boys' on average.

⑵. Female students are patient and careful in nature. They are interested in reading and their reading speed is quicker than male students', so there is no wonder that the female's English reading performance especially in the objective part is better than male's on average.

⑶.From the ideation, female has better susceptibility, so there is no wonder that female student's ability to express herself is better than male's.

IV.　INTELLIGENCE DIFFERENCES

Intelligence is the ability of the people's cognition. It is the highly summation of one's observation, attention, memory, ideation and imagination. A man's intelligence directly affects his performance in the foreign language learning and it can also predict the extent of a language learner's success.

⑴. In the process of English learning, especially in the training of pronunciation, dialogue demonstration, listening in class etc, all need better observation, attention and imitation. Just as Xiong Dan thinks in *The research of teaching in accordance with their aptitude*, the female's observation is more keen, precise and thorough. They are in the process of adolescence and have prominent development in sight and hearing. They are more interested in English and their

motivations in learning English are stronger than boys'.

（2）. Memory is the most important factor which affects the English learning. Foreign language learning is closely related to memory. The following practices all need memory, from pronunciation, grammar to vocabulary, from listening speaking to reading and writing. We can safely say: no memory, no foreign language learning; no memory, no rich knowledge of the foreign language and the ability of transmitting knowledge to skills.

（3）. Feng Zhongliang said in *The Psychology of Education*, Human's ideation is developed with the age. Many studies demonstrate that female's abstract logic ideation is no less than male and their ability of ideation is better than male's.

From all above, we can see schoolgirls have more advantages in intelligence than boys in the language learning.

All in all, from the comparison of the male and female's motivation factor, ability factor and intelligence factor, they have obvious gender differences and all these factors affect the English learning.

V. CONCLUSION

There is no one at present that has made a systematic and deep study into the problem of foreign language teaching in accordance with aptitude, about the teaching of foreign language in middle schools. So I strive to study this matter. But there are still many ideas that are not very well investigated and we still have many problems needing to be solved, such as: Does girls have disadvantages in learning foreign language? How can the ways of teaching be more effective?

In the modern education field, teaching in accordance with the aptitude must be put into practical use. However, in the old days we didn't think of the gender differences of the aptitude. There are quite a lot of differences between schoolgirls and schoolboys no matter in personality, psychology or physiological psychology.

REFERENCES

[1]   Feng Zhongliang. (2000). Education Psychology. Beijing: People's Education Press.
[2]   Jia Guanjie. (1996).Psychology in Foreign Language Teaching. Nanlin: Guangxi Education Press.
[3]   Wu Fenggang. (1991). Psychology on the Youngsters. Beijing: Beijing Normal University Press.
[4]   Li Yiru, Zhang Dadap. (2001). On Teaching for the Sexual Distinction. Beijing: Huaxia Girls Research Institute.
[5]   Hu Chundong. (1996). On English Learning. Nanlin: Guangxi Education Press.
[6]   ChenYi, Liu Rude. (1997). Contemporary Educational Psychology. Beijing: Beijing Normal University Press.
[7]   Zhou Gangyi. (1997). Educational Psychology on Females. Zhengzhou: Henan Normal University Press.

Xin Xiong was born in Changde, Hunan Province, China in 1973. M.A degree in linguistics from Huazhong University of Science and Technology, China in 2006. He is currently an associate professor in Foreign Studies College, HUAS. Changde, Hunan Province, China. His research interests include English language and literature & translation.

He is a member of the China Society for Futures Studies.

The Significance of English Grammar to Middle School Students in China

Shengmei Wang

School of Foreign Languages, Huaiyin Normal University, Huai'an Jiangsu, 223300, China.

Email: hiwangshengmei@163.com

Abstract—In the last few years the pendulum of grammar instruction seems to be on the return swing both in the USA and the UK because of public pressure for standards and testing. The reasons for grammar instruction and different foreign language teaching methods are explored in this paper. Some experiments are followed up to demonstrate grammar instruction is vital in EFL learning and teaching in China

Index Terms—grammar instruction, necessity, controversy, the case of China

I. INTRODUCTION

With the progress of globalization in the economy and in society, it is essential for Chinese students to acquire communication skills in English, which has become a common international language, in order for living in the 21st century. This has become an extremely important issue both in terms of the future of Chinese children and the further development of China as a nation. But over the last two decades, the summary of English education in China most often repeated by students and teachers and parents is that "Although we study English for all of ten years we still cannot speak it." People became frustrated about not being able to speak as much and fast as they wished. They decided to blame the traditional Grammar Translation method. To improve the situation China has adopted, experimented, discarded, and mixed different methodologies of English teaching over decades, the current trend is actually a mixture of several methods. One thing is certain; less grammar is taught, at least less explicit grammar instruction.

However, after a brief review of the history of language instruction, it's found that grammar has always been playing a role in foreign language teaching and learning. This may probably be one of the reasons leading to the debates of teaching grammar. The debates result in fresh cognition of grammar: it is very important in that not only does it help improve learners writing, but also it helps learners do better in reading comprehension and listening alike; more significantly, the problem of how to teach grammar has been raised. The finding from the survey is that middle school students from China believe that grammar is very important and necessary. There are several reasons for its importance and necessity, one of which is that they have few opportunities and little time to get enough input inside and outside the class.

II. THE NECESSITY OF GRAMMAR INSTRUCTION

Does it matter whether schools teach grammar? For Frank Palmer(1972), the central part of a language is its grammar, and this should be of vital interest to any intelligent educated person. If it has not been of such interest, then the fault must be in the failure to recognize its importance within this essentially human activity, language. It is true that learning particular grammatical distinctions requires a great deal of time even for the most skilled learners. Thus, one important question is whether it is possible to accelerate students' natural learning of grammar through instruction. Research findings can be brought to bear on this question from a variety of sources, for example, Larsen-Freeman & Long's(1991) Second Language Acquisition and Research. With regard to whether instruction can help learners acquire grammar they would not have learned on their own, some researches, although not unequivocal, point to the value of form-focused instruction to improve learners' accuracy over what normally transpires when there is no focus on form. Larsen-Freeman(2000) offers details in his Form, Meaning and Use. Besides, in her thesis for masters' degree " The Importance of Grammar in Reading", Tang Jingjing(2002) argues that there is beneficial effect of grammar instruction on the student's reading. Explicit instruction is an important part of grammar teaching and is easier if the pupils already have some understanding of how their first language works.

Explicit awareness of grammatical structure probably helps children to expand their competence to include the many grammatical patterns which are needed in adult life but not found in children's casual conversation and a shared metalanguage allows teachers and pupils to communicate about their performance and to explore complex links such as those between grammatical structures and genres.

The importance of grammar is also due to the fact that it is because of grammar of the language that makes it possible for us to talk about language. Grammar names the types of words and word groups that make up sentences not only in English but also in any language. As human beings, we can put sentences together even as children--we can all do grammar. But to be able to talk about how sentences are built, about the types of words and word groups that make up sentences--that is to know about grammar. And knowing about grammar also helps us understand what makes sentences

and paragraphs clear and interesting and precise. Grammar can be part of literature discussions when we and our students closely read the sentences in poetry and stories. And to know about grammar means finding out that all languages and all dialects follow grammatical patterns.

On all accounts, Grammar is the first liberal art. The study of grammar has two goals. Firstly, it preserves and perfects understanding of the great literature of the past and it contributes to eloquent self-expression. Secondly, questioning the value of grammar is like asking whether farmers should know the names of their crops and animals. Putting it another way, given that words constitute the essence of the intellectual life, a scholar or student who doesn't know grammar, for instance, the parts of speech, is like a surgeon who doesn't know the parts of the body.

III.   THEORETICAL APPROACHES TO GRAMMAR TEACHING

Foreign language teaching has a history of hundreds of years (Modern foreign language teaching dates from 17th century.), if not thousands of years (According to the recorded historical materials, the earliest foreign language teaching dates back to 300 BC when the Romans began to learn Greek.) (Hang 2000). During the long period of foreign language teaching, it is the recognition of changes in the kind of proficiency that learners need that leads to changes in language teaching methods. Of all the methods applied in the foreign language teaching, the most influential ones are the Grammar-Translation Method, the Situational Language Teaching, the Audiolingual Method and the Communicative Language Teaching Method. Grammar in these different influential methods plays a different role. In other words, though these different methods have different attitudes towards grammar, in common they all consider it part of language teaching.

A.   Grammar in the Grammar-translation Method

The principal characteristics of the Grammar-Translation Method are these: the goal of foreign language learning is to learn a language in order to read its literature, so reading and writing are the major focus. Grammar-Translation is a way of studying a language that approaches the language first through detailed analysis of its grammar rules, followed by application of this knowledge to the task of translating sentences and texts into and out of the target language. It hence views language learning as consisting of little more than memorizing rules and facts in order to understand and manipulate the morphology and syntax of the foreign language. Grammar is taught deductively--that is, by the representation and study of grammar rules, which are then practiced through translation exercises. In most Grammar-Translation texts, a syllabus is followed by the sequencing of grammar points throughout a text, and there is an attempt to teach grammar in an organized and systematic way. In one word, grammar is essential in foreign language teaching. Grammar-Translation dominated foreign language teaching in Europe from the ancient days to the 1940s. Although the Grammar-Translation Method often creates frustration for students, it makes few demands on teachers. It is still widely used in situations where understanding literary texts is the primary focus of foreign language study and there is little need for a speaking knowledge of the language. Contemporary texts for the teaching of foreign languages at college level often reflect Grammar-Translation principles. These texts are frequently the products of people trained in literature rather than in spoken language. So it is true to say that the Grammar-Translation Method is still widely practiced in modified form in some parts of the world today (Richards 1986).

B.   Grammar in the Situational Language Teaching

Situational Language Teaching adopts an inductive approach to the teaching of grammar. The meaning of the structures is not to be given through explanation in either the native tongue or the target language but is to be induced from the way the form is used in the situation. New language points are practiced situationally. The main characteristic of the approach is that items of grammar are graded following the principle that simple forms should be taught before the complex ones. Reading and writing are introduced once a sufficient grammatical basis is established. Harold Palmer, one of the two leaders of Situational Language Teaching, the other being A. S. Hornby, emphasized the problems of grammar for the foreign learners in his writing (Richards 1986). Much of his work was directed toward developing classroom procedures suited to teaching basic grammatical patterns through an oral approach. He viewed grammar as the underlying sentence patterns of the spoken language. Accuracy in grammar is regarded as crucial. The syllabus in Situational Language Teaching is a structural one which is a list of the basic structures and sentence patterns of English. The textbook contains tightly organized lessons planned around different grammatical structures. The visual element together with a carefully graded grammatical syllabus is a crucial aspect of Situational Language Teaching.

C.   Grammar in the Audiolingual Method

The Audiolingual Method is the result of combination of structural linguistic theory, contrastive analysis, aural-oral procedures and behaviorist psychology. Language is viewed as a system of structurally related elements for the encoding of meaning, the elements being phonemes, morphemes, words, structures, and sentence types. Linguistic levels are thought of as system within system--that is, as being pyramidally structured; phonemic system leads to morphemic system, and this in turn leads to the higher-level systems of phrases, clauses, and sentences. Learning a language, it is assumed, entails mastering the elements or building blocks of the language and learning the rules by which these elements are combined, from phoneme to morpheme to word to phrase to sentence. The structure is what is

important and unique about a language, so early practice should focus on mastery of phonological and grammatical structures. Dialogues and drills form the basis of audiolingual classroom practice. After a dialogue has been presented and memorized, specific grammatical patterns in the dialogue are selected and become the focus of various kinds of drill and pattern-practice exercises.

D.   Grammar in the Communicative Language Teaching Method

Since the mid-1970s the scope of Communicative Language Teaching has expanded. For some linguists and language teaching specialists, Communicative Language Teaching means little more than an integration of grammatical and functional teaching. Littlewood(1995) states "One of the most characteristic features of communicative language teaching is that it pays systematic attention to functional as well as structural aspects of language." In Hymes's view, a person who acquires communicative competence acquires first both knowledge and ability for language use with respect to whether or to what degree something is formally possible (Hymes 1972). A more recent but related analysis of communicative competence is found in Canale and Swain's(1980) Theoretical Basis of Communication Approaches to Second Language Teaching and Testing, in which four dimensions of communicative competence are identified: grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence, and strategic competence. Grammatical competence refers to what Chomsky calls linguistic competence and what Hymes intends by what is "formally possible."

We can see the shape of grammar in all these influential foreign language teaching methodologies. Whether it is taught deductively or inductively, it attracts the attention of more and more researchers and experts who carried out researches to test the value of grammar teaching. However, the results they obtained were quite different or even opposite. This resulted in the debates of teaching grammar.

IV.   THE CONTROVERSY OF GRAMMAR TEACHING

According to Mulroy(2003), "The value of grammar was never challenged" until our day. Does training in "formal grammar" improve a student's ability to write? At one time it was taken for granted that the answer was yes, so students were taught grammatical analysis as part of the effort to improve their writing. However, when educational researchers sought evidence for the expected effects, the results were negative; for example, one of the classic experiments concluded: "It seems safe to infer that the study of English grammar had a negligible or even harmful effect upon the correctness of students' writing in the early part of the five secondary schools." (Harris 1962) A number of studies in the 60s and 70s have since been accepted as classic support for the view that grammar teaching does nothing for student's writing. By the late 60s the dominant view in both the UK and the USA, and possibly throughout the English-speaking world, was that "most children cannot learn grammar and ... even to those who can it is of little value." (Thompson 1969) No doubt this view fitted the spirit of the times both in English teaching (where grammar was seen as a shackle on children's imagination) and in linguistics (where Chomsky was arguing that grammatical competence develops naturally according to an innate programme, so teaching is simply irrelevant).

Since then, grammar has played a controversial role in second and foreign language teaching for decades. In the United States, the "Great Grammar Debate" lasted almost three decades. There are currently two extreme positions in English as a second language (ESL) and English as a foreign language (EFL) concerning the teaching of English grammar. At one extreme, the earliest research questioning the value of grammar teaching found that it was simply a waste of time in the sense that most children could not apply any of the categories even after many years of teaching (Hudson 1998). Methodologists such as Krashen and Terrell(1983) tell us in their Natural Approach not to teach grammar explicitly and not to correct any learner's errors. Influenced by their viewpoint of grammar, some teachers adamantly insist that teaching formal grammar is useless and even harmful. The anti-grammar tide reached its peak in November 1985, when the National Council of Teachers of English (NCTE) passed a resolution against the use of isolated grammar and usage exercises not supported by theory and research.

The objection to grammar teaching is clearly fundamental if it is true, but, at the other extreme, there are others who swear just the opposite. The proponents of audio-lingualism (Lado 1964) and the methodologists such as Gattegno(1976) argue that we must make grammar the core of our language instruction and that we must correct all student errors. Most research has found that, when well taught, any kind of grammar (traditional or modern) can be learned by most school children at least at secondary level (Elley 1994; Elley et al 1975; Herriman 1994; Kennedy and Larson 1969; Tomlinson 1994) and in some cases at primary level, one example being Gale' (1967) experiment of fifth-graders. Hudson's(1998) international survey showed that grammatical analysis is regularly taught in some countries to children as young as six or seven, and the evidence from developmental psychology is that metalinguistic awareness starts to develop naturally between 5 and 7 years .

Very little research in support of teaching grammar appeared since the flurry in the 60s and 70s, and the profession settled into a period in which the question was largely ignored. So was the teaching of grammar. This reflects very general attitude changes in education and more generally throughout society. In the last few years, however, that situation has changed significantly in both the UK and the USA, and the pendulum seems to be on the return swing. Public pressure for standards and testing has brought grammar back into many classrooms and revived the debate about how to teach it. NCTE has accepted a new Assembly, the Assembly for the Teaching of English Grammar, and the

editors of many NCTE publications are actively seeking articles on what and how to teach grammar (Celce-Murica 1985).

We should not go to extremes. The fact is that grammar -- both as a description of language structures and as a standard of verbal etiquette -- still plays a big part in what many teachers, administrators, and parents consider to be basic literacy. Grammar can't be separated from the language, so the question more appropriately asked is how best to incorporate it into language instruction. Therefore, there is now much more enthusiasm in some educational circles for the idea that conscious grammar (resulting from formal teaching) could have the useful benefit of improving writing, and reading. In the USA this is apparently to be seen in freshman composition circles from Mccleary's(1995) Difficulty of Grammar and to a limited extent in the whole English approach to School English Teaching in Context by Weaver(1996), but in the UK it is one of the main pillars of the newly introduced National Literacy Strategy and the National Curriculum for English. These government directives apply to all state-run schools in England, primary and secondary, and prescribe in some detail both content and methods. The prescriptions are by no means bland commonplaces; on the contrary, they are an attempt to change current practice, and nowhere more so than by reintroducing the teaching of grammar. The 'Great Grammar Debate' in the United States leads to more precise questions about issues that teachers and researchers need to consider: what grammar should be taught; when it should be taught; and, the most important, how it should be taught.

V.   GRAMMAR INSTRUCTION IN CHINA

Unlike L1 acquisition, L2 has to be taught. Outside a community where a L1is spoken as a native language, without being taught, you don't learn to speak, read, and write a foreign language. You may be able to exchange simple greetings and express emotions using short phrases, but without a good grasp of sentence construction, you most likely end up producing sentences and utterances that at best mislead listeners. As China became more and more enthusiastic about learning English, people became frustrated about not being able to speak as much and fast as they wished. They decided to criticize the traditional Grammar Translation method. Unexceptionally, grammar instruction experiences the similar ups and downs in China.

It is clear that the mention of the word "grammar" sends chills up many students' spines. Students also feel that specific types of exercises and/or activities are either useful or not useful when learning grammar. While instructors differ greatly in their opinions on the importance of grammar study in language teaching and even more so in their approaches to teaching grammar. Students do not always share the instructor's view of the role of grammar in their language learning. How do students feel about studying grammar when learning a language? How important is it to them? How do they go about studying it? What kinds of exercises and activities help them in their acquisition of grammar?

During her career as an EFL instructor both at middle school and college, she has always had an impression that those with good grammar do well in English proficiency tests and entrance exams. They write better and their reading ability is more accurate. When they speak the utterances are in more complete sentences with fewer grammatical errors. Their listening performance is often superior.

In attempting to have a comprehensive perspective of the role of grammar in language study, the author decided to do some experiments to confirm her impression. The purpose of Survey 1 is to investigate the attitudes and perceptions of students learning English in Chinese context foreign language learning. The purpose of Survey 2 is to show and college entrance exams and CET require *grammar* recognition.

A.   Students' Attitudes and Perceptions

To understand what EFL students think about EGI and to explore the factors that influenced those attitudes and perceptions, the author conducted a pilot study in Huai'an Middle School (a key middle school in Jiangsu Province) to examine the attitudes and perceptions of Chinese middle school students toward EGI in the fall of 2005: How important is learning the basics of grammar for students to learn English well? Out of the 30 students who participated in the study, 23 of them said that they liked EGI because they believed that it would enable them to speak and write the English language correctly. In the spring semester of 2007, the author surveyed 298 students from six different classes of this same key middle school, two Senior One classes and two Senior Two classes and two Senior Three classes. The survey is based on a small-scale attempt to find the answer.

STUDENTS' ATTITUDES TO GRAMMAR

Response	Number	Percent
1 Absolutely essential	183	61.4%
2 Important but not essential	70	24%
3 Depends on the individual needs and talent level	12	4%
4 Not important	4	1%
5 I have not opinion on this issue	29	10%
Total number of responses: 298		

STUDENTS' ATTITUDES TO GRAMMAR
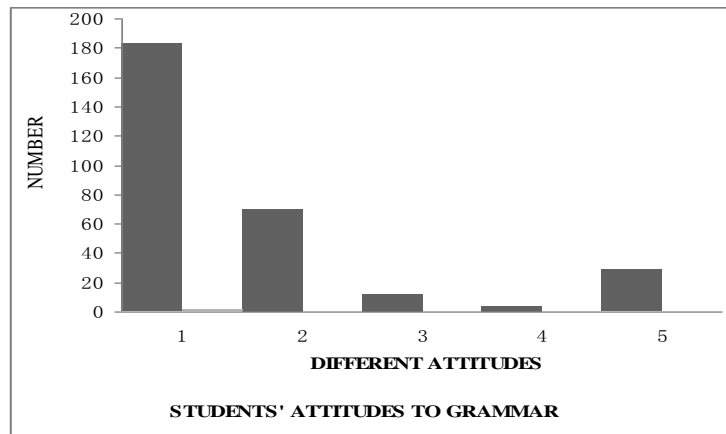
The table and chart above are the findings. While these responses may be interesting as a profile of these classes and their attitudes toward grammar study, they may also have some implications for the classroom English instruction. It is clear that students feel that grammar acquisition is important. Though they don't always like it, they recognize that it is necessary. Researchers studying students' attitudes toward grammar study recommend that teachers survey their own students as to their beliefs with regard to this topic. This suggestion is wholeheartedly seconded by the author.

B.   Correlation between Grammar Recognition and Test Scores

To explore relation between grammar knowledge of the test takers and their scores, in 2009 the author conducted a study in Class 1 Grade 2008 in the School of Physics and Electronic Electrical Engineering in Huaiyin Normal University (a local university in Jiangsu Province). Out of 23 students 13 passed December 2008 CET-4, the first time they took CET-4. So the students were divided in two groups(CET-4 holders and non-CET-4 holders). They were given an error-correction test.(See Appendix) The test is focused on grammar points to see the students' understanding of word order rules, tense awareness, passive vs. active voices, how to pick correct conjunctions, and other aspects of English grammar. It is specifically not meant to measure general aspects of competence such as speaking and listening. At the same time, as will be seen, these points of grammar are not meaningless rules, abstract ideas, or obsolete prescriptive grammar. Rather, they are crucial points for Chinese EFL learners in reading, writing and speaking English. Not just any kind of English, but academically and globally acceptable English.

The students' scores of the test and their corresponding scores of university entrance exam(HPS is 120) and CET-4(HPS is 710) are compared in the chart below.

TABLE 1
THE CET-4 CERFIFICAE HOLDERS

Student number	Error correction out of 10	Score in the entrance exam	Score in CET-4
2	7	93	492
7	6	82	478
8	8	92	510
10	6	88	431
11	9	100	592
12	8	97	514
15	10	104	545
16	7	87	454
18	9	93	495
20	5	83	446
21	7	105	459
22	10	101	532
23	8	92	510
average	7.7	93.6	496.8

TABLE 2
NON-CET-4 CERTIFICATE HOLDERS

Student number	Error correction out of 10	Score in the entrance exam	Score in CET-4
1	2	72	380
3	4	85	386
4	2	85	390
5	1	71	370
6	6	83	402
9	4	75	421
13	7	85	374
14	6	75	413
17	2	78	381
19	5	83	416
average	3.9	79.2	393.3

University entrance exams play a vital role in EFL in China and the Chinese general public are very keen on the scores of CET(College English Test). CET is kind of English proficiency tests to measure students' overall English skills. Among them the focus is on reading and listening. This can be judged by the amount of reading and listening in the test, which occupies 70 % of the whole test. It never asks grammar questions and it looks like grammar doesn't play an important part in CET, but in reality as the charts 1 and 2 above show that the CET-4 certificate holders did significantly better in the grammar test. After analyzing the results it became clear that there is an obvious relation between grammar knowledge of the test takers and their scores -- grammar recognition helps in English proficiency tests and college entrance exams, that is, the more knowledgeable in grammar they are, the higher the scores.

The responses of the students in this survey and the results of the tests may have been influenced by a number of factors including time constraints, the teaching style of their instructors in, their own learning style, the emphasis placed on grammar in the language curriculum, among many others. Though this study was by no means scientific, it can provide some interesting insights into grammar instruction and the way Chinese middle school students approach grammar in their language study.

VI. CONCLUSION

To sum up, Grammar as the law of language is essential to language. The relationship between grammar teaching and language skill cultivation is not one of contradiction but one of co-existence and mutual dependence, for language knowledge is the foundation of language skills and language skills are not only the means for communication but also the means for acquiring language knowledge. The nature of grammar determines that grammar teaching is necessary. Without a firm knowledge of grammar in the target language, learners cannot produce meaningful sentences. They risk being misunderstood and making crucial mistakes in communication both oral and written. This is especially true when the mother tongue and the target language are significantly different in grammar and structures.

APPENDIX ERROR CORRECTION TEST

1. Many students in our class prefer playing to study math.
2. She wants to something cold to drink for her breakfast.
3. I was in Hawaii during I was on vacation last summer.
4. This job can certainly do by the end of this week.
5. He has often visited this museum when he was a child.
6. Have you been seen the new dress Mary bought on the Elm Street yet?
7. Jane is one of most diligent student in our school.
8. Do I usually look like happy when I'm with you ?
9. Tell me what are you thinking right now.
10. She was heard to singing that old Irish folksong.

REFERENCES

[1]   Canale, M. and Swain, M. (1980).Theoretical Basis of Communication Approaches to Second Language Teaching and Testing. *Journal of Applied Linguistic* 1/1.
[2]   Celce-Murica.(1985). Making Informed Decisions about the Role of Grammar in Language Teaching. *TESOL Newsletters* 9. Feb1, 3-4.
[3]   Elley, W. B. (1994).Grammar Teaching and Language Skill. Encyclopedia of Language and Linguistics. Ed. R. Asher. Oxford: Pergamon. 1468-71
[4]   Elley, W. B., I. H. Barham, H. Lamb, and M. Wyllie.(1975). The Role of Grammar in a Secondary School Curriculum. New Zealand Council for Educational Studies.10, 26-41.
[5]   Gale, Irma Frances.(1967). An Experimental Study of Two Fifth-Grade Language-arts Programs. An Analysis of the Writing of Children Taught Linguistic Grammars Compared to Those Taught Traditional Grammar. PhD thesis, Ann Arbor.
[6]   Gattegno, C. (1976).The Common Sense of Teaching Foreign Language. New York: Educational Solutions.
[7]   Baotong Hang.(2000). English, Teach It Better. Shanghai: East China Normal University Press.
[8]   Harris, R. J.(1962). An Experimental Inquiry into the Functions and Value of Formal Grammar in the Teaching of English. With Special Reference to the Teaching of Correct Written English to Children Aged Twelve to Fourteen. PhD thesis, University of London.
[9]   Herriman, M. (1994).Literacy and Metalinguistic Awareness. Encyclopedia of Language and Linguistics. Ed. R. Asher. Oxford: Pergamon. 2243-6.
[10] Hudson, Richard. (1998).Is Grammar Teachable? *English*, 2, 11-14;82-3.
[11] Hymes, D. (1972).Communicative Competence. In J.B Pride and J. Halmer (ed.). *Sociolinguistics*, Harmondsworth: Penguin.
[12] Kennedy, L. D. & A. D. Larson. (1969).The Influence of Structural and Traditional Grammatical Instruction upon Language Perception and Writing Ability. *Illinois School Research* 5.2, 31-36.
[13] Krashen, S. D. & Terrell, T. (1983).The Natural Approach：Language Acquisition in the Classroom．Oxford: Pergamon.
[14] Larsen-Freeman, D. & Long, M. (1991).An Introduction to Second Language Acquisition and Research. London: Longman.
[15] Lado, R.(1964). Language Teaching: A Scientific Approach. New York: McGraw-Hill.
[16] Larsen-Freeman, D.(2000). Grammar Dimensions: Form, Meaning and Use. Boston: Heinle & Heinle.

[17] Littlewood, William. (1995).Communicative Language Teaching. Beijing: Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press. 2000.
[18] Mccleary, Bill.(1995). Grammar Making a Comeback in Composition Teaching. Composition Chronicle: Newsletter for Writing Teachers 8.6, 1-4.
[19] Mulroy, David. (2003).The War against Grammar. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.
[20] Palmer, Frank.(1972). Grammar. Harmondsworth: Penguin Books Ltd.
[21] Richards, Jack C. (1986).Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
[22] Jingjing Tang. (2002). The Importance of Grammar in Reading. Master Degree thesis, University of Central China Normal Press.
[23] Tomlinson, D.(1994). Errors in the Research into the Effectiveness of Grammar Teaching. *English in Education*. 28, 2-26.
[24] Thompson, D.(1969). Directions in the Teaching of English. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
[25] Weaver, Constance. (1996).Teaching Grammar in Context. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Shengmei Wang was born in Huaian, China in 1966. She received her BA. degree in linguistics from Yangzhou University, China in 1988.

She was previously a teacher in Huai'an Middle School and is currently a lecturer in the School of Foreign Languages, Huaiyin Normal University, Huai'an, China. Her research interests include applied linguistics, language and culture and syntax.

The Advantages and the Problems of Multimedia-aided English Reading Instruction

Liming Han
Human Resource Department, Dezhou University, Dezhou, China, 253023
Email: 2306579@163. com

Abstract—**Reading plays an important role in the process of language learning. In the modern society, teachers can apply the multimedia technology to assist the reading instruction. On the basis of the research of scholars in this or relevant field, this paper firstly centers on the advantages of multimedia-aided English reading instruction by comparison to the traditional instruction. And then the paper states the problems of the multimedia-aided English reading instruction in China to promote the application of multimedia aids to English reading instruction.**

Index Terms—**multimedia, advantage, English reading instruction**

I. INTRODUCTION

The emergence of the multimedia technology and the Internet has largely expanded the scope of CAI(Computer-Assisted Instruction), especially in the field of language learning, thus arousing the interest of more and more researchers and instructors. When CAI is applied for the language learning, CALL emerges. CALL is short for Computer-Assisted Language Learning which is the search for and study of applications of computers in language learning defined by Michael Levy. CALL is an important program that has been studied by the teaching staff in the last few years, which can be described as such model: teacher + learner + computer (or Internet + courseware). CALL is mainly based on two important technologies— the multimedia computers and the Internet and it is based on constructivism learning theory, which holds the view that knowledge is acquired not by teaching but by constructing meaning on condition that learners make use of useful learning materials with the help of teachers or partners. From a broad sense, CALL is a new teaching methodology adopting computers as the media. Multimedia is a buzzword today in the field of the computer. Multimedia means to combine a variety of media—text, graphics, sound, animations, video and other visual information into a computer to make up a new application system. "Multi" refers to multisensory function, multi-facilities and multi-field application. "Media" refers to the intermediary instrument between human and the real world. In a narrow sense, it means all aids may be used by teachers and students to attain certain educational objectives. What makes multimedia even more powerful is the Internet, which can link the information together all around the world and create a more authentic learning environment, easily integrates reading, writing, speaking and listening materials.

II. THE ADVANTAGE OF THE MULTIMEDIA-AIDED ENGLISH READING INSTRUCTION

In the traditional teaching, reading instruction skills and strategies are still poor and undeveloped. The speech-dominated education employs a teacher-centered, book-centered, grammar-translation method and focuses more emphasis on rote memory than other practicable skills. Teachers who are feeling like spoon feeding their students generally receive higher appreciation than teachers who are not. The teachers always give up the stimulating interaction activities such as games, role-plays, talk-based communicative activities in class and they are skeptical of the use of games as learning tools, especially in the senior high school because the students should face the college entrance examination. To make things worse, there are students who may go so far as to distinguish "good teachers" from "bad ones" solely by how many pages they can cover in their notebooks and how many his or her students get a place in the famous university or college.

Multimedia teaching mode gains many advantages. If the teachers make well use of the advantages of the multimedia technology and the Internet resources and work out courseware, they can deal with the reading course more interestingly and the students are more active by comparison to the traditional teaching climate. According to Mo Jinguo's survey(2002), the student would get better mark: in the multimedia class, their mark is 81.15 on average, while 79.78 in the non-multimedia class.

The advantages of multimedia-aided English reading instruction will be illustrated from the following aspects.

A. To Arouse Students' Reading Interest and to Enhance Their Motivation

As a result of the spoon-feeding teaching method, teachers are seen as the providers of knowledge and the students dutifully but passively assimilate the teachers' words of wisdom, working their way boringly through the textbook,

reading the text word by word and too much focusing on detail information and structural analysis. Many students are tired of this type of traditional English classes and no longer have enthusiasm or motivation for study.

Compared with the traditional English teaching, multimedia is good for arousing students' reading interest and motivating students to study English. Multimedia assists the teacher to integrate the pictures, music and video into the courseware and make the content more colorful. In the multimedia-aided reading classroom, the teacher transforms the static text into dynamic one. For example, when teaching about the Olympic Games, the teacher plays a short scene of the Olympic Games match during the pre-reading activities, which will stimulate the student's audio and visual senses and their attention is greatly attracted immediately, and then asks students to read the text. If the time and condition is permitted, the teacher can also play some short films about the athletes mentioned by the text. During the post-reading, students can hand in their assignments by sending email to the teacher at their time and pace and they can also asks for advice or discuss problems of the text with their teachers or classmates. Most of students admit that they get much fun from this new style of teaching and learning by means of computer. Thus a good learning circle will certainly come into being.

B.   To Effect Learners' Autonomy

Chinese students tend to consider their teachers the main source of their knowledge. Although they dislike the so-called spoon-feeding teaching, they have been accustomed to it. They seldom use their initiative to solve the problems.

On one hand, the ever-increasing necessity for teaching students how to become independent and autonomous learners has brought new perspectives to the teaching professions and change traditional ideas about teacher's roles. Autonomy does not mean without teacher's guide but is a matter of degree.   Students can be asked to do lots of activities via the multimedia but the resources are so wide in the multimedia. So before students start the activity, the teachers should give instructions clearly and concisely so that students know what to do and how to search the suitable information from the multimedia. Subsequently, the learners can actively put their previous experience into the new information working together with their partners by searching, reasoning and analyzing according to their own strategies so that they deal with the problems successfully. In the multimedia environment, learners do not confine themselves to the textbooks and relevant reference books; instead, they must explore the abundance of online information.

On the other hand, multimedia teaching modes include assisting self-study mode, which is helpful to turn a passive learner into an active one through stimulating the initiatives in learners. Giving immediate feedback is an important aspect of computer-aided reading instruction, since it allows students to evaluate their answers while the questions are fresh in their minds. It helps prevent them from repeating the same mistakes before they get feedbacks from their teacher. Computer can analyze the problems of each student, and the analysis help the teacher instruct students properly.

C.   To Promote an Advanced Interactive Model of Reading

Interaction is widely used nowadays. According to the New Oxford Dictionary of English, "interaction" refers to the "mutual or reciprocal action or influence". In the interactive mode, interaction includes student-teacher, student-student, student-computer and student-author interaction.

The former three interactive types are becoming plentiful in the multimedia environment. Teacher-student interaction is an integral part of language classroom teaching for it builds up rapport between the teacher and students. In the student-student interactive activities, group work is one widely adopted and of great importance. From the beginning of the language study, classrooms should be interactive. When the teachers design the teaching plan, they should keep in mind that one of the multimedia basic natures is interaction, so they will add some interaction elements into the class, for instance, when teaching the lesson New Zealand, the teacher can design a crossword puzzle and break up the map of the New Zealand into pieces on the computer. While reading, the teacher can divide the students into several groups according to their interest or other factors, and then ask students to fulfill the blank of the crossword puzzle by clicking the keys to remember the new words, and ask them to match the broken map correctly by clicking and drawing with the mouse through group discussion. And at the same time, the computer can evaluate the result immediately. If a piece of map is drawn to the proper position, the screen will show "Congratulations", while to the incorrect position, the screen will show "Sorry, try again", and then the teacher should give some advice to them to match the map correctly. In this way, the interactive mode will yield the positive relationship among the teacher, students and the computer and provide the optimum classroom environment.

D.   To Increase Students' Awareness in Culture Differences and Promote Transcultural Communication

Reading materials include verbal knowledge and nonverbal knowledge. In this paper, nonverbal knowledge refers to the background knowledge. It is difficult to decide which is more important, verbal knowledge or nonverbal. They all attribute to the English reading comprehension.   This part just wants to stress the role of background knowledge in the reading activity. According to Anderson and Pearson's "Schema theory" that what a reader owns in his head has a great effect on his reading comprehension, learners' background knowledge plays an important role in the comprehension of a text.   The reading materials are mainly about persons and things in English-speaking countries, including background

knowledge of culture, history, customs, politics, religion and places of interest etc. A successful reading depends not only on the readers' language proficiency, but also on his or her mastery of background knowledge. Some researchers on background knowledge in reading suggest that a high degree of background knowledge can overcome linguistic deficiencies in that it helps the reader retrieve information to contribute to his comprehension. Multimedia has obvious advantages over other media. Multimedia technology seems more suitable to prepare students by helping them build background knowledge on the topic prior to reading, through appropriate pre-reading activities. Using multimedia can rapidly demonstrate background knowledge related to the texts and help the students construct relevant schema. It is generally agreed that what helps in culture acquisition are visual aids. Nowadays, students have easier access to visual aids such as films video, tapes and radios in the multimedia room. On watching and listening, the teacher asks students to pay attention to the different cultures. These will forcefully make the students sense that they are entering another culture. During the pre-reading, if teacher can play VCD about the text, the students' attention will be attracted and they will certainly take interest in what they are going to read. For example, when teaching the lesson New Zealand, the teacher can play some documentary about this nation, such as its anthem, geography, history and its people, all of which can contribute to the students to get familiar with New Zealand which gains a lot of features and customs in the southern sphere. If the software includes this idiomatic background knowledge, not only will it greatly enhance students' interest and enlarge their knowledge but also it can foster students' inter-cultural communicative ability and ability to fit in with society. After watching the documentaries, students have been impressed by the visual information, and then they are asked to perform in the front of the classroom according to the documentaries. One day, if the students have chance to go aboard or meet a foreigner coming from this country, they can communicate well with each other without embarrassment. In this way, the teaching effect will be more satisfactory. Consequently, when students have developed awareness of language, in the same way, they should be encouraged to develop a parallel awareness of culture. Knowing the target culture, students can have a better understanding of foreign countries and learn to "discard the dross and select the essence".

III. Problems of the Current Multimedia-aided English Reading Instruction

After analyzing the above advantages of the multimedia-aided English reading instruction, someone will think that the multimedia is omnipotent. They will advocate that all the school should equip the multimedia computers and link them to the Internet. This is an inevitable trend in the future based on the modern technology development, but currently, multimedia-aided English reading instruction still faces some problems. Students and teachers should be well aware of them while learning and teaching.

A. Lack of Facilities

A multimedia classroom should be equipped with the computer, video machine, screen, high project and stereo, all of which cost almost 100 thousands that is not a small amount for some schools in China. And the situation is various in different provinces. Yu tang made a survey among 380 English teachers of 177 schools in Beijing in 2000, indicating that 215 teachers said that their schools were equipped with computers accounting for 56.8%. But in Anhui province, according to Pan Linxin's survey, of 177 schools, only 12.4% owned their multimedia classrooms; what is more, only one school could link to the Internet. [8] The above figures show that a lot of schools just own only a few multimedia classrooms, but without the high quality ones, meanwhile, the limited amounts are usually overloaded day and night, thus sometimes, these equipments can not meet the teaching need and it costs much to maintain them. Considering its practicability, many schools often choose the large classroom to fix the multimedia so that it can accommodate more than 100 students. Such classroom is not suitable for English learning because they can not create an active climate for student to learn effectively, but in a small class, the teacher has more time to spend on each student and students have more opportunities to participate in class activities and ask questions. And it is more difficult to popularize the modern expensive language laboratory which can provide each student a computer and can make the individual learning and Internet collaborative learning more conveniently. The multimedia-aided instruction often lacks sufficient facilities. In the future, if this problem can be solved successfully, multimedia will be more popular for the teachers and the students.

B. Lack of Well-Trained Teachers

With the popularization of modern teaching methods in the information age, it is more challenging for teachers now that the expectations are more complex and teachers face higher requirements. In other words, teaching is no longer a one-to-many model and the role of teachers has evolved, moving from a traditional teaching role to facilitators when learners take advantage of the true potential of multimedia computers and the Internet as learning tools. But now in China, there is lack of such teachers who are not only good at English teaching but also good at mastering the computer technology. One survey shows that 19% teachers often use multimedia, 35% teachers use multimedia sometimes and 90% teachers say that the multimedia plays an important role in assisting English reading. But 60% teachers think it is more difficult to employ the multimedia and around 70% English teachers do not join any computer training. [9] So the teacher should be trained to master the latest multimedia technology, especially for many senior teachers because most of them have been used to the teaching model and did not master the instruction technology. Even the teacher with high English proficiency can not achieve the expected result because their incorrect operation will interrupt the lesson

process. If they do not catch up with the pace of the technology, one day, they will be deleted by the society. From this point, each English teacher should be ready to master the modern advanced machine—the computer and to learn how to make courseware by software such as: PowerPoint, Flash, Authorware etc.

C. The Wrong Concept

Although multimedia is moderately effective, the human component in assisting readers is vital. It is generally believed that when teachers stay with their students for many years, they are better able to understand each other and yield positive results for both teachers and students. Nowadays, with adequate training and support, utilization of modern teaching methods can make teaching efficient and do part of work instead of teachers. But sometimes teachers just sit in front of the computer to deliver the lesson, especially in the large classroom, it is impossible for the teacher to ask each student to answer questions or deliver a presentation. In order to testify the fact, the author makes a questionnaire in his college. It shows that over 83% students said their teachers just delivered the lessons like the above described way, only a few teachers would ask students to do interactive activities. And according to Ma Junbo's survey(2003), the factors that affect the use of multimedia include lack of English teachers with good computer proficiency (22%), lack of relevant methodology (25%), lack of software (27%) and lack of hardware (23%).The former three factors are human elements accounting for three quarters. So people should keep in mind that the computer is just a tool to assist the teaching process and it is wrong for some people to hold the view that "machine" can take the place of human beings.

IV.　CONCLUSION

The utilization of multimedia and Internet in the reading instruction provides tools and rich environments for foreign language learners and is becoming wider and more efficient. Such an instruction reform is the good way to carry out quality-oriented education which concentrates on learners' developing in an all-round way and stresses that learners are subjects of learning. Since problems still exist in the current multimedia–aided English reading instructions, the study of how to utilize computers to assist language instruction is well worth studying.

REFERENCES

[1]   Mo Jinguo. (2002). On the Multimedia Teaching Model of the College English, *Media in Foreign Language Instruction* 10, 28-29.
[2]   Zeng Ping. (2004). On the Study of English Reading Teaching Method Assisted by Computer in Secondary Vocational School, *Journal of Guangxi Normal University* 2, 3.
[3]   Su Yong. (2004). Multimedia-assisted English Reading Teaching, *Chinese College Teaching* 1,56.
[4]   Mo Jinguo. (2002). On the Multimedia Teaching Model of the College English, *Media in Foreign Language Instruction* 10,30.
[5]   Zhang Dianyu. (2005). English Learning Strategy and Autonomous Learning, *Foreign Language Teaching*1, 49.
[6]   Li Changzhong. (2000). The Study of the Foreign Language Reading Theory and Teaching, *Journal of Xuzhou Normal University*1,81.
[7]   Ge Bingfang. (2001). The Role of Multimedia Technology in Middle School English Teaching, *Media in Foreign Language Instruction*1, 51.
[8]   Pan Lixin. (2001). On the Investigation and the analysis of the Computer Current Situation in Elementary and Secondary school in Anhui Province, *Audio-Visual Education Research*1, 6, 73-74.
[9]   Ma Junbo. (2003). The Survey of the Computer Level and the Current Situation of Computer-assisted English Teaching among the College English Teachers, *Media in Foreign Language Instruction* 2, 58.

Liming Han was born in Dezhou, China, in 1966. She received B.A from China Petroleum University(East China).Now she is working in the Human Resource Department, Dezhou University. Her research interests include linguistics and comparative literature.

Context of Situation in Translation

Shuqin Hu

College of Foreign Languages, Qingdao University of Science and Technology, Qingdao, 266061, China
E-mail: shqhu@sina.com

Abstract—**Context is an important concept in language study. According to the theory of systemic-functional linguistics, context of situation determines the meaning system of a text, and therefore translation is a process of reestablishing situational context in target language. Since no identical contexts exist, different translation strategies should be made. From this perspective, the problem of translation criteria can be explored in a new way.**

Index Terms—**context, context of situation, translation, preservation, shift**

I. CONTEXT AND ITS FUNCTION IN TRANSLATION

The concept of context has been extensively studied by different linguists from different perspectives, such as pragmatics and systemic-functional linguistics. Among them, Halliday's approach shows clear advantages in translation study with its emphasis on language function, and therefore will be employed in the analysis of this paper.

In the framework proposed by Halliday, the concept of context consists of three strata: context of culture, context of situation and co-text. Context of culture and context of situation are outside of language itself. Co-text, also known as linguistic context, is certainly inside of language itself. There is a close interdependent relationship between language and context. Context determines and is constructed by the choice of language. On the one hand, language, when considered as a system--its lexical items and grammatical categories—is related to its context of culture. While on the other hand, the specific text and its component parts are related to its context of situation. To be specific, context of culture is related to genre, context of situation is related to register, and co-text to the discourse itself.

Context of situation consists of three aspects: field, tenor and mode. Field refers to what is happening, to the nature of social action that is taking place. It answers such questions as what it is that the participant is engaged in. Tenor refers to who is taking part, to the nature of the participants, their status and roles: what kind of role relationship obtain among the participants, including permanent and temporary relationships of one kind or another, both the types of speech role that they are taking on in the dialogue and the whole cluster of socially significant relationships in which they are involved. Mode refers to what part the language is playing, what it is that the participants are expecting the language to do for them in that situation: the symbolic organization of the text, the status that it has, and its function in the context, including the channel and also the rhetorical mode, what is being achieved by the text in terms of such categories as persuasive, expository, didactic and the like. Collectively the three aspects of situational context are called register.

Context of situation is closely related to various texts. Certain situational context asks for certain text and in return, certain text creates certain context. In the process of communication, the meaning system is largely determined by the three aspects of situational context: ideational meaning by field, interpersonal meaning by tenor and textual meaning by mode (Baker, 2000: 9). Studies in register analysis are of significance to translators. In the translation process, first, through the analysis of the linguistic feature of the SLT, its register can be identified and thus the determination of its context of situation is possible. Second, in the production of the TLT, the proper words and expressions in the TL should be chosen so that the corresponding context of situation can be reestablished in the TLT.

Seeking the equivalence of meaning is in fact seeking the equivalence of situational context. In translation, equivalence should not be based on one aspect of meaning (say ideational meaning); the translator must pursue equivalence of three aspects of meaning at the same time. Since the complete identity of situational context and meaning system between cultures is impossible, the complete equivalence is equally impossible. "Texts in different languages can be equivalent in different degrees (fully or partially equivalent in respects of context, of semantics, of grammar, of lexis etc.), and at different ranks (word-for-word, phrase-for-phrase, sentence-for-sentence)(baker, 2000: 6). Something is always lost in the process. Then what should be "preserved" and what should be "given up"? The translator is obliged to take these register variables into consideration in the process of translation rather than make decisions randomly or according to his/her personal favor. This concept throws new lights to the age-old debate concerning the translator's priorities: "literal" versus "free", "form" versus "content", "formal" versus "dynamic" equivalence, "semantic" versus "communicative" translating, "domestication" versus "foreignization" and translator's "visibility" versus "invisibility". In order to answer the above question, the translator has to turn to cultural context, since "what are relevant to translation are not only situational context but also cultural context. Language is a substantial but partial reflection of a culture." (Newmark, 1991:73). A language reflects the culture of a society, not only in its option of vocabulary, but also in its syntax and way of organizing ideas. In single context world, the author communicates with the source text readers who share the same cultural background knowledge with him/her. Therefore,

they can co-operate with each other in the process of communication quite harmoniously. But the process of translation often breaks this harmony. "Translation is displaced and disjoined communication."(Neubert, 1992:10). In translation, the original text is deprived of its context and the information it carries is encoded in an entirely different language with an entirely different context. The reader may not be able to meet the expectation of the author, thus there comes information gap. The translator's job is to make up this gap and harmonize the communication. So Nida (1998:308) said, "For truly successful translating, biculturalism is even more important than bilingualism". When the cultural factors are incompatible in the target cultural context, the translator has to choose different strategies to cope with this cultural clash. Li Yunxing (2001:123) generalized several models in the translation of cultural factors: (1) the go-ahead model, transplanting them directly to the target text; (2) the block model, giving them up; (3) the annotation model, providing adequate explanation on the cultural factors; (4) the integration model, integrating the expressing modes of both cultures to create a new language form; (5) the adaptation model, replacing expression in the source culture with that in the target culture at the expense of the cultural meaning. In order to decide which model to choose, the translator still has to turn to the sociological parameters, which decide the discourse parameters (the register variables) in turn, namely, the participants, the setting and the purpose of translation. The following will give a detailed explanation of two different translation strategies concerning situational context (or register).

II. PRESERVATION OF THE CONTEXT OF SITUATION ACROSS LANGUAGES

Usually, register is preserved in the translation process, as the overlook of any of the three variables: field, tenor and mode, will change the meaning of the SLT. For example,

Multiple reflections, mistakes, and diffraction effects at the edges of the sample are generally considered the main sources of errors. To enhance the measurement accuracy, special attention must be paid to the choice of the radiating elements, the design of the sample holder, and the sample thickness and location between the two radiating elements.

译文一： 多重反射、不匹配，及样品边缘的散射反应，通常是产生误差的主要原因。为提高测试的准确度，应特别注意辐射元素的选择，样品支架的设计以及两个辐射元素之间的样品的厚度和位置。

译文二：多次反射、失配，及样品边缘的衍射效应是误差的主要根源。为提高测量的精度，特别注意辐射元件的选择，样品支架的设计以及辐射元件间的样品的厚度和取向。

The SLT is a very formal technical text. The field determines the ideational meaning, which is realized by such lexical terms as *multiple reflections, diffraction effects, measurement accuracy, radiating elements, location*. Translation one is by a student of English major, while translation two by a graduate student of chemistry major. It is very obvious that translation two is more appropriate, since its translator have a better knowledge of the field in SLT.

Tenor decides interpersonal meaning. In the process of translation, the translator should pay close attention to the interpersonal relationship intended by the SLT, which is determined by its tenor. For example, , the character Kong Yiji in Luxun's famous short story *Kongyiji*, who was a pedantic old-type scholar, often used very formal words to show that he was different from not educated folks. When he distributed beans flavored with aniseed among children, he said "不多不多！多乎哉？不多也。" Yang Xianyi translated the sentence into "Not many, I do assure you. Not many, nay, not many at all." The use of *nay* reestablished the interpersonal relationship intended by Kong Yiji.

III. SHIFT OF THE CONTEXT OF SITUATION ACROSS LANGUAGE

In most cases, the register of the SLT should be preserved in the course of translation. However, in some cases, the field of the SLT and that of the TLT will remain the same, whereas the tenor needs to be shifted, which usually results in the shift of the mode. As both Gut and House point out, "the register appropriate in a given situation will vary between languages......As a corollary, register shifts would have to occur in the process of translation." (Fawcet, 1997:83).

A text is a form of communication that takes place between particular participants in a particular time and place, context of situation needs to be taken into account in the process of translation: its participants, medium, and other factors as well. The potential readers (the participant variables) are quite different in terms of their social class, education, age, taste etc. In order to meet the expectation of the target reader, the translator may have to adjust certain content or style of language, and this may result in the change of tenor, mode or even field. For example, *Farewell to Arms*, the title of a film was translated as "战地春梦" to cater to the taste of common people, while when taken as the title of the literary book, it may sounds vulgar to those whose aim is to get the literary spirit of Hemingway, thus it is changed into "永别了，武器".

The following is another example, which involves the change of mode in the process of translation. For example:

这里 3000 座奇峰拔地而起,形态各异,有的似玉柱神鞭,立地顶天;有的像铜墙铁壁,巍然屹立;有的如晃板垒卵,遥遥欲坠;有的若盆景古董,玲珑剔透,神奇而又真实,迷离而又实在,不是艺术创造胜似艺术创造,令人叹为观止"有人将这段译成如下译文:

Translation one: 3000 crags rise in various shapes. They are like whips or pillars propping up the sky, or huge walls, solid and sound; or immense eggs pilled on an unsteady boarder; or miniature rocky or curios… Fantastic but actual, dreamy but real! They are not artistic works, but more exquisite than artistic works. One can not help marveling at the acme of perfection of Nature's creation.

Translation two: 3000 crags rise in various shapes—pillars, columns, walls, shaky egg stacks and potted landscapes…conjuring up fantastic and unforgettable images.

The SLT is a scenery introduction typical of Chinese. By using many elaborate adjectives, parallel structures, and idioms, it caters to the taste of Chinese readers and meets their mode of thinking. While in an English text of the same type plain and clear language is expected to be used. Therefore, translation two is more appropriate.

In conclusion, the situational context theory can be used to explain many seemingly opposite concepts in translation such as foreignization and domestication, faithfulness and naturalness etc. The translator has to analyze the specific situational context of both the SLT and the TLT. Only by doing this can s/he strike a balance between these dual concepts and make proper decisions on her/his specific translating strategies. This viewpoint is in accordance with the "skopos theory" in Germany. One of its scholars, Christiane Nord (see 2001:34) proposes "adequacy" rather than "equivalence" as the utmost aim and evaluating standard of translation.

<div align="center">REFERENCES</div>

[1]   Baker, M. (2000). In Other Words－a Course Book on Translation. Beijing: Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press.
[2]   Halliday, M.A.K. & Hason, R. (1976).Cohesion in English. London: Longman.
[3]   Halliday, M.A.K. (1999). The notion of Context in Language education. In *Text and Context in Functional Linguistics.* Philadelphia: John Benjamins Publishing Company.
[4]   Nord, C. (2001). Translating as a Purposeful Activity—Functionalist Approach Explained. Shanghai: Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press.
[5]   Newmark, P. (1991). About Translation. Multilingual Matters ltd.
[6]   Neubert, A. & Gregory M. S. (1992). Translation as Text. The Kent State University Press.
[7]   Nida, E. A. (1998). Language, Culture and Translating. Inner Mongolia University Press.
[8]   Fawcett, Peter. (1997). Translation and Language: Linguistic Theories Explained. Manchester: St. Jerome Publishing.
[9]   Li, Yunxing. (2001). Yupian Fanyi Yinlun (Introducing Theories of text Translation).Beijing: China Translation and Publishing Corporation.
[10] Zhang, Delu. (1998). Gongneng Wenti Xue(Functional Typology). Jinan: Shandong Education Press.
[11] Huang，Guowen. (1988).Yupian Fenxi Gaiyao(Essentials of Text Analysis). Changsha: Hunan Education Publishing House.
[12] Huang, Zhonglian. (2002).Variation Translation. *Foreign Languages Research*.3.
[13] Zhang, Meifang & Huang, Guowen. (2002).A Text Linguistic Approach to Translation Studies. *Chinese Translators Journal*,3.

Shuqin Hu was born in Linyi, China in 1978. She received his M.A. degree in linguistics from Ocean University of China, China in 2003.

She is currently an instructor in the College of Foreign Languages, Qingdao University of Science and Technology, Qingdao, China. Her research interests include translation theory and practice.

An Empirical Study of Chinese Learners' Intercultural Sensitivity

Xinmin Hou

Study Abroad Program, Xi'an International Studies University, Xian, China
Email: philiphou78@yahoo.com

Abstract—This paper is a pilot study which endeavors to evaluate the status quo of the Chinese learners intercultural sensitivity. The study provides first-hand information for intercultural education in China.

Index Terms— intercultural sensitivity, intercultural communication competence

I. INTRODUCTION

The present study aims at assessing the intercultural sensitivity of EFL learners in China, especially in Xi'an International Studies University. A questionnaire is used to obtain related data.

The subjects involved in the study are middle-aged Chinese learners. They come from different parts of China and major in science and arts. Most of them are university lecturers and they are selected by China Scholarship Council to be visiting scholars. They are scheduled to go abroad to continue their research work for one year. Before they start their journey, they need to study for half a year in one of the eleven training departments under directly leadership of the Educational Ministry of China. At the end of their training program, they have to take an English proficient test. If they are lucky enough to pass it, they can be sent abroad. Before they embark their trip abroad, it is quite necessary to have a clear picture of their intercultural communication competence so that we may gather some valuable information for the training of the upcoming Chinese learners.

Altogether 120 learners in four classes are selected. Among them 115 feedbacks are received. After deleting the questionnaires with more than one missing data, there are 95 subjects left in the study, consisting of 50 males and 45 females, of which 80 are aged between 30 - 40, and 15 between 41-50.

A questionnaire is employed for the study. The questionnaire consists of two parts. Part one gives the general introduction to the author and the instruments. Part two is Chen and Starosta's ISS (Intercultural Sensitivity Scale).

The ISS is a 24-item, 5-likert scale, which are Interaction Engagement, Respect for Cultural Differences, Interaction Confidence, Interaction Enjoyment and Interaction Attentiveness. For each item in the scale, there are five choices: 5=strongly agree, 4=agree, 3=uncertain, 2=disagree, and 1=strongly disagree.

The first factor--Interaction Engagement includes 7 items, which are related to participants' feeling of participation in intercultural communication. The second factor--Respect for Culture Difference includes 6 items, which are about how participants orient to or tolerate their counterparts' culture and opinion. The third factor--Interaction Confidence has 5 items, which are concerned with how confident participants are in the intercultural setting. The forth factor---Interaction Enjoyment includes 3 items, which deal with participants' positive or negative reaction towards communicating with people from different cultures. The last one--Interaction Attentiveness has 3 items, which are concerned with participants' effort to understand what is going on in intercultural interaction.

II. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

Factor 1 Interaction Engagement

Choices / Item	The number of choices and their percentage for each item in the factor									
	5	Percentage	**4**	Percentage	**3**	Percentage	**2**	Percentage	**1**	Percentage
1	30	32%	55	58%	7	7%	2	2%	1	1%
11	23	24%	32	34%	28	30%	7	7%	5	5%
13	30	32%	47	49%	11	12%	6	6%	1	1%
21	23	24%	50	53%	15	16%	6	6%	1	1%
22	5	5%	16	17%	36	38%	28	30%	10	10%
23	16	17%	43	45%	28	30%	7	7%	1	1%
24	14	15%	48	51%	25	26%	7	7%	1	1%

The first factor Interaction Engagement is concerned with participant's feeling of participation in intercultural communication. As can be seen from table 1, about 58% (24% + 34%) of the subjects agree that they tend to wait before forming an impression of culturally-distinct counterparts (item 11). This indicates that they will not jump to a conclusion before patiently listening to the counterparts. In other words, they will not easily be influenced by stereotypes which are the perceptions or beliefs we hold about groups or individuals based on previously formed

opinions and attitudes (He, Jamison, Antoniou and Whiteman, 2004). Stereotype helps to simplify the complex task of identification and makes it easier to decide what behavior is appropriate and what behavior is to expect in a new situation. However, stereotypes mainly apply to the behavior norm of groups rather than individual. According to Adler, they are harmful when adhered to rigidly, and become counterproductive when placing people in the wrong group, especially if they are oversimplified or over-generalized (He, Jamison, Antoniou and Whiteman, 2004). With the development of the society and education nowadays, on one hand, Chinese learners usually have many chances to meet and communicate with people from different cultures, for example, some foreign teachers and scholars come to China to give academic lectures; on the other hand, they learn some of the cultural knowledge from books or other media. The cultural knowledge, to some extent, can be considered as the generalizations or stereotypes. In the process of communicating with the culturally different people, Chinese learners may find that there are some discrepancies between the cultural knowledge they learn from books and the real intercultural communication situation in which they interact with foreigners. Therefore, they tend to wait and meditate whether these stereotypes are right or not. It makes sense why more than half of them show such an attitude. Such an attitude will help them with the development of their general intercultural communication competence and can usefully influence them in their future interaction with people from different cultural backgrounds.

As many as 90% (32% + 58%) of the subjects express that they "enjoy interacting with people from different cultures" (item 1). 81% (32%+49%) of the subjects are open-minded to people from different cultures (item 13) while 66% (15%+51%) have a feeling of enjoyment towards differences between their culturally-distinct counterpart and them (item 24). These students can be divided into the category that Chen and Starosta (1997) regard as with high self-esteem and open-minded. Thus they usually hold positive attitude in intercultural communication and are willing to openly explain and accept differences between them and their cultural counterparts.

Moreover, 62% (17%+45%) of the subjects often show their culturally-distinct counterpart their understanding through verbal or non-verbal cues (item 23); 77% (24%+53%) of the subjects often give positive responses to their culturally different counterpart during their interaction (item 21). These figures indicate that a large majority of Chinese learners enjoy interacting with culturally different counterparts. However, only 22% (5%+17%) of the subjects avoid the situation when he or she has to deal with culturally-distinct persons (item 22). These students do not master the skills needed in intercultural communication events. Therefore, not only the desire and feeling of enjoyment towards differences between cultures but also proper communicating skills are needed to promote and smoothen intercultural communication.

Factor 2 Respect for Cultural Difference

Choices / Item	The number of choices and their percentage for each item in the factor									
	5	Percentage	4	Percentage	3	Percentage	2	Percentage	1	Percentage
2	3	3%	3	3%	11	12%	47	49%	31	33%
7	3	3%	8	8%	6	6%	52	55%	26	27%
8	53	56%	31	33%	6	6%	3	3%	2	2%
16	34	36%	46	48%	7	8%	5	5%	3	3%
18	3	3%	5	5%	21	22%	38	40%	28	30%
20	5	5%	17	18%	31	33%	28	30%	14	14%

The second factor--Respect for Cultural Difference is mainly about how participants orient to or tolerate their counterparts' culture and opinions. 6 % (3%+3%) of the subjects agree that "people from other cultures are narrow-minded" (item 2); 11 % (3%+8%) of the subjects "don't like to be with people from different cultures" (item 7); 89 % (56%+33%) of the subjects "respect the values of people from different cultures" (item 8); 84 % (36%+48%) of the subjects "respect the ways people from different cultures behave" (item 16); only 8 % (3%+5%) "would not accept the opinions of people from different cultures" (item 18); All these indicate that the majority of the subjects do not reject opinions held by their culturally-different counterparts; neither do they hesitate to associate with people of different cultures. On the other hand, they are open-minded, willing to accept and appreciate different opinions and ideas. Acceptance of cultural difference represents a major shift from ethnocentrism to ethnorelativism. Cultural difference is no longer judged by the standards of one's own culture and "those who have moved into this stage have undergone a shift in their perception of difference; they no longer find difference threatening."

However, still 23 % (5%+18%) of the subjects think their culture is better than other cultures (item 20). It is possible that some Chinese learners who have awareness of the cultural differences and similarities may be unwilling to respect those cultural differences because of some deep-rooted perceptions, stereotypes or prejudices. Bennett (1993) notes that group or individual whose intercultural sensitivity is in the ethnocentric stage will react to cultural difference with defensive actions, and they can only perceive the world from their only cultural reality. Though those Chinese learners have a lot of chances to obtain knowledge about different cultures through many channels such as journals, internet, and mass media, some of these channels may be the production of obvious ethnocentric and self-centered points of view. And this will cast impact on their perspective.

Factor 3 Interaction Confidence

Choices / Item	The number of choices and their percentage for each item in the factor									
	5	Percentage	4	Percentage	3	Percentage	2	Percentage	1	Percentage
3	10	11%	45	47%	33	35%	5	5%	2	2%
4	3	3%	33	35%	22	23%	26	27%	11	12%
5	4	4%	23	24%	51	54%	16	17%	1	1%
6	7	7%	26	27%	41	43%	19	20%	2	2%
10	14	15%	43	45%	24	25%	12	13%	2	2

The third factor--Interaction Confidence has 5 items, which are concerned with how confident participants are in the intercultural setting. The above table shows that 58% (11%+47%) of the subjects feel pretty sure of themselves in interaction with people from different cultures (item 3); 38 % (3%+35%) of the subjects find it very hard to talk in front of people from different cultures (item 4); 28% (4%+24%) of the subjects know what to say when interacting with people from different cultures (item 5); 34 % (7%+27%) of the subjects can be as sociable as they want to be when interacting with people from different cultures (item 6); 60 % (15%+45%) of the subjects feel confident when interacting with people from different cultures (item 10). All these indicate that nearly half or more of the Chinese learners do not have much confidence when interacting with culturally-distinct people.

In his many years of study with over twenty-five thousand learners of language living and studying abroad, Coleman (2002) has pointed out that "the problem of confidence clearly needs addressing" (p.1). He has found that linguistic and personal confidence appeared frequently under anticipated worries and problems. Rodgers and McGoven (2002) have also noticed that individuals must meet the challenges of language barriers, unfamiliar customs and practices, and cultural variations in verbal and nonverbal communication styles in order to achieve successful intercultural understanding. As a result, linguistic and cultural barriers often carry evaluative and affective consequences for interactants in an intercultural context, resulting in their lacking of confidence.

According to the above findings, it can be inferred that the subjects' weakness in interaction confidence should also be derived from challenges in both language and cultural aspects. These two barriers must be overcome in order to improve interaction confidence. As second language and culture learning is rather a comprehensive and chronological process, there is a long way for Chinese learners to go in perfecting their foreign language and cultural competence. Only a linguistic competence can hardly help Chinese learners achieve a fairly satisfactory intercultural competence without rich intercultural experience in reality. Through adjusting Chinese learners' attitude and behavior in intercultural interaction and gaining more intercultural knowledge consciously, their interaction confidence will be improved and then their intercultural sensitivity will be raised.

Factor 4 Interaction Enjoyment

Choices / Item	The number of choices and their percentage for each item in the factor									
	5	Percentage	4	Percentage	3	Percentage	2	Percentage	1	Percentage
9	1	1%	12	13%	22	23%	42	44%	18	19%
12	2	2%	14	15%	19	20%	38	40%	22	23%
15	2	2%	8	8%	14	15%	50	53%	21	22%

The fourth factor--Interaction Enjoyment, as defined by Chen and Starosta (2000), is about participants' positive or negative reaction towards communicating with people from different cultures. Jettmer and Nass (2002) believe that enjoyment of the interaction is composed of the following items: pleasantness of the interaction, productiveness of the interaction, enjoyment of the interaction, and cooperative nature of the interaction.

As shown in the above table , only 10 % (2%+8%) of the subjects "often feel useless when interacting with people from different cultures" (item 15); 14 % (1%+13%) of the subjects admit that they "get upset easily when interacting with people from different cultures" (item 9); and 17 % (2%+15%) of the subjects "often get discouraged when they are with people from different cultures" (item 12). However, there are 23 % of the subjects who are uncertain about item 9, 20 % of the subjects who are uncertain about item 12, and 15 % of the subjects who are not sure of item 15.

This phenomenon indicates the following points: a) more than half of the subjects have experienced a relatively high degree of enjoyment in terms of the pleasantness, productiveness and enjoyment of interaction, and are relatively optimistic when they encounter some problems in intercultural communication situation and have enough courage to deal with difficulties when interacting with culturally-distinct people; b) less than one fourth of the subjects are uncertain about the three items, which indicates that this group of subjects are not sure of their own feelings when interacting with people from different cultures or when encountering some problems.

The author concludes two reasons for the findings. Firstly the subjects' inadequate interaction confidence may partly account for this phenomenon. It is the scant confidence in intercultural communication that can easily lead to frustration when they encounter some problems. Another reason is the learning environment of our traditional English class which is of teacher-dominant, student-submissive nature and in which students are accustomed to being silent listeners (Liu liebin 2001). The chance of interaction between teacher and students as well as among students is limited, therefore they do not have much rewarding experience with regard to pleasantness of interaction, productiveness of interaction, enjoyment of interaction or cooperative nature of interaction. What they may embrace are more of fear of making mistakes, hesitancy about answering questions and a reluctance to be singled out rather than enjoying the process of

interaction (ibid).

Factor 5 Interaction Attentiveness

Choices Item	The number of choices and their percentage for each item in the factor									
	5	Percentage	**4**	Percentage	**3**	Percentage	**2**	Percentage	**1**	Percentage
14	19	20%	43	45%	27	28%	3	3%	3	3%
17	32	34%	43	45%	14	15%	5	5%	1	1%
19	9	9%	32	34%	36	38%	17	18%	1	1%

The last factor--Interaction Attentiveness deals with participants' effort to understand what is going on in intercultural interaction. The concept is similar to what Cegala (1981) calls "Interaction Involvement", which according to the author, consists of three concepts that are related to the ability of sensitivity: responsiveness, attentiveness, and perceptiveness. People with Interaction Attentive ability tend to be intercultural sensitive enough with conversational procedure and maintain an appropriate interaction (Chen & Starosta, 2000).

According to the above table, 79% (34%+45%) of the subjects "try to obtain as much information as they can when interacting with people from different cultures" (item 17). It is very helpful for a productive communication. Meanwhile, 65% (20%+45%) of the subjects are "very observant when interacting with people from different cultures" (item 14). However, 43% (9%+34%) of the subjects are "sensitive to their culturally-distinct counterpart's subtle meanings during their interaction" (item 19). This indicates that more than half of the Chinese learners are not attentive and sensitive enough in interaction, so they can not capture the subtle meanings revealed by their counterparts either verbally or nonverbally.

In order to have a clear picture of the overall situation of the Chinese learners' intercultural sensitivity, it is necessary to calculate the average score of each factor and the average score of the five factors. The following table clearly shows this information.

The average score of the five factors

Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Sum	Average
3.7067	2.8985	3.2842	2.2701	3.6947	15.8542	3.1708

From the above table, we can see that the highest average score of the five factors is Factor 1 (3.7067), closely followed by Factor 5 (3.6947). The lowest average score is Factor 4 (2.2701) followed by Factor 2 (2.8985), while Factor 3 (3.2842) remains in the middle. The average score of the five factors is 3.1708.

III. CONCLUSION

In summary, the result shows the general situation of the Chinese learners is that they have gone beyond the uncertain stage (3 < 3.1708 < 4) and is approaching the stage of agreement, which indicates that all the Chinese learners have a relatively positive attitude toward intercultural communication. Of the total five factors, students display their strongest ability in their "Interaction Engagement" (factor 1, 65% on average, mean score 3.7067) and weakest in their "Interaction Enjoyment" (factor 4, about 14% on average, mean score 2.2701)). The combination of the five factors can ideally reflect the intercultural sensitivity of the subjects.

According to the evaluation conducted in this study, we can see that there is still much room available for improvement in terms of the general level of Chinese learners' intercultural sensitivity. Improving their intercultural sensitivity will help their intercultural communication more successfully and effectively because those Chinese learners with their special educational background and professional skills always serve as bridges between different cultures. Developing their intercultural sensitivity will better equip them for the upcoming responsibility.

REFERENCES

[1] Adler, R. B. and Towne, N. (1996). *Looking Out/ Looking In*. NY: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.
[2] Bennett, M J. (1993). Toward Ethnocentrism: A Developmental Approach to Training for Intercultural Sensitivity. Paige R M. Education for the Intercultural Experience. Yarmouth, ME: Intercultural Press, pp.21-71.
[3] Cegala, D. J. (1981). Interaction involvement: A cognitive dimension of communicative competence. *Communication Education*, 30:109-121.
[4] Chen, G. M, & Starosta, W.J. (1997). A review of the concept of intercultural sensitivity. *Human Communication*, issue 1, pp.1-16.
[5] Chen, G. M, and Starosta and W.J. (2000). "The Development and Validation of the Intercultural Sensitivity Scale." *Human Communications* issue 3, pp.1-15
[6] Coleman, J. (2002). Student voices on residence abroad. http://www. lang.ltsn.ac.uk/resources/ paper.aspx/resources
[7] He, Jamison, Antoniou, and Whiteman, K. (2004). Intercultural Communication Skills. Guangdong，Zhongshan University Press.
[8] Jettmer, E.& Nass, C. (2002). Adaptive Testing: Effects on User Performance, http:// www.danger-island.com
[9] Liu L. B. (2001). A Discussion on Language Teaching through Culture. MA thesis, East China Normal University.
[10] Rodgers, J. S. & McGoven, T. (2002). Attitudes towards the culturally different: the role of intercultural communication

barriers, affective responses, consensual stereotypes, and perceived threat. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations.* 26: 609-631.

Xinmin Hou was born in Xi'an, China in 1959. He completed his postgraduate program in linguistics and literature from Sichuan University, China in 1990.

He is currently an associate professor in the Study Abroad Program, Xi'an International Studies University, Xi'an, China. His research interests include intercultural communication and language testing.

Professor Hou is a rather prolific writer with more than 20 books and 10 papers published in China.

An Analysis of Sexism in English

Guimei He

Qingdao University of Science and Technology, Qingdao 266061, China
Email: hkmei@163.com

Abstract—**Language plays an important role in society. As a phenomenon of society, language reflects all the sides of human society naturally. Sexism in language has long been a heat topic in sociolinguistics. By looking at the sexism in English and relating it to the relevant linguistic theories, this paper tries to make an analysis of sexism in the use of language through comparison, induction and exemplification. The purpose is to disclose some of the features of English language that suggest cultural biases and socially unjust attitudes towards women. The study will help us to have a better understanding of the relationship between language and society.**

Index Terms—**sexism, English language, comparison, reason**

I. Introduction

Language is far from merely reflecting the nature of society; it serves as a primary means of constructing and maintaining that society. Its existence and development are closely linked with the social attitudes of human beings and to a great extent are affected by their social views and values, so people's socio-cultural behaviors and attitudes as well as thoughts are reflected in their use of the language. "Sociolinguistics is the science which studies the relationship between language and society, between the use of language and the social structures in which the users of language live. It is generally recognized that sociolinguistics as an independent discipline arose in the mid 1960s". Historically and sociologically, our society is man-oriented and man-centered. Gender discrimination is felt and found universally, Women have been considered to be inferior to men. They have been discriminated in one way or another. Sexism in English is a reflection of sexism in social reality. Until now sexism still exists in language and women have a language of their own, which is different from and inferior to the language of men in the society. According to Ralph Fasold, she studied this issue about sex and language systematically, she claimed that women experience linguistic discrimination in two ways; in the way they are taught to use language and in the general way language used treats them .Further she concluded that both ways tend to degrade women to a lower position. This paper emphatically introduces and analyzes the specific phenomena of sexism. Since that sexist language helps to reinforce the sexist social structure and that English is becoming an international language, documentation of linguistic sexism in this thesis is of practical significance.

II. Morphological Feature of Sexism in English

A. Derivation

"In English, derivational morphemes are mainly prefixes and suffixes. These affixes often change the part of the stem. The affixes thereby help us to identify relationships within words". Derivation is a way of word formation. It forms a word with meaning and category distinct from that of its base through the addition of an affix. The original base is the core of the formed word and carries the main complements of its meaning. The affixes are always bound morphemes, which carries information about meaning or function.

In English lexicon, one of the most obvious evidences of the sexism is the affixes which lead to a view of women as a derivation from a male term. The feminine one is always derivative of the masculine one by adding a feminine suffix such as -ess and –ette. Actor, for instance, with the meaning of " a person who plays the part of a character in a movie or play" ,when attached to a feminine suffix –ess, becomes actress with the meaning of " woman with profession similar to those of actor" . And as for –ette, when usher is adhered to –ette, it becomes usherette. Such pairs of the words are of long lists in English lexicon. Here just list some of them:

Masculine	Feminine
ambassador	ambassadress
duke	duchess
prince	princess
poet	poetess

This kind of word-formation seems to tell that women are derived from men and attached the men, from which we can come to conclusion that the addition of a feminine suffix to masculine human agent nouns usually does more than simply change the gender reference of the word, it often attaches a meaning of triviality, of lesser status or dependence to the term. It shows that woman is affiliated to man, so it is a kind of linguistic discrimination against women.

But with further insight into the meaning of such pairs, we may find that the suffix-ess not only marks the secondary position of the feminine words but also connotes the relationship between the female and male reference to the pair of words. Let us compare the pair of governor with governess. Governor is a ruler of a country, city and associates with power and high social status as well as honor and dignity; while governess is a woman employed to teach young children in their home. Because of the gender differentiation, these two words have dramatically different meanings, the masculine one of which belongs to high social class, but the feminine one marked with –ess belongs to a lower social class. Just like Song Hongbo's interpretation of Baron's statement that in the main cases, the usage of feminine suffixes indicates that feminine nouns are derivation of masculine nouns, which leads to the subordinate status of feminine words.

By making observation of many feminine words, which are formed through derivation by adding the suffix-ess, I made induction that –ess is far a suffix marking the female category, it has semantic meanings. Preference for but discrimination against female can be clearly seen in ways of word formation.

Another aspect concerned with this point is that English sex-paired words(here referring to the pair of words with gender contrast) the masculine one has greater flexibility in word-formation and mainly has a wider distribution of meaning. Take the pair of man- and woman- for instance (man- and woman- here are roots in the process of word formation). "Manhood" has three meanings in the Oxford Advanced Learner's Chinese-English Dictionary. (1)state of being a man, (2)qualities of a man, eg. courage, manliness,(3) a men of a country, while womanhood only has one meaning concept of" state of being woman". By comparison, it is clear that manhood has two more meaning concepts than womanhood. What means by having more meaning concepts? According to Hu Zhuangling, words are symbol of physical entities in reality. In this sense, the masculine words with much more meaning concepts reflect that men have more chance in social activities and in turn a more efficient way to express themselves and reinforce the masculine imagery. It comes to a conclusion that masculine words are common and general, while feminine words are mainly formed by attacking suffixes on the basis of the masculine words. Just like Song Hongbo's interpretation of Baron's statement that in the main cases, the usage of feminine suffixes indicates that feminine nouns are derivation of masculine nouns, which leads to the subordinate status of feminine words.

B. Compound Words

"Compound is another common way to build words in English through the combination of lexical categories" English itself has no difference of gender. There are many neutral words. Many professionals such as doctor, engineer, lawyer, professor, judge, and surgeon can be used to indicate both males and females. However, actually due to the long-stereotyped view of the relationship between gender and profession, such word conventionally refers to one gender, either male or female. For example:

(1)My cousin is an engineer. (2)My cousin is a nurse.

Nine out of ten come with the first response that "my cousin" in sentence（1）is male and in sentence（2）female. Only one of all ten tells with hesitation whether "my cousin" is female or male. Professions involving power and strength such as'president'and'chairman'are more likely to be associated to men, because these satisfactory jobs are traditionally viewed as ones qualified only by males. But when indicating female's position, professions, etc, these words are created by adding a bound morpheme or by combining them with a word referring to female, a compound form of combination of a female title such as woman, female, lady or madam and the professional term comes into use, for example, woman lawyer and madam chairman. On the other hand, professions involving patience, service or lower social status are more likely to be associated with woman, for example, nurse, dressmaker and secretary. If on special occasions a male involved, then the compound form of a masculine title male or man and a professional term is used for example, newsman, policeman, businessman, fireman, salesman, fisherman, etc. It makes clear that men monopolize the high status professions. Women can only do service work or low social status work. Take the compound word "callboy" and "call girl" for example. The former refers to the waiter in hotel or the person who calls the player ready to stage in theatre; the latter means the prostitute summoned by phone. These words have manifested the discrimination of language towards female from the angle of word matching

Differentiation of professions in accordance with sex distinction may lie in social conventions by which sex is a standard in allocating tasks, rights and responsibilities. Thus men and women play different roles in society. Women are mainly constrained to domestic trifles and baby -rearing, while men work outside paid as the breadwinner. So prejudice becomes convention. Using compound forms to specify professions between men and women is somehow a reflection of the reality that women are exclusive from professions with higher social status and to some extent the form of language usage in turn reinforces such a social phenomenon.

III. Syntactic Features of Sexism in English

A. Generic Pronouns

In English there are a group of nouns of common gender, which refer to either male or female such as student, person, teacher, etc. When such nouns are used with generic reference in single form, the traditional grammar advocates to use the masculine pronouns in the context for the purpose of coherence with generic nouns.(Zhang Zhenbang,1995).

Generic pronouns are pronouns that are said to refer, with equal likelihood, to woman and men. But the English

language ignores women by allowing masculine terms to be used specifically to refer to males and commonly to refer to human beings in general. The generic pronoun "he" is perhaps the most well known example of the gender-specific of sexism language, and is frequently referred to be " he/man" language. For example, in the sentence: An instructor should offer his students challenging projects, "his" refers to the subject: an instructor. To examine instructor in a sense of gender, it is either a male or a female, yet his, a masculine pronoun used as the subject's reference covers the possibility of a female subject. Although the total number of woman exceeds 50 percent, the proportion of "he and she" existing in literature is 4:1. In other words, the masculine pronoun is the representative of either female or male reference. So it seems like a linguistic edition of the social inequality.

According to the rule of traditional grammar when the indefinite pronoun one is used for generic reference, then in the context usually one, one's, or himself is used to be its relevance. But in order to avoid repetition, he, his, him, or himself is chosen, especially in American English (Zhang Zhenbang,1995) See the examples,(1) If one wants to see the ruins, he must find his own guide. (2) Everyone must do his work well. In the first sentence, one refers to the concept of people, which is a concept of common gender, but the usage of masculine pronoun, he and his in the context formally manifests the imagery of men but semantically represents people of either gender. The operation of the grammatical rule conventionally elevates the status of the masculine pronouns and lowers the feminine ones.

B. Generic Nouns

Another well-known example of generic masculine term is "man". Man and woman as two equal components of human race are actually not equal in English lexicon. Man, besides its reference to male human being can also refer to the whole race. The usage in a general sense of man makes woman invisible. For example; (1) All men must die. (2) Man is a social animal. It is easy to see that "man", and "men" can be used generically to refer to both male and female. But "woman" and "women" cannot be employed in reference to men. When man appears in discourse, it is commendatory and positive in main circumstances. Look at the following idioms: (1) be man enough: brave enough (2) be one's own man: be able to arrange and decide things independently. However, situation involved woman is quite different: Look at the following examples:

(1) Wine, women, and song: drinking, dancing, etc, and enjoying oneself

(2) Make an honest woman of somebody: marry somebody having had sexual relationship with her.

In the English language, some words referring to female firstly are commendatory words, but afterward slowly have derogatory senses.

Survey in the dictionary on the illustrative idioms of man and woman as a quantity observation, derogation of woman is clearly seen. There are totally 33 illustrative idioms for man, of which 15 are with positive meaning, five negative and the rest are neutral with five shared by both man and woman in structure and meaning; While in case of woman, there are only 8 illustrative idioms of which five shared with man in structure and meaning, the rest are all derogatory. From this, one can know that in English using "man" or "men" indicates "the human race", they treat man as the center of the society, an embodiment of criterion and totally ignore the existence of woman.

IV. ORIGINS OF SEXISM IN ENGLISH

With respect to the causes of sexism in English, it is regarded here that there are two major factors: one is social economic cause and the other is socialization. The following context will give a brief analysis on the main causes of sexism in English in terms of these two major aspects.

A. Social Economic Causes

It is the inequality status among men and women led sex discrimination. In this sense, sexism in the English language is rooted in the different attitudes towards men and women. The most important social cause, which initiates the different attitudes towards men and women, can be traced to labor division. Early in the human history, women were dominant in economic life. So women had a higher social status than men. During the process of human civilization, when human society entered patriarchal society, men took advantage of their physical strength and took the upper hand in economy and became more and more important in social economy. The social status of men gradually took over that of women. Women are restrained in limited area; they had to be dependent on men. They lost their social, economic and family status, and there came into being a long-stereotyped notion that women are responsible for domestic trifles, but men are working outside as breadwinners. The structure of the patriarchal society will be inevitable. Language is certainly indicated the superior status and central role of men but the inferior, passive role of women; hence, language is marked with discrimination towards women and sexism in language came forth.

B. Socialization

As we know, during the process of human civilization, which is also called as socialization, language formed and changed as time went by. Thus one of the most important causes of language sexism is the socialization. Socialization begins at birth. It shapes people to behave in appropriate ways. Much of people's behavior is the result of socialization. Children learn appropriate behavior through role models, games and toys, children's books and educational schools. They absorb the prejudice against girls and women in the sex-biased textbooks and develop according to gender

stereotyping. For example, some children's books may suggest children that science is the field created for male. They educate male to be manly, decisive, and brave while girls are required to be polite, conservation, obedient, and gentle. Teachers, as well as parents, who are also important agents of socialization, tend to regard boys as more creative than girls, thereby creating much personality and behavioral patterns.

Mass media also have a great influence on people's view about gender.

People spent a lot of time watching TV and reading newspaper. So few people escape exposure to the vivid patterns of images, information and values in the world of mass media, among which some are sex-biased. Because of the effect of society and culture, the ideology of women's dependent on men has been deep-rooted and developed into a kind of social psychology.

To sum up, linguistic sexism is rooted in the social inequality between men and women. It may be social in origin rather than linguistic. So the success of eliminating sexism lies in the social change. If social inequality remains, linguistic attempts to achieve real equality are anything but impossible

V. CONCLUSION

The sexism in language is a very important new question for discussion, which has been attached importance by a lot of countries in the world. In nature ，sexism in language is closely related to the phenomenon of gender discrimination in society, Since language is a social phenomenon and reflects social reality, origins of sexism in language are traced in the social background. In view of that language is not only a mirror which reflects social reality but also an instrument to perpetuates the social structure. Language planning should go in two directions. On the one hand, innovation of sexism language should carry out with aim to be consistent with the pace of the social changes and to unfold more and more role of women in social life; On the other hand, social reform with purpose to eliminate sex inequality should take lead. With high-speed development of society and scientific technology, our research on sexism in the English language will come to a new stage. The elimination of linguistic sexism lies in social change. Only by changing the social structure till one day when women and men own really equal status can language equality be truly achieved. Though the changes in social concept to make the changes in language naturally, finally realize that whether in society or language, sexism is just a history of past. The most important one is to erase the sexist conceptions and improve women's status, respect and support them. The language transformation can be realistic on the basis of the social reform.

REFERENCES

[1] Ronald Wardhaugh. (1986). An Introduction to Sociolinguistic. Basil Blackwell Inc.
[2] Song, Hongbo. (2002). Sexism in Language and Its Reform: A Comparative Study. A Thesis for the M.A. Degree in English Language and Literature.
[3] Fasold, Ralph (1990). The Socioliguistic of Language. Beijing: Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press. Blackwell Publisher Ltd.
[4] O'Gray, W, M. Bobrovolsky, M, Aronoff. (1997). A Contemporary Study. A Thesis for the M.A. Degree in English Language and Literature.
[5] Xu Lin. (2004). Sexism Analysis in English language. Xi'an University of Electronic Science and Technology,
[6] Wang-chun, SUN Ru-Jian, Yao Yuan. (1992). Social Psychology Linguistics. Shanghai: Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press,
[7] Chen Hua. (2005). Vocabulary Exploration of Gender Discrimination. Southwest China Normal University.
[8] Li Fu-yin, Yang Hua. (1997). See Gender Discrimination from the Part of Speech. *Language Journal*, 1997, No. 1.

Guimei He was born in Qingdao, China in 1957. She graduated from Liaocheng University in 1982, a bachelor degree. She is currently an associate professor in the College of Foreign Language of Qingdao Science and Technology University.

Research Method of Human Speech System Evolution Based on Complex Social Computing

Jian Yun

College of Humanities and Communications, Shanghai Normal University, Shanghai, China
College of Computer Science and Technology, Dalian Nationalities University, Dalian, China
Email: yunjianm@163.com

Chunxia Wang

College of Computer Science and Technology, Dalian Nationalities University, Dalian, China

Abstract—In recent years, computing technology has been involved in the field of synchronic phonetics. However, in the research of diachronic phonetics, modern computing technology is always hard to intervene. Human speech system involving a high degree of complexity and many factors, is a typical complex system. The traditional phonetics research methods can not adapt to the characteristics nonlinear complexity of human speech system. Social characteristics in human speech system should be thought as research variables, and non-traditional human speech system evolution research model based on complex system should be applied to diachronic phonetics. First, many basis of this non-traditional research method are given. Then, non-traditional research model for human speech system evolution is proposed. The above work offers some effective intelligent supports for research of diachronic phonetics.

Index Terms—complex system, social computing, human speech system evolution, diachronic phonetics, parallel system, multi-agent

I. INTRODUCTION

Diachronic linguistics, also known as evolutionary linguistics, mainly researches on the experienced change from ancient to modern. Diachronic linguistics chronologically narrates the history of one language based on literature textual, or rebuilds a language by comparison. The main concern of diachronic linguistics is carding Language family tree and reconstructing the language with contrast. Since the 1950s, there have been some more effective new diachronic linguistics research method or technology, such as, vocabulary proliferation theories(Shiyuan W,1969), tone genetic linguistics(Matisoff J,1973), glottochronology(Swadesh M,1952), remote comparison methods and language variations theories (Labov W,1994,2001).Diachronic linguistics has achieved great success in the Indo-European languages. However, due to the lack of historical literature research on Sino-Tibetan languages, diachronic linguistics research encountered in unprecedented resistance. Therefore, the authors consider that establishing universal suitable diachronic evolution model to replace pure empirical speculation can make the research of language evolution more uniform, objective and scientific. Whether the rapid development of computer science can be involved in the field of research of language evolution? As we all know, language is divided into speech, grammar and semantics. Speech is more measurability. So speech can be digitized is the first reason that we research the language evolution through it. For the other part, 'Speech first in language evolution' is obvious(Carstairs M,1999;Jackendoff R,2002). No matter in the early human, or individuals in early childhood, the change on speech is always the pioneer of language evolution. And we can infer the panorama of language evolution from the speech change. Based on the above, computer modeling on human speech system evolution is the logical starting point on the research of human language evolution, and computer technology make the research of speech evolution more practical operability. We have the reason to believe that computer modeling of the evolution of speech system can go farther on the research of language evolution.

The authors argue that human speech system is a typical complex system, and base on the social calculation method with computer modeling as the technical means, give a research method of speech system evolution.

II. DIACHRONIC PHONETICS AND SOCIAL COMPUTING

From the early 19th century, through two hundred years of development, synchronic phonetics has formed a set of quantitative research methods, promoting articulatory phonetics, acoustics phonetics, perceptual phonetics and so on. However, modern computing technologies are always hard to be involved in the research of diachronic linguistics. It may be due to the fact that speech is one of the fleeting acoustic signals, ancient human speech cannot be recorded as acoustic signal or preserved, and the historical documents always have defects. Especially when diachronic linguistics encounters some languages (like most of the East Asian language), which is lack of historical material, it lasts more difficult. In this context, establishing diachronic linguistics which can stand the test of the scientific rules with natural

science theory and method is far more impossible. Social computing is the interdisciplinary of modern computing technology and social science. The fundamental essence of this concept is using the knowledge of social scientific and computing technology to solve varieties of social science issues. There are indications that, with the growing popularity of computing technology, digital analysis of social science issues has become increasingly urgent. Meanwhile, with the development of artificial intelligence and complex system research, carrying out the study of social computing is ripe. The reason why complex systems research provides the basis for social computing, is based on the following facts: human social behavior in modern world is often a complex system, there is no single optimization objective, there was no complete analytical model accurately.

III. COMPLEX SYSTEM AND THE COMPLEXITY OF HUMAN SPEECH SYSTEM

Complex system research is the fusion product of modern system science and nonlinear science. In general, the so called complex system is basing on the medium scale and existing strong coupling in individuals. Human society is complex system full of interactions. This complex system has the following characteristics: (1) There are many persons with the thinking ability in this complex systems. (2) Some individuals in this complex system is randomness, uncertainty and nonlinear. They affect each other. This system is influenced by the environment and, as verse. (3) This complex system has hierarchical structure, and the interest of each level is usually not uniform often and requires coordination. (4) The composition of such complex system contains experience, wisdom and thinking. (5) This complex system is self-organized and dynamics.

From the view of Complexity Science, language (specific structure of language may be speech) is a complex system with many elements. Language fully embodies the distinctive feature of complex systems: (1) Language is peculiar means of human communication. People use speech signals to express ideas and feelings according to certain rules. (2) In speech system, listener and speaker are interrelated. The perception and imitation are influenced by their pronunciation conditions, Sensing capability and the surrounding environment. Through mutual influence between individuals, the whole speech system emerges some particular macro status. (3) With the continuous development of language, the human speech system presents hierarchical structure. The core of this structure is using the less part to drive the more one, for example, there are more than 400 basic syllables in mandarin Chinese, constituting thousands of words to meet the practical needs of communication. More importantly, the state of social system plays a decisive role in speech evolution. When the social structure has changed, people's social status are also changed. This change will affect the speech system. (4) The External environmental situation and physical limitations on their own pronunciation organs will be analyzed by Intelligent individual. (5) From the perspective of system science, the evolution of speech system is a disordered fluctuation by all complex elements, and then achieves new balance. So self-organizing and dynamics is able to explain the evolution of speech system.

IV. RESEARCH METHOD IN SPEECH SYSTEM EVOLUTION BASED ON COMPLEX SOCIAL COMPUTING

A. Several Basic Work

In order to implement the research of speech system evolution based on complex social computing, the following four fundamental works should do:

(1) Complexity analysis of social characteristics in speech system evolution. ①Complexity analysis of the social characteristics (such as, the political, economic, cultural, religious beliefs, social psychological changes, etc.) in speech system evolution should be carried out. ②Treat speech system evolution as a complex system, define the boundary conditions, analyze the direction, speed, and nonlinear relationship in system evolution, and do formal description.③people's activities in speech system should be logically analysised and formally descripted.

(2) Construction of computer simulation model of speech system evolution. ①Environment model in speech system evolution should be constructed. ②Derive speech system evolution model(the unified model consists of attribute model and behavior model) using evolutionary algorithms. Attribute model describes the various attributes,whereas behavior model describes the interaction between the individuals.③Realize the visual simulation of the model by computer visual simulation technology.

(3) Study the mechanism of speech evolution based on evolutionary model and complexity theory.①Speech system evolution is complex nonlinear system. There are lots of emergence phenomenons which can not be explained with reductionism, So we must pay attention to them, and use visual simulation technology to implement the visualization of emergence phenomenons.②The brittleness theory should be applied to the research. We need to identify the brittleness element from evolution model with computer simulation technology.

(4) Construction of parallel system. The so-called "parallel system" refers to the interactive operation model with actual system and artificial complex system(Feiyue W,2006). ①Repeat the process of the speech system evolution can be helpful to recover the rule of speech system evolution.②The author thinks that diachronic phonetics should not only face history, not the future. Parallel system can be established with the combination of practical examples of speech system evolution and visualization evolution model. Through contrastive analyses, the trend of human speech system evolution can be predicted and evaluated.

B.   The Basic Research Model Based on Complex Social Computing

Speech system is a complex social system which reductionism are difficult to resolve its research problems. With this parallel system method, the various complicated factors can be effectively organized, balanced, controlled and managed. This way, the combination of the modeled and real examples, of diachronic and synchronic analyses, of the past and the future can be made. The untraceables can be traced; the unpredictables can be predicted. This untraditional research method should adopted evolutionary algorithms(such as genetic algorithm, the evolution strategy, evolution of planning, particle swarm algorithm, the ant colony algorithm, etc), multi-agent technology and computer visual simulation technology.Agent is the basic composition of the modeling and simulation. macro-level state of population in speech system is emerged through the interaction between multi-Agents. Figure 1 shows the basic research model based on complex social computing.
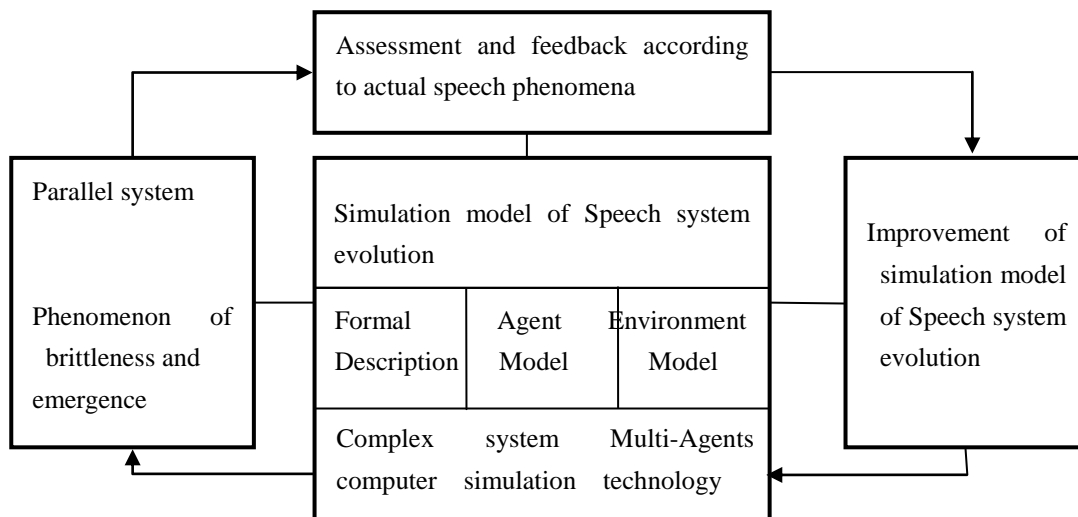
Figure 1. The basic research model based on complex social computing

V.   CONCLUSION

Human speech is a complex system, so the relationship between micro-level behavior of the individual and macro-state of population level is non-linear, even chaotic in this system.This research model may help us to understand the non-linear relationship between the microscopic behavior and macroscopic state of population level in evolution of speech system. This model should emerge the macro-state similar to state of real speech systems, and illustrates evolution of human speech system.

REFERENCES

[1]   Shiyuan W.(1969). Competing Change as a Cause of Residue. *Language*. 45.1,19-25
[2]   Matisoff J.(1973). Tonogenesis in Southeast Asia, *Consonant Types & Tone*. University of Southern California, 71-95.
[3]   Swadesh M.(1952).Lexico-statistic dating of prehistoric ethnic contacts: *Proceedings of the American Philosophical Societ* ,452-463
[4]   Labov W. (1994). Principles of Linguistic Change: Internal Factors. Blackwell Publishing Ltd.
[5]   Labov W. (2001). Principles of Linguistic Change: Social Factors. Blackwell Publishing Ltd.
[6]   Carstairs M.(1999). The origins of complex language: an inquiry in the evolutionary beginnings of sentences, syllables and truth. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
[7]   Jackendoff R.(2002). Foundations of language. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
[8]   Feiyue W.(2006). On the Modeling, Analysis, Control and Management of Complex Systems. *Complex Systems and Complexity Science*. 3.2,26-34.

Jian Yun was born in Baotou, Inner Mongolia, China in 1975. He received his M.A. in Computer Science from Inner Mongol University, China in 2003, and is studying for a doctoral degree in linguistics in the College of Humanities and Communications, Shanghai Normal University, Shanghai, China.
   He is currently a lecturer in the College of Computer Science and Technology, Dalian Nationalities University, Dalian, China. His research interests include linguistic evolution and computational linguistics.

Chunxia Wang was born in Ulanqab, Inner Mongolia, China in 1979. She received her M.A. degree in Computer Education from Inner Mongol Normal University, China in 2005.
   She is currently a lecturer in the College of Computer Science and Technology, Dalian Nationalities University, Dalian, China. Her research interests include computational linguistics and computer science.

How to Achieve Authentic Context in Classroom Oral English Teaching

Xiaomei Yang

Qingdao University of Science and Technology, Qingdao, China

Email: Lindateacher@tom.com

Abstract—Teaching oral English in traditional classroom setting is the main way conducted in China, which is artificial and not very helpful in language learning. Based on some SLA theories, this article discusses some methods to achieve authentic context in classroom oral English teaching, including ways to optimize classroom setting and classroom instruction. We hope these suggestions can give inspiration to teachers who conduct their work in a classroom.

Index Terms—oral English, authentic, classroom teaching

I. Introduction

No matter communicative teaching method or task-based English teaching theory, the ability to maintain natural conversation in real working or daily life setting is undoubtedly the fundamental purpose of oral English training. As far as in 1974, Dell Hymes proposed the notion of communicative competence as an alternative to Chomsky's linguistic competence. Communicative competence is the ability to talk to others in an acceptable way without improper expressions or personal and cultural offense. To achieve this goal, practice to accomplish real task in real context is essentially needed. But the fact is that in China, students have very few chances to learn English by using it in real settings, especially by speaking it to native speakers or others who don not know any Chinese, and classroom teaching remains the most popular way. Thus, how to achieve authentic context in classroom teaching is of great importance. At the same time, many language teaching experts pointed out that to find more effective way of classroom teaching is one important task in oral English study.

II. Factors to Enhance SLA in Instructional Context

Ellis (1988) argued that the following factors were likely to enhance second language acquisition in instructional contexts:

Quantity of "intake"

A need to communicate

A choice on the part of learners over what is said

The performance of a range of speech act

An input rich in "extending" utterances: These are teacher utterances that pick up, elaborate, or in other ways extend the learner's contribution.

Uninhibited practice

If we take these factors into consideration when we design an oral English class, it should include the teacher' quality input, the student' active responds and the teacher' appropriate comments. At the same time, we should make the students less nervous in order to have "uninhibited practice". But due to the lack of social experience of most Chinese learners, the classroom setting is an artificial context for the students to undertake certain task or to perform some speech acts. The consequence is to de-authenticate the language intake, and the learner's tasks will be made more difficult when they occur in real context.

III. Theories Used as Guideline

Most theories come from the area of second language acquisition. For much of this century, there has been a passionate debate in Western educational contexts at least, between those who believe that the function of an educational system is the transmission of a received body of facts, values, and procedures for conceptualizing and adding to that body of knowledge, and those who believe that the function of education is to create the condition whereby learners might generate their own skills and knowledge. It is a debate between those who believe that education is a matter of making meaning for the learner on the one hand, and those who believe that the function of education is to facilitate the process whereby learners make their own meaning, on the other. Based on the notion of the latter, grew experiential learning. The following is a comparison between the traditional and experimental models.

Dimension	Traditional Model: behaviorism	Experiential Model: constructivism
1.view of learning	Transmission of knowledge	Transformation of knowledge
2. Power relation	Emphasis on teacher's authority	Teacher as "learner among learners"
3.Teachers's role	Providing mainly frontal instruction; professionalism as individual autonomy	Facilitating learning(largely in small groups); collaborative professionalism
4. Learner's role	Relatively passive recipient of information; mainly individual work	Active participation, largely in collaborative small groups
5. View of knowledge	Presented as "certain"; application problem-solving	Construction of personal knowledge; identification of problems
6. Control process	Mainly teacher-structured learning	Emphasis on learner; self-directed learning

Kohonen (1992) argues that the experiential model offers potential for a learning atmosphere of shared partnership, a common purpose, and a joint management of learning. He suggests that in classrooms infused with the vision promised by experiential learning, behavior is a joint responsibility of the whole class, and that the teacher is only one member within the class.

IV.   ESTABLISHING AUTHENTIC ORAL ENGLISH TEACHING CONTEXT

Of course, no matter what effort we make, classroom setting can never provide students with the authentic context as in real communication environment. But still we must try to let the students feel they are really doing some task, performing speech acts in the way it should be.

A.   Ways to Optimize the Classroom Setting

a) Classroom Organization

The traditional mode of classroom organization is a teacher-fronted one, with learners sitting in rows facing the teacher. The physical set-up of classroom is predicated on this mode of organization, with desks set out in rows, and in most cases, screwed to the floor, thus making any other mode of organization almost impossible. Students in such classrooms lack the chances to share ideas or negotiate meaning with each other.

Small group and pairs are better ways of classroom organization, which are backed by cooperative leaning theory. In dividing the students into different groups, factors like personality, intimacy, gender balance etc. should be taken into consideration in order to make the small group work in a harmonious way. Each group can occupy some space in the classroom, especially the four corners where there they can form a circle, or at least they can see each other's face when they speak. On some particular occasions, students may be required to stand up and move around while doing speaking tasks. By allowing students to break the classroom rule that they should remain seated in class, it also breaks the rule that they should not speak in class (Nunan, 1999).

b) Group Activities

Group activities are a good way to improve students' oral English level. In group activities, students can get comprehensible input from peers in the same group. At the same time, they can get better psychological support and develop their language ability in their cooperation (Pica, Young & Doughty，1987). In order to motivate all students to fully participate in the activities, when doing discussion in oral English class, one group can be sent out of the classroom. When the other groups do the presentation at last, this group is called back to listen and see if they can understand what is going on. In this way, the speaker must speak clearly in order to make themselves understood, which is in accordance with Swain's output hypothesis: adequate output can let the students pay attention to their interlanguage, and activate the inner cognitive language acquisition system. At the same time, the listeners must listen attentively to get the necessary information to give a summary and make comments. This kind activity highly authenticates the communication context, accelerating the learning process.

c) Scenario

Scenario is a kind of activity derived from role playing. Different from role playing, scenario is a problem-oriented, open-ended task similar to real life situation, focusing the students' attention on specific strategies. There is information gap between the participants, so they have to think hard before they decide what to say next. Since scenario is quite close to real life situation, the participant must pay attention to the appropriateness of their words. They must take into account of different social status, different sex, age, the social role they are playing and some other factors.

In doing the conversation, the students strongly feel that they cannot simply play a fixed role and use the expressions offered by the teacher or prepared by themselves because they are in a dynamic context. In order to fulfill the task, the participants must employ all language skills in his or her command. At the same time, scenario activities requires appropriate language use. For example, as an employee, you cannot threaten your boss although you are mad with him, which is often ignored by the students because classroom is an artificial situation. So teachers should point out the inappropriate use of language, and videos of similar real situation conversation will be a big help in developing students' communicative competence.

B.   Ways to Optimize Classroom Instruction

In traditional language classroom, learners are taught chiefly about language and its rules. They learn facts about

language rather than how to use it communicatively to express ideas, to talk and write to other people, to read and listen to real language, and to learn how to cooperate with others.

a) Low-structure Teaching

High-structure tasks are those in which teachers have all the power and control. Low-structure tasks are those in which power and control are developed to the students. Low-structure situations provide learners with numerous options and a great deal of autonomy. In oral English teaching classes, direct instruction should be integrated into instructional sequences in which learners are actively involved in using the language, guided and helped by their teachers. The teacher's primary role is the provision of pedagogical opportunities through which learners might structure and restructure their own understanding. The ultimate goal is to enable the learner to communicate with others in the world beyond the classroom where they will not have a teacher on hand. In helping learners achieve this goal, however, teachers need to redefine their approach to teaching.

b) Creative Language Use

In oral English teaching context, learners should be given structured opportunities to use the language that they have been practicing in new and unexpected ways. They should be provided with the language that they will need to take part in genuine communicative tasks, and they should be given opportunities to respond appropriately in new situations outside the classroom. Teachers should design tasks that allow learners to practice identifying the key grammar and vocabulary in real-world texts and to develop the skills of speaking and listening in an integrated way, just as in authentic communicative situations. Teachers also should pay attention to students' cooperation with other learners and with their teachers. In this way, classrooms themselves act as a bridge to the outside world rather than as a linguistic quarantine station where learners are protected from the risks involved in having to engage in genuine communication.

c) Authentic Material

In oral English teaching classroom, learners are strongly encouraged to use authentic materials. They should have access to genuine language drawn from a wide variety of contexts, including TV and radio broadcasts, conversations, discussions and meetings of all kinds, talks, and announcements. They read magazines, stories, printed material and instructions, hotel brochures and airport notices, and a wide range of other messages. This practice helps them cope successfully with genuine communication outside the classroom. Bring authentic data into the classroom can assist learners to see how grammatical forms operate in context and enable speakers to make communicative meanings. Another advantage of authentic data is that learners encounter target language items in the kinds of contexts that they naturally occur, rather than in contexts that have been concocted by a textbook writer. Ultimately, this assists the learner because he will experience the language item in interaction with other closely related grammatical and discourse elements. By distorting the contexts of use in which grammatical items occur, nonauthentic language, in some respects, actually makes the task for the language learner more difficult.

C.   Classroom Teaching Preparation and Extension

English learning is a long-process activity, and the practice in the limited class time is far from enough. In order to make full use of the class time, the teacher should think about the difficulty and feasibility of the tasks to be carried out in the class. As to some activities mainly performed by students, like role play and simulation, the teacher and the student should exchange ideas before they do that before all the other students. Thus, some obvious mistakes can be avoided and the teacher will be more prepared to give instruction and comments. In this way, the oral English class will become more effective. Another way is to extend the class to every time and every place possible and let "every wall in the school talk". In spite of some extra curriculum activities like oral English competition, students are encouraged to use English in their dormitory and the canteen. At the same time, topics which are collected from the students' own life are welcomed to bring to the class—students are always more ready to talk about events happened around themselves, like pursuing further education and chatting on the Internet.

The cooperation between the school and society is of crucial importance. The school should grasp every chance to provide the student with opportunities to practice their English. Many students report that on-the-spot use of English greatly motivate them and let them realize their weaknesses. Social organizations also should offer some opportunities for students to work as volunteers when they are free with a little payment or even no payment.

V. CONCLUSION

Teaching oral English in the classroom setting is not a easy thing: many students do not feel they can speak better English after attending classes of one term or two. In spite of giving the student correct ways to learn English, oral English classes should be made full use of to construct natural and authentic environment for the student to speak English.

For a long time, the traditional classroom setting and class organization limit teacher-student interaction and many students are not motivated in class, so the low efficiency of oral English teaching is notorious in the educational field and the society. Some people resort to foreign teachers, but foreign only can provide some authentic input, and most of them are not good at teaching skills. To change this situation we should depend on ourselves and explore the potentials. Of course we cannot change all these within a short time, but we can start from what we have now and optimize the teaching environment. The above are some suggestions based on SLA theories and teaching practice. We hope these

skills can be some help when teachers design their classes, and at the same time, we hope more researchers and teachers work on the oral English class.

REFERENCES

[1]   Ellis, R. (1988). Classroom Second Language Development. London: Prentice-Hall.
[2]   Hymes. D. (1974). Foundations in Sociolinguistic. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press.
[3]   Kohonen, V. (1992). Experiential language learning: Second Language Learning as Cooperative Learner Education. In D. Nunan (ed.), *Collaborative Language Learning and Teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
[4]   Krushen, S. (1985).The Input Hypothesis. London: Longman.
[5]   Nunan D. (1999). Second Language Teaching and Learning. Heinle &Heinle Publishers.
[6]   Pica, Young & Doughty. C, (1987) The Impact of Interaction on Comprehension. *TESOL Quarterly* .(21).
[7]   Richards, J.C., J.Platt, and H.Weber. (1985). Longman Dictionary of Applied Linguistics. London: Longman.
[8]   Swain, M. (1985).Communicative Competence: Some Roles of Comprehensible Input and Comprehensible Output in Its Development. S. Grass &C. Madden (ed). *Input in Second Language Acquisition*. Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

Xiaomei Yang was born in Qingdao, China in 1975. She received her M.A. degree in linguistics from Qufu Normal University, China in 2000.

She is currently a lecturer in the College of Foreign Languages, Qingdao University of Science and Technology, Qingdao, China. Her research interests include linguistics and second language acquisition.

Call for Papers and Special Issues

Aims and Scope

Journal of Language Teaching and Research (JLTR) is a scholarly peer-reviewed international scientific journal published bimonthly, focusing on theories, methods, and materials in language teaching, study and research. It provides a high profile, leading edge forum for academics, professionals, consultants, educators, practitioners and students in the field to contribute and disseminate innovative new work on language teaching and research.

JLTR invites original, previously unpublished, research and survey articles, plus research-in-progress reports and short research notes, on both practical and theoretical aspects of language teaching, learning, and research. These areas include, but are not limited to, the following topics:

- Language teaching methodologies
- Pedagogical techniques
- Teaching and curricular practices
- Curriculum development and teaching methods
- Programme, syllabus, and materials design
- Second and foreign language teaching and learning
- Classroom-centered research
- Literacy
- Language education
- Teacher education and professional development
- Teacher training
- Cross-cultural studies
- Child, second, and foreign language acquisition
- Bilingual and multilingual education
- Translation
- Teaching of specific skills

- Language teaching for specific purposes
- New technologies in language teaching
- Testing and evaluation
- Language representation
- Language planning
- Literature, language, and linguistics
- Applied linguistics
- Phonetics, phonology, and morphology
- Syntax and semantics
- Sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics, and neurolinguistics
- Discourse analysis
- Stylistics
- Language and culture, cognition, and pragmatics
- Language teaching and psychology, anthropology, sociology
- Theories and practice in related fields

Special Issue Guidelines

Special issues feature specifically aimed and targeted topics of interest contributed by authors responding to a particular Call for Papers or by invitation, edited by guest editor(s). We encourage you to submit proposals for creating special issues in areas that are of interest to the Journal. Preference will be given to proposals that cover some unique aspect of the technology and ones that include subjects that are timely and useful to the readers of the Journal. A Special Issue is typically made of 10 to 15 papers, with each paper 8 to 12 pages of length.

The following information should be included as part of the proposal:
- Proposed title for the Special Issue
- Description of the topic area to be focused upon and justification
- Review process for the selection and rejection of papers.
- Name, contact, position, affiliation, and biography of the Guest Editor(s)
- List of potential reviewers
- Potential authors to the issue
- Tentative time-table for the call for papers and reviews

If a proposal is accepted, the guest editor will be responsible for:
- Preparing the "Call for Papers" to be included on the Journal's Web site.
- Distribution of the Call for Papers broadly to various mailing lists and sites.
- Getting submissions, arranging review process, making decisions, and carrying out all correspondence with the authors. Authors should be informed the Instructions for Authors.
- Providing us the completed and approved final versions of the papers formatted in the Journal's style, together with all authors' contact information.
- Writing a one- or two-page introductory editorial to be published in the Special Issue.

Special Issue for a Conference/Workshop

A special issue for a Conference/Workshop is usually released in association with the committee members of the Conference/Workshop like general chairs and/or program chairs who are appointed as the Guest Editors of the Special Issue. Special Issue for a Conference/Workshop is typically made of 10 to 15 papers, with each paper 8 to 12 pages of length.

Guest Editors are involved in the following steps in guest-editing a Special Issue based on a Conference/Workshop:
- Selecting a Title for the Special Issue, e.g. "Special Issue: Selected Best Papers of XYZ Conference".
- Sending us a formal "Letter of Intent" for the Special Issue.
- Creating a "Call for Papers" for the Special Issue, posting it on the conference web site, and publicizing it to the conference attendees. Information about the Journal and Academy Publisher can be included in the Call for Papers.
- Establishing criteria for paper selection/rejections. The papers can be nominated based on multiple criteria, e.g. rank in review process plus the evaluation from the Session Chairs and the feedback from the Conference attendees.
- Selecting and inviting submissions, arranging review process, making decisions, and carrying out all correspondence with the authors. Authors should be informed the Author Instructions. Usually, the Proceedings manuscripts should be expanded and enhanced.
- Providing us the completed and approved final versions of the papers formatted in the Journal's style, together with all authors' contact information.
- Writing a one- or two-page introductory editorial to be published in the Special Issue.

More information is available on the web site at http://www.academypublisher.com/jltr/.

(Contents Continued from Back Cover)