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Going 100% On-line with Language Courses: Possible?

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***Abstract*—The word around us is changing constantly and it has an enormous impact on the learning environment and students´learning styles. Sometimes, technological change is said to be the only constant in our life. Thus, applying modern IT solutions in teaching and learning has become a part and parcel of an increasing number of learning programmes. In language teaching, however, resorting to ICT solutions is sometimes considered to be controversial. This article explores some positive aspects of using ICT that have been acknowledged and stimulating both for students and the teacher. We share our experience in using the Blackboard e-learning environment for teaching genese language courses at different levels and different languages (English and Swedish), and English for Specific Purposes (ESP). We have experienced that the web-based environment can be successfully used for supporting student-centred learning and increasing student motivation. It is also a flexible environment for developing individualisation and enabling cooperation with the students. These topic areas will be the main focus of our paper. By way of introduction we shall analyse different past and current courses where the web-based environment has been used as a support for in-class teaching. We will view different ways of motivating students and engaging them in the learning process. We will then move on to discuss the experience of going 100% on-line with the language courses and analyse the feedback from students questionnaires and self-analysis reports, as well as the results of our participant observation of the process, with a special focus on examining the possibilities for supporting and encouraging student-centred learning and increasing student responsibility in their learning process.**

***Index Terms*—e-learning, ICT, language learning/ teaching, student centred learning, student responsibility, motivation**

I. Introduction

E-learning is an increasingly popular area of modern education. However, when applied in language learning, the attitudes towards going on-line may differ. Many educationalists appreciate its values and see it as a wonderful resource for making the learning process more diverse and attractive. Others have an inclination to criticise the limits of e-learning. Comparing e-based language learning to traditional eye-to-eye classes does not always show the former in the more favourable light. Especially so when we believe that in language learning, speaking and communication are crucial.

Yet, attitudes can be changed and attractive ways for enticing university lecturers to get started with e-learning have been developed in different parts of the world. In Estonia, at the University of Tartu, e-learning sessions called “coffee with e-learning” started to be arranged for teachers. The idea came from Scandinavia. These training sessions, taking place once a month during the lunch break of the last working day in the week, offered tempting delicacies to coffee. And in an easily accessible and pleasant way the “e-lunches” introduced us state-of-the-art knowledge about e-learning. The ICT solutions were taught by the IT-support staff who also became the tutors of the teaching staff during building and carrying out the e-courses. Thus, the scene was set for experimenting with a new learning and teaching environment.

In language teaching, the educational and tutoring support available can be used in creating the e-learning environments for teaching general language courses in different languages at different levels; for learning terminology, and ESP (English for Specific Purposes) in different fields of specialisation. Designing and building up the courses was supported by funding from the EU.

Our experience of using e-learning as a support to our eye-to-eye classes has proved to be positive and stimulating. ICT supports student-centred learning and enables us to increase student responsibility, at the same time having personalised and prompt teacher feedback. Going 100% online was nevertheless a rather different experience and judged by the pilot version of the course it seemed to put to the test rather different capacities, both concerning the teacher and the students. In the article below, we would like to share some of these experiences.

II. Student Motivation and E-learning

A. Motivation

Web-based learning necessarily implies a great amount of student responsibility and focusing. It also applies motivation, which is essential for a learning process to take place. What is motivation?

In general, definitions of motivation in education emphasise the eagerness, willingness and readiness of people to try, achieve or acquire something. As Rob Dean (2010) points out, for motivation to occur, for the students there needs to be:

an interest in the topic

the will to understand and do more

the feeling that one *can* understand and *can* do more

Motivation is crucial, as without it students would not consider participating in a course in the first place. In theories of motivation, motivation is often divided into extrinsic and intrinsic motivation. Theobald (2006: 1) points out that for some students it is essential to resort to extrinsic tools to increase their motivation. This tends to be the factor behind most of the justification behind teacher-centred teaching. Intrinsic motivation, however, has been seen as "the ultimate goal of educators for their students" (ibid.). When we speak about student-centred teaching, we in fact imply that students should have the wish (and skills!) to be independent learners and to take responsibility of their learning process. How can we make students reach this? Intrinsic motivation is often attributed to finding a value in what students do. Theobald (2006: 1) holds:

"Helping students find value in learning through the implementation of various instructional strategies and multiple alternative and authentic forms of assessments, while maintaining high standards of student performance in an environment which encourages students to do their best work by effective, nurturing teachers, will help increase the motivational levels of all students".

Dörnyei and Otto (1998:65) give us a definition of L2 (second/ foreign language) motivation:

"In a general sense, motivation can be defined as the dynamically changing cumulative arousal in a person that initiates, directs, coordinates, amplifies, terminates, and evaluates the cognitive and motor processes whereby initial wishes and desires are selected, prioritised, operationalised and (successfully or unsuccessfully) acted out".

Hasanbegovic (2005) has reviewed a study on the impact of intrinsic motivation on e-learning in authentic computer tasks by Martens *et al.* 2004. The study allows her to conclude:

"In line with the motivation theory of Ryan and Deci it is predicted and evidenced that intrinsically motivated students do more in a fixed time period as a result of their higher effort and persistence and will do different things in computer environments that allow for this liberty of choice (Hasanbegovic 2005)".

A well-balanced ITC environment enables students to feel intrinsic motivation and to stay motivated throughout the learning process. ICT can be harnessed in the interest of developing modern principles of learning and language acquisition concerning motivation. The criteria mentioned above can be met in e-tasks that are programmed to automatically increase the level of difficulty, to adapt to the student´s language level or to repeat areas where the student has made mistakes during previous visits to the electronic environment. In the description above, also the needs for individualisation are met. And obviously, and high-quality e-learning environment meets the needs for a certain amount of playfulness and interaction.

Thus, some of the most important aspects of learning - individualisation, interaction and student motivation, often considered paramount in modern education theories, are necessarily a part of the process in ICT. Motivation, individualisation, learning in context and the activation of the learner - all buzzwords in modern education – are often a part and a parcel of a successful ICT support.

B. Modern Discourse in Professional Roles: Increasing Learner Responsibility and Changing Teachers´Roles

An equally important aspect is learner responsibility – the students´capacity to envision and pursue their goals. A modern student, especially at the university level, must know *why* and *what* s/he needs to study, and to be able to design and stick to their personal study plan. Wilson (1981: 61) points out that student development through the university years can be seen as follows:

"One view is that student growth occurs through an invariant sequence of stages or levels in which progress from stage to stage implies a restructuring and reorganisation of what went before. ´Higher´stages are qualitatively different from ´lower´stages in terms of the way the individual thinks, feels or acts. Another influential view is that student development is to be seen in terms of mastery of a series of developmental `tasks` which involve the individual´s maturation in the different aspects of intellect, emotions and social relationships".

Today, the role of the teacher is that of an advisor, an expert in the field whose task is to support the students´ development (cf. Mullamaa 2009). This is much more creative and much more challenging than the more traditional "design and control the study process" concepts. Dörnyei (2001: 35) points out:

"/…/ teachers are powerful *motivational socialisers.* Being the officially designated leaders within the classroom, they embody group conscience, symbolise the group´s unity and identity, and serve as a model or a reference/ standard. They also function as an ´emotional amplifier´of the group whose appeals and examples are critical for mobilising the group /…/. Simply speaking, to lead means to direct and energise, that is, to motivate".

In education, as elsewhere, increased cooperation and neglecting the earlier rigid borderlines, is becoming more and more common practice. Day and Sachs (2004: 7) indicate: "The core democratic professionalism is an emphasis on collaborative, cooperative action between teachers and other educational stakeholders".

Karm and Remmik (2010) stress the importance of university teacher´s routes of development. They (ibid.) note that only if a teacher has understood the underlying importance of her teaching *viz-a-viz* the teaching skills, the development of one´s field of specialisation, and personal development of students, does the need for further education occur. And we believe, it is often in the course of further education and mentoring that further processes of self-monitoring, improving one ́s teaching and conceptualising one ́s role occur.

Kiggins and Cambourne (2007: 368-379) emphasise the importance of a “triadic partnership” (ibid. 374) from the very beginning of training of young teachers. Kiggins and Cambourne (ibid.) stress: “/…/ trust becomes a required element in the knowledge building process, and if friendship and trust are not present among the student cohort, this process is unlikely to occur”.

Modern education theories also emphasise the importance of neglecting the former rigid models of seeing the students´ minds as “an empty space” to be filled with information. Rather, students´ interest for learning, and their creativity should be developed with the help of encouraging and creative teachers. Thus, the challenges teachers are facing today are significantly more serious and demanding. Indeed, the amount of responsibilities that today go along with the teaching profession *per se* has increased significantly. As Day and Sachs (2004: 7) point out:

“It suggests that the teacher has a wider responsibility than the single classroom and includes contributing to the school, the system, other students, the wider community and collective responsibilities of teachers themselves as a group and the broader profession /…/”.

At the school level, the code of ethics for teachers was developed in 2004 in Estonia. Further education training programmes are carried out. However, traditional, teacher-centred and rather authoritarian teaching stiles are regrettably still favoured by some representatives of the teaching staff as well as parents. The formulation of the code of ethics for university teachers is currently in progress. Discussions in the media on the issue are strongly encouraged. Further education programmes for modern further education of university teachers are in progress and they are attended by an increasing number of university teachers. There are also different mentoring projects taking place. In all these endeavours the issues of ethics, the role boundaries, as well as the contribution to society, are clearly present. On the positive side, we see an active discussion on the core issues in the media, and an active appeal for modern and child- and student-centred approaches in training and teachers ´learning communities.

C. The Possibilities for ICT: Individualisation, Activating the Students, and Learning Concepts in Situated Meanings

As Normak (2010) points out, the environment in which learners develop is crucial for success. Normak (ibid.) analyses sources of research on early child development and the development of logical thinking, reaching the conclusion that a safe learning environment from the very early years on, and a certain playfulness are essential for developing thinking and becoming successful learners and members of society. E-learning has plentiful possibilities for catering for such needs also in the later stages of learning. The possibilities for ICT include individualisation, activating the students and learning concepts in situated meanings.

The importance of learning of concepts in situated meanings is stressed by Gee (2009: 15). Gee (ibid.) points out that students need to acquire and try out the contents of concepts in situations that teach and test their real meaning. Only then true learning takes place. Without that, students may be able to complete seemingly perfect “pen and paper” tests. However, at closer testing, they prove not to be able to solve real problems (cf. Gardner 1991, in Gee 2009: 15).

We suggest that ICT and web-based learning solutions offer the learners the possibilities for making the learning process more interesting and challenging. Some of the capacities here are attractive and enthusing, even similar to what has been pointed out as the educational reserve of video games. J P Gee suggests (2009) that the principles these follow often relate to the principles of encouraging active learning. Out of the capacities that Gee relates to positive learning techniques in video-games (Gee 2009: 22), we associate with ICT the following: interactivity, adaptability, a gradual build-up of the level of difficulty, and following the principle of the “cycle of expertise”. Also, the modernity of the medium and its parallels to the developments in virtually all other spheres of human life, where the digital revolution reaches from citizen journalism to museum pedagogy (cf. Gottlieb 2009: 26-37), help to make it attractive.

A recent SRI International for the Department of Education in Estonia (http://www.ed.gov/rschstat/eval/tech/evidence-based-practices/finalreport.pdf) demonstrates that the learning results that have been reached by using ICT solutions are more profound than the learning results achieved through using traditional learning methods:

“On average, students in online learning conditions performed better than those receiving face-to-face instruction. Over the 12-year span, the report found 99 studies in which there were quantitative comparisons of online and classroom performance for the same courses. The analysis for the Department of Education found that, on average, students doing some or all of the course online would rank in the 59th percentile in tested performance, compared with the average classroom student scoring in the 50th percentile”.

As pointed out above, research has also shown that in the 21st century the focus in training future capable members of society should be on not only forwarding information and accumulating knowledge, but also on training working in groups, adaptation to changes, and applying technological change. Below, let us take a look at how this can be done, using ICT using our practical experience with language teaching as an illustration for this.

III. The Experience of Using ICT in Blended Learning

In our experience, ICT has proved to be a good environment for teaching general language courses, as well as for teaching/ learning terminology and ESP (English for Specific Purposes). The courses have been conducted as a complementary to ordinary classroom teaching, i.e. the web-based courses usually run parallel to the face-to-face seminars. Their primary goal is to support what has been learned in the classroom and thus they mainly include exercises on texts/ grammar covered in the classroom.

In addition to learning and acquiring new vocabulary in English and Swedish the courses aim at helping students to form their personal opinion and being able to express it on issues topical in one ́s field of specialisation, as well as topics of general interest (links to topical articles & hot debates both in Estonia & abroad, web-links, multimedia resources).

Exercises designed as an extension to activities carried out in the classroom support the acquisition of vocabulary, forming one ́s personal opinion, and being able to express it on topical issues. It enables students to understand their area of specialisation and many other important issues in a wider context and to put it into a perspective that stretches beyond their university, country, and continent.

The web-based solutions also offer good possibilities for carrying out eye-to-eye lessons in the computer classroom. The ICT solutions can be used as a support for different classroom activities, e.g. the group-work and pair-work assignments in class, but also for follow-up independent work on classroom activities for students with a different learning style, or as preparatory work. The goal in all these instances is to encourage student-centred learning and the principles of individualisation (different interests/ levels/ needs). E-learning as a support for learning in the classroom enables us to make the study process more flexible and to better take into consideration the needs of different students. The students are active and " a part of the process".

For example, the Web-based environment can host different multimedia possibilities for developing speaking skills. It may be done in many different ways.

One of the favourites of our students has been the jig-saw pair-work activities that involve "voice-over" exercises on video-clips. This entails watching different video-clips, answering the different questions to both students that become in essence a short summary of the clip they have seen, and finally, replaying the respective videos with one ́s partner with the voice on *mute*, the respective student in charge of a certain video providing a voice-over. If you find an informative and interesting clip on a subject area you are currently working on with advanced students or an ESP group, such an activity can provide students with the latest information, buzz-words and key expressions on the subject area, at the same time offering them a fair amount of challenge.

Another popular activity is finding additional information on the texts, phenomena or people spoken about in our articles or student presentations. We often build this up as a group-work activity. And while in ordinary class-room settings the feedback information from the buzz groups remains preserved in our memory, or at paper boards, the ICT learning environment enables students to access their final feedback posted there also later during the course, wherever they are – at home or in Hawaii. Also, the current licences allow us to keep the courses open for participants for at least half a year after attending the course, thus offering perfect possibilities for a longitudinal learning process, and revisiting the materials beyond the official end of the learning cycle. This possibility, coupled with the attention of students from parallel groups and "future generations", is most stimulating, and even encourages them to have an unofficial friendly competition on whose report or power-point presentation looks the best.

To sum up, ICT as a support for ordinary class-room teaching, and as a part of it, has the obvious benefits of easy access whenever and wherever you wish it, dematerialisation (less paper – more trees), enabling us to use modern methodologies, individualisation, possibilities to develop contacts beyond our university, state, continent ("broadening the horizons"; "real English", or other foreign language).

Students have an overview of topical issues, their context and background, easy access for quickly finding inspiration for (continuing) the conversation, developing the skills for finding the right information, analyse, present and discuss it, developing the skills for using the e-environment and new technologies, developing responsibility for the learning process, forming one ́s own opinion and learning to (dare to!) express it.

IV. Going 100% Online: Description of a Pilot Course

A. Optional Eye-to-eye Meetings to Back-up the Course

Despite the positive experience in blended learning, going 100% posed a different challenge. To safeguard against any possible problems we decided to give students an option of discussing the course eye-to-eye with the teacher at three instances: 1. before the course; 2 in the middle of the course; and, 3. at the end of the course.

The introductory meeting took place prior to the course. The goal was to avoid any possible problems that might be incurred by not knowing the specific e-learning environment (Blackboard). To enable students to try everything hands-on, they were invited to this special introductory meeting in the computer lab.

In addition to a brief introduction to the course, students had the possibility to try out navigating the course. The teacher was around to help them and answer possible questions, including support with creating the initial passwords and user names. This set-up also enabled us to ask students about their goals for the course and wishes as concerning the tasks, topics, etc. We even tried working on the first Module altogether to see how to navigate the course, and for the teacher to discover where the possible difficulties might be for the users. Reading out some parts of the texts enabled the students and teacher to see if their language level was adequate.

The discussion session enabled students to meet each other in smaller groups, and to get at least some idea of what kind of a person you are communicating with when meeting each name. Thus, last but not least, this special eye-to-eye meeting made it possible for the students and teacher to get to know each other, and negotiate the goals and specifics of the course before continuing 100% on-line.

The meeting was not obligatory, but 12 of the 20 registered participants had chosen to attend. In retrospect we can say that such an initial meeting is definitely to be recommended, as getting acquainted with an e-learning environment one has never seen before was made so much easier for students when they could have instant help and their questions answered immediately. The majority of students who opted not to participate were already familiar with the Blackboard e-learning environment, and thus there were no major problems relating to the ability to use this environment during the course.

A similar optional “live” meeting possibility was offered to students in the middle of the course, and also at the end of the course. However, it seemed that the communication in the on-line environment as well as prompt teacher feedback had by this time met their purpose, so not many students attended. At the same time, the on-line discussions were most lively and adequate – thus showing, we believe, that an efficient quick-start may prove to be enough as concerns options to eye-to-eye meetings. The long-term goal is to be just 100% on-line, reducing or eliminating the eye-to-eye meetings.

B. The On-line Course: the Structure and Goals of the Course

As on-line courses require an ability to plan and effectively manage one ́s time and efforts, we explicitly pointed this out already in the course description and requirements. Thus, the requirements for students to qualify to attend the course were: language level: B2/C1 according to the Common European Framework, the ability and will to work independently and in group, the ability and will to plan their time and pursue their goals, computer skills to manage the Blackboard environment.

The main goals of the course were to enable students to increase their vocabulary, to enable them to read articles and text on a variety of topics and to enable them to discuss the topics. It was pointed out that they would also be able to write a short summary of the discussions (to practise using formal English), to make a report through using video- or voice recordings (or alternatively: Power-point).

To make sure that students follow their learning programme respecting the dates, we established very clear rules. These read: ”one week – one lesson; be friendly and outgoing; support your group-mates; plan your time!”.

To make the course easy to navigate and follow, also the course structure was very simple. It was the following:

Introduction; eye-to-eye meeting in the computer room (optional)

Module 1-3

Test 1 (on these modules)

Module 4-6

Test 2 (on these modules)

Your presentation (a link to a video-recording OR Power-point presentation)

Feedback

For each Module there was a separate week, and we also enabled students a full week for taking the tests. A separate week was devoted to the introduction to the course. After all Modules were covered, a separate week was devoted to student self-analyses and feedback.

In evaluating student progress we used the following means:

Modules – self-tests (automatic control)

Tests – students get a mark (automatic control)

Discussions, summary of discussions, presentations – group-mates

feedback + teacher evaluation

Below, let us take a closer look at the course and analyse it in terms of student-centred learning, the possibilities and possible pit-falls e-learning and an on-line course holds.

C. The Outcome of the Course

In retrospect we can say that the course went very well, even much better than anticipated. Two students stopped in the second and third week of the course, respectively, explaining that the course demanded more time and attention they could afford. The rest stayed. The Modules were covered on time, the self-tests taken within the allowed time limits. Participation in discussions on each Module was rather modest in the beginning of the course, but grew more active as the course proceeded.

The minor setbacks we faced included the evergreen problem that students not always read through the course demands or course plan and send individual e-mails to the teacher asking about what to do next week. Indeed, in this case the “problem maker” was only one specific student, and the tasks and course plan were so clearly presented that there was not much to do on the teacher ́s part.

Another problem was faced during the first automatic test, when it appeared that a couple of automatic answers – most unfortunately - included some *lapsus calami*. Although we were politely alerted by the students and dealt with the problem at once, it appeared that the Blackboard e-learning environment did not allow us any corrections. Thus, in one case the preposition “of” had unfortunately been typed in as “oif”, and this couldn ́t be changed. Later IT support established that the Blackboard is technically designed not to allow the teacher to make changes in the test once any student in the group has already taken it (thus also revisiting your course as a mock student locks the easier possibilities for correcting possible infelicities!). The idea is to prevent malicious teachers from changing the questions once the test is in progress. I have never heard of teachers doing this before, misspellings are much more common to happen, I believe. So, no easily accessible technical solutions for these make you wish to double-check your tests next time.

As for all the other applications, these worked perfectly. It appeared that students found the texts and tasks on them very well, navigating the course skilfully. Thus, the general conclusions on the course are:

The course worked well, the time framework planned and materials to be covered seemed to be justified.

Participation in discussions was less frequent yet more deep-going than expected

Most of the participants passed the course with flying colours.*D. Students ́Self-analysis and Feedback to the Course*

We encouraged as much student feedback as possible. The goal was to improve the course, but also to help them analyse their progress and input. It was obligatory to evaluate one ́s progress during the eye-to-eye meetings, and if one was not able to attend, to post a detailed self-analysis. In addition to that, upon completion of the course, all students were invited to fill in an anonymous questionnaire on the course and their progress.

Below we give a brief summary of their self-analyses and the results of their anonymous feedback questionnaires. The self-analyses were written by four students and struck the eye with very good self-evaluation skills. In general, students said they were happy with the course; some admitted they should have devoted even more time to it; quite a few added thanks and some words of appreciation to the teacher.

One student mentioned he would have wanted to have more intensive A2-B1 level grammar drills. However, this wish was incompatible with the given goals and level of the course (vocabulary enhancement for C1/C2!). We did add a link to a rich self-correcting depository of self-correcting grammar exercises. As this was the same student who continuously asked for explanation of tasks in Estonian, we also concluded that his level of language was not adequate for participation in this course(as was indeed confirmed by the poor English in his postings).

The results and statistics of the rest of the feedback are in front of you. To give our readers an overview, as well as some flavour, of how students felt about using the on-line course environment, we have chosen to quote them verbatim:

The comments on “What were the new/ interesting emotions/ ideas/ thoughts/ skills gained during the course?” were the following (verbatim copy): *“I enjoyed the opportunity to express my thoughts in the text form; How to improve your vocabulary through reading interesting articles on topics you like; making reviews, more new words and new discussing methods; Understanding the main idea of a large complicated text; new thoughts after reading”.*

Answers to “What would I like to change in this course?” included: *“The tests where (sic! KM) too easy, more new words to learn, Maybe increase number of texts offered by students, more grammar drills, self tests”.*

“What did I like most in this course” was identified as: *“I liked the possibility to plan my time myself, The possibility to do everything on my own time, discussions, ppts and other students comments to the topics”.*

And the general control question “What did I like in this course? Why?/ Why not?” gave the answers: *“It is similar to the question above, Improving my English from home, vocabulary part in the tests should be much longer. Topics were quite interesting, Topics that interest you are easier to read, Very useful for me were the articles”.*

The longer, special self-evaluations posted to the Blackboard environment or sent directly to the teacher included:

“My goal was to learn some new words, improve my English and to repeat what I had already learned previously over the last years. I mostly did meet this goal, although I am not sure how much my English improved, some parts of it definitely, for example, I learned more about discussing subjects with others and making reviews and writing comments on articles. Very useful for me were the articles, I usually don ́t read that much articles in English. Maybe I will start doing it now. I could read other articles not only the ones given on tasks. I liked that every task was discussed with other students and everybody were taking part of it. This course was very useful, because a big amount of work was done without going to classes, so you could decide which day you will study English”.

As the excerpts given above illustrate, students had in general a rather positive attitude towards the possibilities of e-learning, and this course specifically. The possibility to be in charge of one ́s own study process and time was evaluated the highest.

We detect from some students ́remarks a strong tendency to rely on teacher-centered teaching. We believe that it illustrates some relics from our past and the rather traditional school system. As we personally believe in student-centered methodology, to enable students to decide on which way to choose, and to have more adequate self-directing materials, in the future a special introductory module will be devoted also to the self-analysis of the learner, self-analysis of the learning process, and on monitoring one ́s achievements on a broader conceptual level.

The positive surprise moment was that according to the students the course also enticed them to read more articles in English, that it raised new thoughts and ideas in them, and that students felt their skills of extrapolating information, writing reviews and compiling power-points had developed. Also, the capacity of a number of students to analyse their achievements and course benefits in a broader conceptual framework was positive. We hope this shows that some progress on the student-centered and self-analysis based conceptual learning has been made in the student body.

The answer to the question posed in the heading of this article would thus be: Yes. Going 100% on-line with language courses is possible. It would never replace a fully-fledged communicative eye-to-eye course with student and teacher communication, feedback, and meetings. But it can offer possibilities for self-development, on-line discussion and progressing towards one´s goals in an academic e-environment where prompt teacher feedback and on-line communication with group-mates still helps one to build a framework to one´s development.

Importantly, access to on-line courses may also be the only option for students who for financial reasons need to work in parallel to their university studies, and would not be able to visit a lecture at a given time or place. Also, students who may have suffered from some health problems, or are living abroad for some period of time are able to attend and have been grateful for this opportunity. Thus, we believe, there is also a social and ethical dimension to offering such courses, and through this, a possibility for participation and inclusion for those who would otherwise miss it.

V. The Ethical Dimension: Building Trust

A Chinese proverb says: “teachers open the door, but you must enter by yourself." Our task is to encourage students. But it is not only the new vocabulary a good language course should give them. It is essential to consider the fact that the immediacy of the information and news reaching our students (through this new language) gives them an opportunity to be informed of and shape their opinion on important topics relating to our society and the “here and now”.

We wish to remind us all that, as many renowned sociologist and researchers (cf. e.g. Cronin 2002, Pym 2005) have stressed, it is not enough to *have* an opinion - an educated person must *express it* to shape the society we live in. Indeed, much of the knowledge and ideas in the modern 2.0/ 3.0 Web world are related to who has the information and who has it first. And who else should be encouraged to learn to use it to the best of their capacity and following all the ethical principles than students of foreign languages, who in many ways are and become the window to/ from the world of their own society and culture.

Anatole France has said: “nine tenths of education is encouragement”. There can be no encouragement without trust (cf. Kiggins and Cambourne 2007: 374 in 2.2. above). As teaching in general, so can also e-learning be organised in different ways. For some, it may be a ready-made environment created by the teacher. Such an environment is often teacher controlled, students present filled-in exercises, get marks; self-tests, “the teacher´s button” with which to control the computers of students when we work together in the computer classroom. In contrast to this, we have chosen to build our courses on the principles of trust. We believe that students can manage, are (almost) grown-ups, can take responsibility, are (to a great extent) responsible for their study process. Much depends on the teacher´s authority type – whether the teacher is autonomy supporting or controlling. Dörnyei (2001a:37) points out:

“Sharing responsibility with students, offering them options and choices, letting them have a say in establishing priorities, and involving them in the decision-making process enhance student self-determination and intrinsic motivation /../”.

It definitely takes some courage from the teacher to give free rein to a group of teenagers. You have to accept a certain amount of insecurity, as there is no way to predict how each group of students approaches their course and the ICT environment. However, in our experience, supporting student autonomy shows that there is a trust for the teacher, and an increased responsibility for the learning process. Students are innovative and creative, and accepting, and making them explicitly share responsibility for the process and outcome motivates them to come forward with fascinating and useful ideas.

In education, as elsewhere, increased cooperation and neglecting of the earlier rigid borderlines, is becoming more and more of a common practice. Such an approach also helps students to retain their motivation. Cocea and Weibelzahl (2006: 2-3) point to the connection between e-learning and the Social Cognitive Learning Theory (SCT). In their view, personalization, adaptivity, affective tutoring and collaborative learning, as well as motivation – all aspects also we have emphasized above - all help to increase student satisfaction and learning quality:

“Personalization aims to make learning more effective and satisfying by adapting to the learner’s needs and preferences. Among the benefits of adapting to the learner’s motivation are: enhanced motivation and involvement, empowered learners – making them more responsible and active, increased satisfaction, better quality of learning etc.

Motivation is related to affective computing /…/, because self-concepts are always charged with emotions. Thus, affective agents could be used for both assessing motivation and intervention.

SCT also fits with collaborative learning, given the social framework taken in consideration by this theory and the way learning is influenced by the social context”.

Rather contrary to what is sometimes supposed of a web-based environment, the experience shows that it often joins the students in the group. Offering them the possibility to communicate in an environment “natural” for them, the web-based course, if built up in a way that enables the students to participate and open up. It also serves to join the different terms (over X-mas, during the summer vacation), different parallel groups (e.g. Group A and Group B learning the same subject), different years of students learning the same subject.

This can be supported through helping students create common databases. In our case, the different power-point presentations and on-line dictionaries created by students have been the most popular items, especially so when the data-base is built up over different study years and together with the parallel group(s). Needless to say, the profiles of friends from a parallel group, and their small roster presentations of themselves also deserve great interest by the fellow students. And while commonly created on-line dictionaries can prove motivating for learning (and creating!) terminology and ESP for advanced students, consider how useful even creating a small roster presentation, or reading those of others, can be for a beginner-level general language student in the first months of their learning practice/ studies.

Analysing our past and current courses we may see that the Web-based environment can help to develop the sense of belonging together. In addition to common learning activities mentioned above, this can also be done through documenting different joint activities. Different common study visits or museum visits, often especially when also documented, and shared, discussed and analysed through the Web, all give their share. Creating a feeling of belonging enables students to open up, to share more information about themselves to group-mates. The supportive experience in "real life" encourages students to share more information digitally. And also vice versa - the information presented in the virtual world makes a good foundation for developing good relations in the classroom. Such processes of merging the virtual with real life, relying for technologies to find a feeling of belonging, and rejoicing over the friends ´real life presence happens all the time in many modern lives today. Allowing our students to pursue this way we allow them to communicate and develop in modes and context familiar to and inspiring for them. ICT can also help to create special "bridges" between the study periods, different study-years and student groups, helping to shape the feeling of "us".

VI. Conclusion

As demonstrated in the article above, the level of values and ethics may guide teachers through choosing their medium, procedures and communication patterns with communicating with their students. Behind many of the seemingly practical choices there is a worldview based on active research and recent theoretical approaches. Many years of teaching practice and - as a teacher in different learning groups - participant observation also help to analyse and shape the processes. E-learning in language learning is possible and can be stimulating. Hopefully, anchorage in deeper theories, principles and ethics can support students in making meaningful choices.

With the development of Web 2.0 and 3.0 there are still endless opportunities for novelties, development and change. Students are becoming more and more engaged, the communication and learning are less and less teacher-centred. In these developments the role of teachers, students, and learning itself are continuously changing to offer exiting possibilities for further development. Many of these developments are to be discovered in the work process together with the students and colleagues from all over the world.

Long before the e-learning era, Plato (428 BC– 348 BC) said:

"Someday, in the distant future, our grandchildren's grandchildren will develop a new equivalent of our classrooms. They will spend many hours in front of boxes with fires glowing within. May they have the wisdom to know the difference between light and knowledge".

May we have that knowledge!

Hopefully, a student-centred approach based on individualisation, increasing the student motivation, and responsibility, can be of support on this way.

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Teaching English Discrete Sounds through Minimal Pairs

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***Abstract*—Minimal pairs bear great benefits in pronunciation teaching and learning which have long been of fruitful use. However, the full use of these pairs has not yet been made in the setting of Hung Vuong University. This paper sought to examine possible problems facing English non-majored students at Hung Vuong University in recognizing and producing English discrete sounds as well as in what way and to what extent do minimal pairs facilitate the teaching and learning of English discrete sounds. The data were collected both quantitatively and qualitatively from various sources: questionnaires for and interviews with both the teacher and student subjects, tests of students' sound recognitions, regular real-time observations, audio recordings of students' sound productions, and spectrogram-based analyses of these recordings. The findings revealed that virtually all of the student subjects face the six pronunciation problems: omitting the word-final consonant, adding the word-final /s/ to English words not ending in /s/, adding the schwa /6/ in the middle of a consonant cluster, mispronouncing strange sounds to Vietnamese people, e.g. /t/ and /d/, failing to differentiate between long and short vowels, and failing to differentiate between voiced and voiceless consonants. Both the student and the teacher subjects also show high appreciation of the pedagogical effectiveness of minimal pairs when employed either as a teaching or learning tool within the extent to which English discrete sounds are concerned.**

***Index Terms*—discrete sounds, minimal pairs, teaching pronunciation**

I. INTRODUCTION

Theoretically, most educators agree that minimal pairs[1] greatly facilitate students' acquisition of discrete sounds[2]. With their own power, minimal pair drills[3] create a contrastive environment where these sounds are phonemically presented in such a way that they can be perceived with utmost ease and high motivation. Such an environment is fulfilled with contexts where a single phoneme[4] functions as to denote word meaning. Contexts of this kind demonstrate the importance of pronunciation in oral communication, and thus lead students into the habit of speaking with accurate pronunciation and interpreting a spoken message with precise recognition of phonetic form of words. These facts indicate that practice with minimal pairs can naturally raise students' awareness of pronunciation and improve their production as well as recognition at word level laying the foundation for their further progress in oral skills.

In practice, communicative competence has recently been considered the first priority of most EFL teachers as well as learners. In this aspect, it is pronunciation that partially shapes the speaker's success. Actually, Celce-Murcia, Brinton and Goodwin (1996: 1) claim that "successful communication cannot take place without correct pronunciation". In other words, the pronunciation from the speaker and the recognition from the listener have great influences on the quality of communication for both of the parties. Furthermore, in his discussion about acquisition of speech sounds, Chomsky (1972: 29) states that "the person who acquired knowledge of a language has internalised a system of rules that relate sound and meaning." Accordingly, the relation between sound and meaning is so close. Nevertheless, here and there, inadequate attention is paid to pronunciation learning. The situation of the first-year students at the Hung Vuong University in Ho Chi Minh City is a good case in point. A considerable number of these English non-majored students fail to pronounce English sounds properly. Utterances in which words with similar sound forms, such as *wine* and *wife*, cannot be distinguished are of high frequency. Such mispronunciation may cause misinterpretation and potential discomfort devaluing the speaker's effort in oral communication irrespective of their fairly good stock of vocabulary and grammatical structure. Therefore, it is necessary to find a satisfactory solution to the problem, if not to put an end to the situation.

Connectedly, it is reasonable to assume that one of the first attempts to make these students fully aware of the significance of pronunciation in their second language (L2) acquisition is to distinguish English discrete sounds from

1 Minimal pairs are "pairs of words that differ in meaning on the basic of a change in only one sound." (Avery and Ehrlich, 1992: 39)
2 In the scope of this study, discrete sounds are vowels and consonants articulated separately.
3 "a DRILL in which MINIMAL PAIRS are practiced together, especially in order to help students to learn to distinguish a sound contrast" (Richards et al., 1993: 231)
4 A phoneme is "the smallest unit of sound in a language which can distinguish two words." (Richards, Platt and Weber, 1987: 214)

one another by highlighting the process in which the sounds are recognized and produced first in individual words and next in phrases or isolated utterances. Using minimal pairs seems to be an appropriate tool in such a case.

Last but not least, for the sake of the student subjects' advancement of English pronunciation, the concept of *Consonant Zero* (CZ) was experimentally employed in the study so as to more clearly describe the problems as well as to better facilitate the experimental teaching (ET) stage.

The study was guided by the subsequent research questions:

(1)What are possible problems facing English non-majored students at Hung Vuong University in recognizing and producing English discrete sounds?

(2)In what way and to what extent do minimal pairs facilitate the teaching and learning of English discrete sounds?

(3)To what extent can the technique of teaching English discrete sounds with minimal pairs improve the students' recognition and production at word level?

(4)What are the students' attitudes towards the technique?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. *Minimal Pairs*

Minimal pairs have been defined in various ways.

(1) Minimal pairs are "pairs of words that differ in meaning on the basis of a change in only one sound." (Avery and Ehrlich, 1995: 39)

(2) "A first rule of thumb to determine the phones of any language is to see whether substituting one sound for other results in a different word. If it does, the two sounds represent different phones. When two different forms are identical in every way except for one sound segment that occurs in the same place in the string, the two words are called a minimal pairs." (Fromkin and Rodman, 1993: 218)

(3) "A minimal pair consists of two words pronounced alike except for a single phonemic difference. A phoneme is the smallest unit of significantly distinctive sound. The phonemic difference is responsible for radical changes in the meaning of the word, as in *hat-hit* or *thing-sing.* Consequently, errors in auditory discrimination and/or articulation of these sounds may result in misunderstanding and misinterpretations of the meaning of the word, phrase or sentence." (Nilsen and Nilsen, 1973: 15)

B. *Relationship between Minimal Pairs and Pronunciation Acquisition*

When properly employed, minimal pairs effectively facilitate pronunciation acquisition. The good cases in point are lessons and exercises designed by Baker (2006a; 2006b) in the two textbooks entitled *Tree or Three* and *Sheep or Ship*; and by Baker & Goldstein (2008) in the textbook entitled *Pronunciation Pairs*. These two authors share and illustrate the view that "language teachers can improve their students' pronunciation markedly drilling minimal pairs in order to help them improve their intelligibility" (Hansen, 1995: 36). When learners compare and contrast discrete sounds in the environment presented in minimal pairs, the importance of these sounds in denoting word meaning is transferred to their mind naturally. Experience shows that "pronunciation classes… make students more conscious of their own pronunciation and aware of ways in which their pronunciation differs from the model offered" (Rajadurai, 2001: 14). Only when seeing this difference, will Vietnamese learners of English find out the importance of discrete sounds in the English language and that of the tone[5] in the Vietnamese language are of equal value in denoting word meaning. Accordingly, this finding will raise Vietnamese learners' awareness of accurate pronunciation when speaking English. This may also help lay the foundation for further progress in such aspects of connected speech as linking, elision and assimilation.

C. *Relevant Researches and Theories*

1. Relevant researches

Using minimal pairs to teach pronunciation has long been an interesting topic. A great number of researchers have spent their time and energy to exploit the advantages of this technique. Among these studies, the following are believed to have the closest relation with this research.

First, the research entitled *Recognizing Words in Continuous Speech: how important are word-final consonants* was conducted by Tauroza (1993), a senior lecturer of English, with the participation of learners from Hong Kong, Italy and

[5] Tone is "the height of pitch and change of pitch which is associated with the pronunciation of syllables or words and which affects the meaning of the word." In Vietnamese, which is a tone language, tone is used to differentiate words; i.e. variations in pitch affect the meaning of words and thus, substituting one distinctive tone for another on a particular word or morpheme can cause a change in the lexical meaning of that word or morpheme:
- ma (with *the mid-level tone*) = ghost
- má (with *the high-rising tone*) = cheek, mother
- mà (with the low-falling tone) = but
- mạ (with *the low-broken tone*) = rice seeding
- mả (with *the low-rising tone*) = tomb
- mã (with the high-broken tone) = horse

In English, which is an intonation language, "tone does not differentiate words in this way. Instead, it operates above the level of words and is perceived to influence the meaning of chunks of speech, which are commonly called tone units." (Richards et al., 1993: 382) the UK as its student subjects to find out at what level word-final consonants affect word recognition. This paper employs minimal pairs as part of the instrument used. The finding indicates that the instability of word-final consonants in spoken English is regarded as a potential problem for listeners, especially those who are L2 listeners.

Second, the research titled *Teaching Pronunciation with Minimal Pairs* conducted by Mora (2004), Associate Professor at San Diego State University mainly proves that, together with flashcards and matching items, minimal pairs can be used to effectively enhance students' pronunciation and recognition at word level.

2. Relevant theories of pronunciation teaching

The following review of relevant theory bases itself mostly on descriptions of approaches and techniques for pronunciation teaching reviewed by Avery and Ehrlich (1995) and Celce-Murcia et al. (1996).

An *intuitive-imitative approach* depends on the learner's ability to listen and to imitate the rhythms and sounds of the target language without the intervention of any explicit information. It also presupposes the availability of good models to listen to, a possibility that has been enhanced by the availability first of phonograph records, then of tape recorders and language labs in the mid-twenty century and more recently of audio and video cassettes and compact discs.

An *analytic-linguistic approach* utilizes contrastive information and tools such as charts of the vocal tract, descriptions of articulators and of the target sound system, etc. and other aids to supplement listening, imitation, and production. It explicitly informs the learner of and focuses attention on the sounds and rhythms of the target language. This approach was developed to complement rather than to replace the intuitive-imitative approach, which was typically retained as the practice phase used in tandem with the phonetic information.

The Direct Method allows the teaching of pronunciation through intuition and imitation: students imitate a model — the teacher or a recording— and do their best to approximate the model through imitation and repetition. This instructional method was grounded on observations of children learning their first language and of children and adults learning foreign languages in non-instructional settings.

Naturalistic methods mostly expose students to listening before any speaking. Examples include Asher's (1977) *Total Physical Response* and Krashen and Terrell's (1983) *Natural Approach*. Proponents maintain that the initial focus on listening without pressure to speak gives the learner the opportunity to internalize the target sound system. When the learner does speak later on, their pronunciation is supposedly quite good despite their never having received explicit pronunciation instruction.

The Reform Movement advocates the following notions of practice:

-The spoken form of a language is primary and should be taught first;

-The findings of phonetics should be applied to language teaching;

-Teachers must have solid training in phonetics;

-Learners should be given phonetic training to establish good speech habits.

The Audio-lingual and Oral Approach sees pronunciation very important and thus taught explicitly from the start. As in the Direct Method classroom, the teacher (or a recording) models a sound, a word, or an utterance and the learner imitate or repeat. However, the teacher also typically makes use of information from phonetics and/or visual aids that demonstrate the articulation of sounds. Furthermore, the teacher often uses minimal pair drills, a technique derived from the notion of contrast in structural linguistics.

The Silent Way emphasizes pronunciation accuracy of the sounds of the target language from the very initial stage, enabling the learner to sharpen their own inner criteria for accurate production. In the Silent Way, the learner's attention is focused on the production of the sound system without having to learn the phonetic alphabet or a body of explicit linguistic information. The teacher speaks as little as possible, indicating through gestures what the learner should do. This includes an elaborate system in which the teacher tap out rhythmic patterns with a pointer, hold up their fingers to indicate the number of syllables in a word or to indicate stressed elements, or model proper positioning of the articulators by pointing to their own lips, teeth, or jaw.

The Communicative Approach sees using language to communicate as central in all classroom language instruction because the primary purpose of language is communication. This focus on language as communication brings renewed urgency to the teaching of pronunciation, for both empirical and anecdotal evidence indicates that there is a threshold level of pronunciation for nonnative speakers of English: if they fall below this threshold level, they will have oral communication problems no matter how excellent and extensive their control of English grammar and vocabulary might be.

III. Research Methodology

A. *Participants*

The study was carried out with the involvement of fifty-four first-year students from Class 2010A who major in tourism and all of the twenty teachers of English from the English Department at Hung Vuong University.

B. *Materials and Instruments*

In order to accomplish the research project, the researcher made proper use of:

1. Technological tools

Teaching tools

Three application softwares designed for learning English pronunciation:

Pronunciation Power 1 and *Pronunciation Power 2* (abbreviated to *ProPower1* and *ProPower2* respectively) published by *English Computerized Learning Inc.* (see Figure 1)

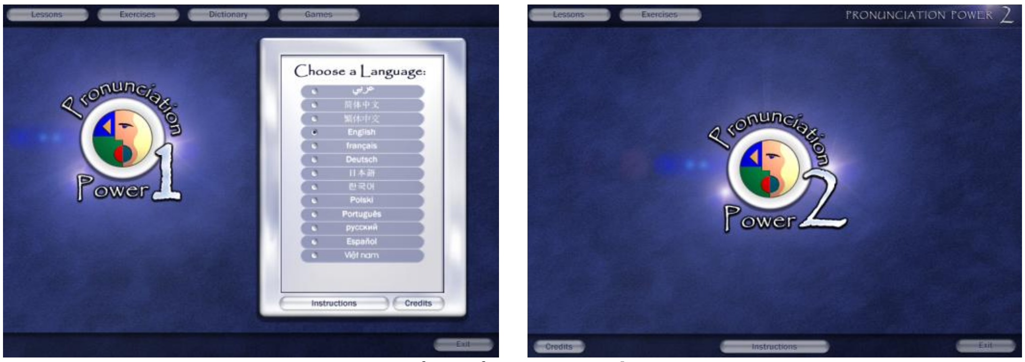
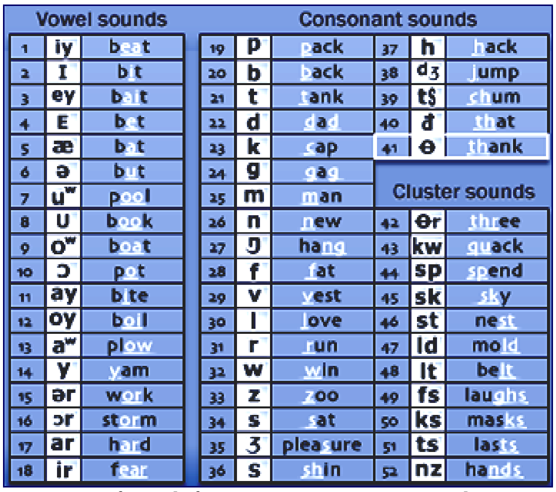


Figure 1: Interfaces of *ProPower1* and *ProPower2*

Two selected features of these softwares, which are used in ET, are *Lessons* and *Exercises.*

Lessons provides the learner with audiovisual descriptions of all English speech sounds from which the learner can choose a particular sound to study (see Figure 2).



Vowel sounds			Consonant sounds					
1	iy	beat	19	p	pack	37	h	hack
2	I	bit	20	b	back	38	dʒ	jump
3	ey	bait	21	t	tank	39	tʃ	chum
4	E	bet	22	d	dad	40	ð	that
5	æ	bat	23	k	cap	41	θ	thank
6	ə	but	24	g	gag			
7	uʷ	pool	25	m	man	Cluster sounds		
8	U	book	26	n	new	42	θr	three
9	oʷ	boat	27	ŋ	hang	43	kw	quack
10	ɔ	pot	28	f	fat	44	sp	spend
11	ay	bite	29	v	vest	45	sk	sky
12	oy	boil	30	l	love	46	st	nest
13	aʷ	plow	31	r	run	47	ld	mold
14	y	yam	32	w	win	48	lt	belt
15	ər	work	33	z	zoo	49	fs	laughs
16	ɔr	storm	34	s	sat	50	ks	masks
17	ar	hard	35	ʒ	pleasure	51	ts	lasts
18	ir	fear	36	ʃ	shin	52	nz	hands

Figure 2: List of sounds from *Lessons* in *ProPower1* and *ProPower2*

-*Side View* and *Front View* depict both "inner workings" and "outer workings" of the vocal tract during articulation. Also included in both of the softwares is *Air Flow Legend*, which lists major air flow qualities including voicing, obstruction and release, replicated when activating the *Side View* video (see Figure 3).

Figure 3: *Side View*, *Front View* and *Air Flow Legend* as observed in *ProPower2*

-*Side View Legend* (available only in *ProPower2*) visualizes the articulators and their positions (see Figure 4).

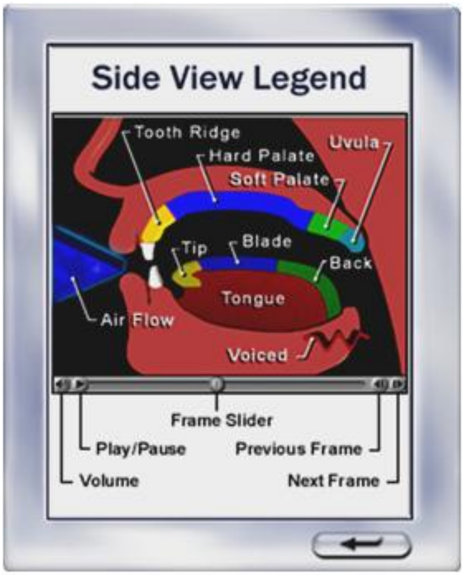


Figure 4: *Side View Legend* as observed in *ProPower2*

-*Description* (available only in *ProPower2*) tells the learner how to "operate" the articulators when pronouncing a particular sound (see Figure 5).

Figure 5: *Description* as observed in *ProPower2*

-*Suggestion* (available only in *ProPower2*) offers the learner particular tips for the production of particular sounds (see Figure 6).

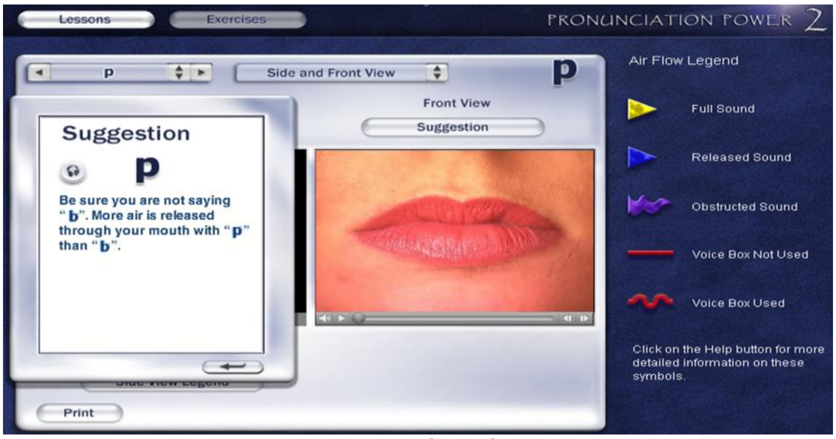


Figure 6: *Suggestion* as observed in *ProPower2*

-*Description* and *Suggestion* available in *ProPower2* are well suited to the experimental teaching because they are really simplified instructions which can make special impression of student acquisition of the sounds.

Exercises is a collection of various kinds of pronunciation exercises, only three of which are used in ET — *Sample Words*, *Comparative Words*, and *Listening Discrimination*. This choice was based on their directness to teaching technique (see Figure 7).

Figure 7: Interfaces of *Exercises* as observed in *ProPower2*

-*Lose Your Accent in 28 Days* (*LYA28*) published by *Language Success Press*[6] (see Figure 8).

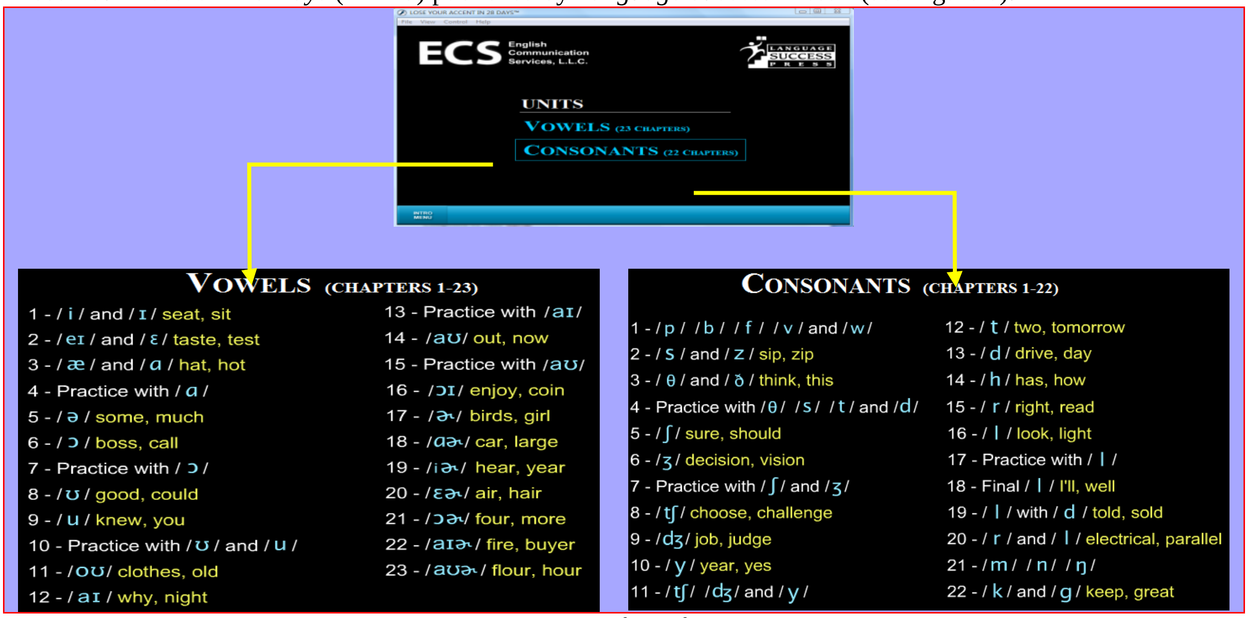


Figure 8: Interfaces of *LYA28*

LYA28 seems to be a perfect addition to *ProPower2*: while *LYA28* provides video clips of sample words and an utterance in which a relevant minimal pair is employed (see Figure 9), *ProPower2* only gives those of discrete sounds.

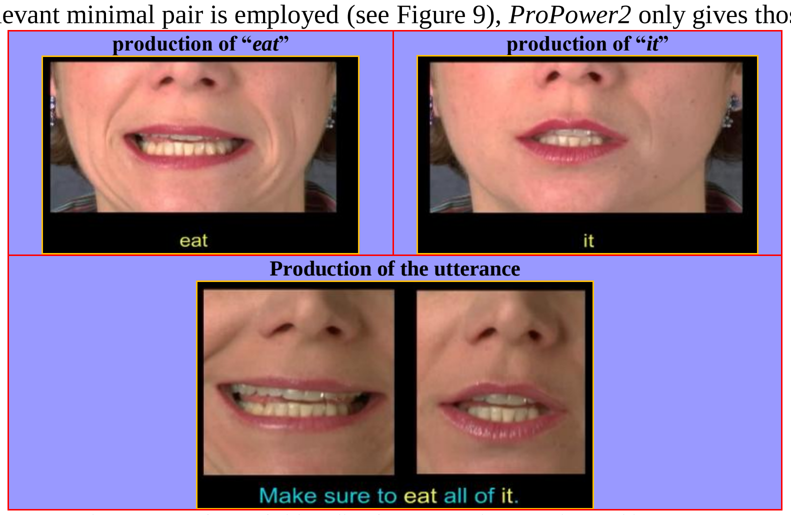


Figure 9: Interfaces of video clips for "*eat*" and "*it*" as observed in *LYA28*

[6]a core part of the complete pronunciation syllabus composed by Judy Ravin, the CEO of English Communication Services (ECS), LLC, a reduction training company; and published by Language Success Press, whose website can be accessed at http://www.lessaccent.com

Recording tool

One application software named *All Audio Recorder — Version 2.10* produced by Microsoft Corporation serves as the sound recording tool during the research project. Its interface looks like Figure 10.

Figure 10: Interface of *All Audio Recorder — Version 2.10*

Analysing tool

Praat — Version 4.6.06 published by University of Amsterdam[7] is employed for acoustic analysis. Its full interface of a spectrogram describing a sound looks like Figure 11.

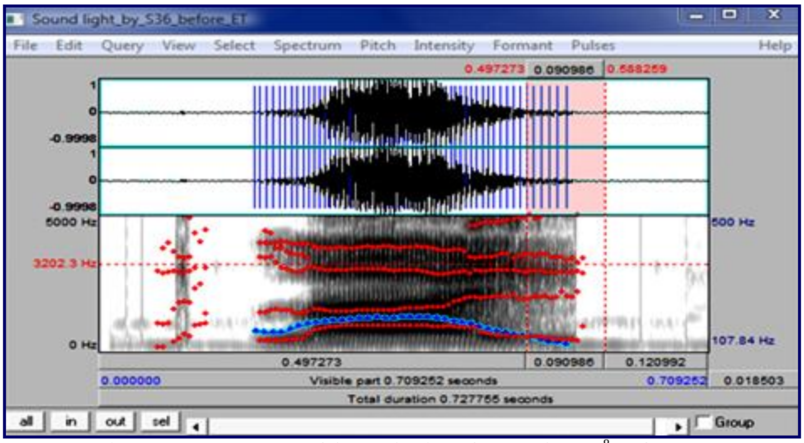


Figure 11: Spectrogram of the production of "*light*" by *S36*[8] before ET

In this spectrogram, there are two parts: the upper is the waveform and the lower is the formant-form of the sound analysed. Darker parts of the spectrogram mean higher energy densities while lighter parts of the spectrogram mean lower energy densities. The vertical red dotted lines function as dividers[9] which allow any selected part of the sound to be played.

To see what time and frequency a certain part of the spectrogram is associated with, just click on the spectrogram and you will see the vertical time cursor showing the time above the waveform and the horizontal frequency cursor showing the frequency to the left of the spectrogram. This is one of the ways to find the *formant* frequencies for vowels, or the main spectral peaks for fricatives.

The study's analyses do not go so deep into the phonetic characteristics of the sounds. Instead, only the waveform of the sound is analyzed due to the fact that the analyses of the sounds recorded aim at whether the pronunciation of a given individual word contains the productions of all its phonemic elements or whether a sound is voiced or voiceless. In other words, not the "full face" of the spectrogram but its waveform is presented in the analysis of the recordings. That is to say, the spectrogram of a sound analysed will become like Figure 12.

[7]Praat, which is a free application software program for the analysis of speech in phonetics, has been designed and continuously developed by Paul Boersma and David Weenink from the Institute of Phonetic Sciences, University of Amsterdam. This software can be downloaded at http://www.fon.hum.uva.nl/praat/.

[8]is the short form of "Student numbered 36"

[9]The positions of these dividers are adjusted this way: point the cursor to the desired location and then left-click the mouse to locate the first divider; left-click on this first divider and drag to the desired location then drop it to locate the second divider. The first horizontal line right below the formant part is also divided into the same proportions. The selected part of the sound is played when the responding part in this line is left-clicked. The whole sound is played when either the second or the third horizontal line below the formant-form is left-clicked.

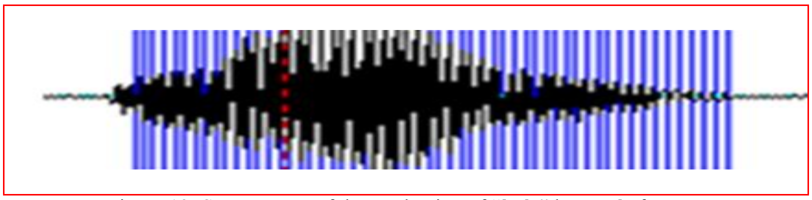


Figure 12: Spectrogram of the production of "*light*" by *S19* before ET

2. Pronunciation test

One pronunciation test was designed by the researcher which serves as both Diagnostic Test[10] given at the pre-experimental teaching stage and Achievement Test[11] given at the post-experimental teaching stage. This test script was read and recorded by a native speaker of English. With its four parts each of which contains five questions, the test is intended to check the students' recognition of English discrete sounds presented in the scope of individual words, phrases and short utterances. These four parts present the sounds to be tested in different environments where their conveying minimal pairs are included with the difficulty levels ranged from least to most.

The test is used twice because of the fact that two different tests cannot perform the same testability no matter how carefully they are designed. Consequently, the results of the two different tests may not be an adequately reliable base for assessing the students' achievement. Furthermore, collecting the test papers right after they are finished can minimize the test takers' memory of the items tested. Last but not least, the interval between the two tests (nine weeks) is also believed to be long enough for the student subjects to "empty" their memory of what they have been tested.

3. Recordings

Recordings of the students' production are carried out at two different times: *before* and *after* experimental teaching, thus named Pre-experiment Recordings and Post-experiment Recordings, each consisting of fifty-four students' recordings. The comparison of Pre-experiment Recordings and Post-experiment Recordings is expected to validate the diagnosis of the problems facing the student subjects when they deal with English discrete sounds as well as their progress after experimental teaching.

For further assessment of students' production, additional recordings of a number of individual words produced by a native teacher of English were also conducted to serve as the "standard spectrograms" on which the analyses of the students' productions of the same sounds were based.

4. Questionnaires

Three sets of questionnaires were designed for the study: one for the teacher subjects, the remaining two are for the student subjects. The two sets of students' questionnaires were written in Vietnamese so that the students could fully understand the questions and precisely express their viewpoints.

- Students' Questionnaire 1 is composed of nine questions which aim at gathering the subjects' background in English learning before the experimental teaching viz English learning history, attitudes towards English pronunciation, methods for learning pronunciation, and awareness of pronunciation in oral communication.

- Students' Questionnaire 2 is made up of eight questions the first six of which are supposed to evaluate the subjects' awareness of and attitudes to learning pronunciation with minimal pairs. The remaining two questions provide the chance for the students to state their difficulties in learning pronunciation and suggestions of how to overcome such difficulties.

- Teachers' Questionnaire consists of twelve questions which are distributed in three parts: *Part 1* (questions 1 through 3) is intended to investigate the subjects' opinion on teaching discrete sounds by means of minimal pairs; *Part 2* (questions 4 to 9) focuses on particular items related to this teaching technique, namely classroom activities, exercises, common troublesome sounds, sources of minimal pairs and the designing, time spent, and so on; *Part 3* (questions 10 to 12) aims at the subjects' comments on and further recommendations for the teaching technique.

5. Interviews

A numbers of face-to-face interviews with a number of teachers and students carried out in case of need for extra qualitative information. These interviews help fulfill the gaps which may be left unstated due to the limited scope of the three sets questionnaires or any other reason.

6. Observations

Observations done by the researcher during the whole process of the experimental teaching presumably lasts nine forty-five-minute periods, one per week.

IV. Findings and Discussion

A. Results from Questionnaire Surveys

1. Results from Students' Questionnaire 1

[10]A diagnostic test "is designed to show what skills or knowledge a learner knows and doesn't know." (Richards et al., 1993: 106)

[11]An achievement test "measures how much of a language someone has learned with reference to a particular course of study or programme of instruction." (Richards et al., 1993: 3)

Question 1 collects information about the total length of the students' exposure to English.

TABLE 1:
STUDENTS' TIME FOR LEARNING ENGLISH

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	**7 years**	39	72.2	72.2	72.2
	3 years	12	22.2	22.2	94.4
	Less than 3 years	3	5.6	5.6	100.0
	Total	54	100.0	100.0	100.0

As shown in Table 1, most of the students have studied English for a long time, having seven-year experience in English learning. Most of the remaining has studied English for three years. There are only a few cases of less than three years. This fact originates from the division of the English programme in the Vietnamese high school system into two: the seven-year and the three-year. The cases of less than three years result from some interruptions or switches of the programs applied in some local schools.

Question 2 investigates the students' self-evaluation of their pronunciation before ET.

TABLE 2:
STUDENTS' SELF-EVALUATION OF THEIR PRONUNCIATION BEFORE ET

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	**Good**	6	11.1	11.1	11.1
	Not very good	34	63.0	63.0	74.1
	Bad	14	25.9	25.9	100.0
	Total	54	100.0	100.0	100.0

Approximately two thirds (63%) of the students evaluate themselves as not very good; approximately a quarter (25.9%) as bad; only a little more than one-tenth (11%) think their pronunciation of English is good enough; and none of the students consider themselves excellent in this aspect (see Table 2). That means most of the students do not have enough confidence in English pronunciation; accordingly, more support is needed.

Question 3 focuses on the students' awareness of pronunciation before experimental teaching.

TABLE 3:
STUDENTS' AWARENESS OF PRONUNCIATION BEFORE ET

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	**Very important**	25	46.3	46.3	46.3
	Important	20	37.0	37.0	83.3
	Not very important	5	9.3	9.3	92.6
	Not important at all	4	7.4	7.4	100.0
	Total	54	100.0	100.0	100.0

Nearly half of the students (46.3%) believe that pronunciation is very important in oral communication; more than one-third (37.0%) think it is important; only a small proportion (7.4%) have little or no attention of the significance of pronunciation (see Table 3). Connectedly, it is obvious that the majority of the students are highly aware of the essentiality of pronunciation in oral communication.

Question 4 finds out the students' frequency of practising pronunciation before ET.

TABLE 4:
STUDENTS' FREQUENCY OF PRACTISING PRONUNCIATION BEFORE ET

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	**Very often**	6	11.1	11.1	11.1
	Often	36	66.7	66.7	77.8
	Sometimes	12	22.2	22.2	100.0
	Never	54	100.0	100.0	100.0

As displayed in the Table 4, none of the students (0.0%) practise pronunciation frequently, nearly a quarter (22.2%) never did this themselves, two-thirds (66.7%) spent only a little time on this, and only one-tenth (11.1%) had adequate practice of pronunciation. That leads to the fact that most of the students did not practice English pronunciation adequately which contradicts their adequate awareness of the issue reflected in their responses to Question 3. Such contradiction led to some interviews with the students to get some satisfactory explanation being reported later in the analysis of the interviews.

Question 5 indentifies the students' expected use of English in the future.

TABLE 5:
STUDENTS' EXPECTED USE OF ENGLISH IN THE FUTURE

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very much	16	29.6	29.6	29.6
	Much	28	51.9	51.9	81.5
	Not much	10	18.5	18.5	100.0
	Total	54	100.0	100.0	100.0

More than three quarters of the students (81.5%) predict that they will use English at high level in their future job. Only a few (18.5%) think that English will not be of great use to their future career (see Table 5). None of the students think that English is of no use in their future jobs. This fact suggests that most of the students know that English plays an important role in their future career.

Question 6 finds out how much time a day the students spend on self-studying English.

TABLE 6:
STUDENTS' TIME SPENT ON LEARNING ENGLISH PER DAY

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Half an hour	10	18.5	18.5	18.5
	1 hour	32	59.3	59.3	77.8
	2 hours	8	14.8	14.8	92.6
	More than 2 hours	4	7.4	7.4	100.0
	Total	54	100.0	100.0	100.0

Table 6 shows more than three quarters of the students (81.5%) spending over one hour learning English a day. That is quite a big amount of time because the students have, on average, five "hours-off-campus" a day. Thus, there arises a wonder why they spend little time improving their pronunciation as reflected in the results of Question 4. Further explanation of this inconsistency will later be discussed in the analysis of the interviews with the students.

Question 7 helps to confirm whether the students' previous teachers of English really taught pronunciation to them in class. All of the students said that the teachers did. Regarding the responses to the previous questions, there is some incongruity which requires more information about this issue.

Question 8 collects additional information about the frequency of pronunciation teaching to the students by their previous teachers.

TABLE 7:
PREVIOUS TEACHERS' PRONUNCIATION TEACHING

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	In every class	4	7.4	7.4	7.4
	Often	16	29.6	29.6	37.0
	Sometimes	20	37.0	37.0	74.1
	Seldom	14	25.9	25.9	100.0
	Total	54	100.0	100.0	100.0

At different levels of frequency — 7.% always, 29.6% often, 37% sometimes and 25.9% seldom — but all their previous teachers did teach pronunciation to the students during the years at school (see Table 7). This fact suggests the necessity of more information about the nature of why the students have poor pronunciation.

Question 9 discuses the students' problems in pronunciation before ET.

TABLE 8:
STUDENTS' PROBLEMS IN PRONUNCIATION BEFORE EXPERIMENTAL TEACHING

		Final sounds	Extra word-final 's'	Consonant clusters	Strange sounds	Long vowels vs short vowels	Voiced vs voiceless	Polysyllabic words	Connected speech
Valid	Frequency	45	17	39	40	48	35	30	54
	Percent	83.3	31.5	72.2	74.1	88.9	64.8	55.6	100.0

Problem 1 = Omitting the word-final consonant
Problem 2 = Adding the word-final /s/ to English words not ending in /s/
Problem 3 = Adding the schwa /6/ in the middle of a consonant cluster
Problem 4 = Mispronouncing strange sounds to Vietnamese people, e.g. /T/ and /D/
Problem 5 = Failing to differentiate between long and short vowels
Problem 6 = Failing to differentiate between voiced and voiceless consonants

Problem 7 = Mispronouncing polysyllabic words
Problem 8 = Mispronouncing connected speech
Problem 9 = Mispronouncing word stress

As shown in Table 8, the first thing can be seen here is the high frequency of almost all the problems with an average of approximately 75% with the peak of Problem 2 at 100% and the trough of Problem 3 at 31.5%. Most of these problems do not go beyond expectation, if not to say nearly the same as hypothesized. However, Problem 7, Problem 8 and Problem 9 are considered out of the scope of this research because these problems are more of further aspects of pronunciation than of discrete sounds, which is the research's focus. From now on, neither will these problems be further investigated nor does their statistics count the analyses of the whole data body in the research.

2. Results from Students' Questionnaire 2

Question 1 collects the students' opinion on the benefit of minimal pairs so as to validate the students' motivation for learning pronunciation with their support.

TABLE 9:
STUDENTS' OPINION ON THE BENEFITS OF MINIMAL PAIRS

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very much	36	66.7	66.7	66.7
	Much	14	25.9	25.9	92.6
	Not much	4	7.4	7.4	100.0
	Total	54	100.0	100.0	100.0

As shown in Table 9, more than nine tenths of the students (92.6%) are of the opinion that minimal pairs are of great benefit in pronunciation learning. Only a small number (7.4%) think that such technique of acquiring discrete sounds brings little help. Thus, it can be inferred that minimal pairs increase the students' motivation for pronunciation learning.

Question 2 investigates how the students' awareness of pronunciation is raised after ET.

TABLE 10:
STUDENTS' RAISED AWARENESS OF PRONUNCIATION AFTER ET

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very much	40	74.1	74.1	74.1
	Much	14	25.9	25.9	100.0
	Total	54	100.0	100.0	100.0

It is obvious that the students' awareness of pronunciation is raised more than expected (see Table 10). Maybe, it goes as a rule of nature: first comes their awareness; next comes their practice. Anyway, this is somewhat a success of the technique.

Question 3 finds out how often the students practise English pronunciation by themselves after experimental teaching.

TABLE 11:
STUDENTS' EXPECTED FREQUENCY OF PRONUNCIATION PRACTICE AFTER ET

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very often	30	55.6	55.6	55.6
	Often	20	37.0	37.0	92.6
	Sometimes	4	7.4	7.4	100.0
	Total	54	100.0	100.0	100.0

Most of the students (92.6%) tend to practise pronunciation often or very often after experimental teaching (see Table 11). This fact indicates that the technique has built up a fresh impetus for pronunciation learning among the students.

Question 4 aims at students' interest level in learning pronunciation with minimal pairs so as to evaluate their motivation for this technique.

TABLE 12:
STUDENTS' INTEREST IN LEARNING PRONUNCIATION WITH MINIMAL PAIRS

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very interesting	35	64.8	64.8	64.8
	Interesting	15	27.8	27.8	92.6
	Not very interesting	4	7.4	7.4	100.0
	Total	54	100.0	100.0	100.0

Almost all the students (92.6%) find it interesting to learn English discrete sounds with minimal pairs (see Table 12). This fact both indicates that the technique employed is highly applicable at least to the student subjects and confirms its essentiality in pronunciation teaching.

Question 5 helps identify which activities are most attractive to the students based on their own interest level in the activities carried out.

TABLE 13*:*
STUDENTS' OPINION ON THE CLASSROOM ACTIVITIES

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Presentation	9	16.7	16.7	16.7
	Practice	10	18.5	18.5	35.2
	Exercises and games	35	64.8	64.8	100.0
	Total	54	100.0	100.0	100.0

As displayed in Table 13, more or less, all activities conducted during ET could draw the students' attention. Of these activities, games are the most interesting. However, the presentation and controlled practice have their own functions which are considered to be decisive factors in pronunciation teaching.

Question 6 investigates students' expectation of frequency of pronunciation class after experimental teaching.

TABLE 14:
STUDENTS' EXPECTED FREQUENCY OF PRONUNCIATION CLASSES

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very often	40	74.1	74.1	74.1
	Often	10	18.5	18.5	92.6
	Sometimes	4	7.4	7.4	100.0
	Total	54	100.0	100.0	100.0

Most of the students (89.6%) expect more exposure to pronunciation learning in class (see Table 14). This fact suggests that the students have made their way to pronunciation learning. With the provision of this access, they wish to go further into other aspects of pronunciation.

Question 7 identifies which English sounds are most problematic for the students to acquire. Such identification is supposed to validate the suggested solutions to the students' problems in English pronunciation.

TABLE 15:
STUDENTS' CHOICE OF THE MOST DIFFICULT SOUNDS TO LEARN

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Vowels	20	37.0	37.0	37.0
	Consonants	20	37.0	37.0	74.1
	Diphthongs	10	18.5	18.5	92.6
	All three	4	7.4	7.4	100.0
	Total	54	100.0	100.0	100.0

Nearly three quarters (74%) of the students find that both English vowels and consonants are more difficult to learn than diphthongs (see Table 15). This asserts that the focus on discrete sounds of this research practically fits well with the students' need.

Question 8 collects the students' after EP suggestions of how to solve their own problems. These suggestions partially serve as the basis on which further suggestions for the teaching and learning in such setting are launched.

TABLE 16:
STUDENTS' AFTER ET SUGGESTIONS OF HOW TO SOLVE THEIR OWN PROBLEMS

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Vowels	20	37.0	37.0	37.0
	Consonants	20	37.0	37.0	74.1
	Diphthongs	10	18.5	18.5	92.6
	All three	4	7.4	7.4	100.0
	Total	54	100.0	100.0	100.0

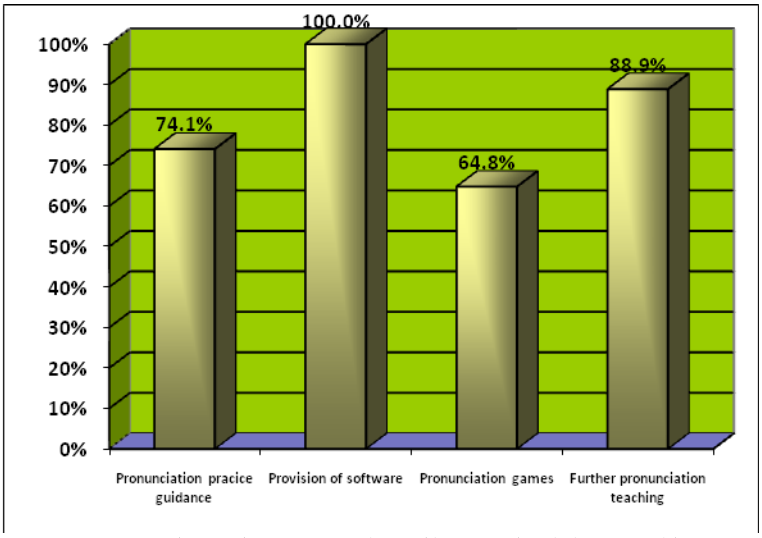


Figure 13: Students' after ET suggestions of how to solve their own problems

Since they are of a wide range, the students' suggestions are divided into four groups according to their closeness in the nature of what is suggested (as in Figure 13) for the sake of subsequent analyses. The statistics show that all the four groups of suggestions are of great importance because they come from the majority of the students. In the first place are the softwares used during ET; in other words, audiovisual demonstration of the production of discrete sounds is of great assistance. The suggestions of further pronunciation teaching once again confirms the students' determination to go deeper into English pronunciation as inferred from their responses to Question 6. The suggestions of pronunciation practice guidance indicate the students' persistence in self-improving their pronunciation.

3. Results from Teachers' Questionnaire

Question 1 collects the teachers' opinion on the benefit of minimal pairs in pronunciation teaching.

TABLE 17:
TEACHERS' OPINION ON THE BENEFITS OF MINIMAL PAIRS IN PRONUNCIATION TEACHING

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very much	15	75.0	75.0	75.0
	Much	3	15.0	15.0	90.0
	Not much	2	10.0	10.0	100.0
	Total	20	100.0	100.0	100.0

Almost all the teachers (90%) appreciate the great benefits of minimal pairs in pronunciation teaching (see Table 17). Once again, this appreciation consolidates the effectiveness of minimal pairs as a means to teach English discrete sounds to EFL learners.

Question 2 collects the teachers' evaluation of their students' motivation for learning English discrete sounds with minimal pairs so as to add reliability to the study's conclusion of the responding issue.

TABLE 18:
TEACHERS' EVALUATION OF THEIR STUDENTS' MOTIVATION

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very much	16	80.0	80.0	80.0
	Much	4	20.0	20.0	100.0
	Total	20	100.0	100.0	100.0

As shown in Table 18, most of the teachers' observations indicate that their students are highly motivated to learn English discrete sounds with the teaching technique employed. Together with the findings from the analysis of the student subjects' responses to Question 4 in Students' Questionnaire 2, this fact confirms the student population's high motivation for learning English discrete sounds with minimal pairs.

Question 3 focuses on the teachers' expected frequency of pronunciation teaching in their own classes.

TABLE 19:
TEACHERS' EXPECTED FREQUENCY OF PRONUNCIATION TEACHING

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very often	17	85.0	85.0	85.0
	Often	3	15.0	15.0	100.0
	Total	20	100.0	100.0	100.0

Table 19 shows that most of the teachers (85%) wish to teach pronunciation very often. This fact suggests that their students' problems would be similar to those facing the student subjects and that it be necessary to give Hung Vuong university students in general and the student subjects in particular more chances to learn and practise English pronunciation so as to improve the situation.

Question 4 aims to find out how much time the teachers spend on designing classroom activities with minimal pairs.

TABLE 20:
TIME SPENT ON DESIGNING CLASSROOM ACTIVITIES WITH MINIMAL PAIRS

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 - 2 hours	10	50.0	50.0	50.0
	3 - 4 hours	8	40.0	40.0	90.0
	Days	2	10.0	10.0	100.0
	Total	20	100.0	100.0	100.0

Most of the teachers agree that it takes about 3 hours or so to design minimal pairs into classroom activities for teaching discrete sounds (see Table 20). That is not a long time. That means such activities can be available within a few hours and some effort.

Question 5 seeks for the teachers' choice of suitable activities in which minimal pairs can be employed as a means in teaching pronunciation.

TABLE 21:
TEACHERS' CHOICE OF SUITABLE ACTIVITIES EMPLOYING MINIMAL PAIRS

		Recognition	Matching	Tongue twisters	Bingo sheets	Flash cards	Conversations	Others
Valid	Frequency	20	20	19	18	18	17	3
	Percent	100.0	100.0	95.0	90.0	90.0	85.0	15.0

As shown in Table 21, the teachers' opinions show that almost all the activities employed in ET are of great suitability to the student subjects. Some more activities are also recommended by the teachers, leading to the conclusion that in general the activities suggested by the study are practically applicable to the technique employed in the research.

Question 6 aims at the teachers' opinion on which sounds they think are the most difficult to teach to their students.

TABLE 22:
TEACHERS' OPINION ON THE MOST DIFFICULT SOUNDS TO TEACH

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Vowels	10	50.0	50.0	50.0
	Consonants	10	50.0	50.0	100.0
	Total	20	100.0	100.0	100.0

All of the teachers accept that English discrete sounds are more difficult to teach to the students (see Table 22). This fact states the same viewpoint as reflected in the students' responses to Question 7 in Students' Questionnaire 2. Such coincidence is believed to validate the significance hypothesized in the research.

Question 7 focuses on the teachers' opinions on which teaching aids are useful for pronunciation teaching.

TABLE 23:
TEACHERS' OPINION ON TEACHING AIDS FOR PRONUNCIATION TEACHING

		CD-layer	Flash cards	LCD projector	OHP	Pictures	Realia
Valid	Frequency	20	19	19	6	18	14
	Percent	100.0	95.5	100.0	30.0	90.0	70.0

Teachers' opinions on teaching aids prove that audiovisual aids are so important in pronunciation teaching: in the first place are the LCD projector and CD player; of the second choice are flash cards and pictures; next comes realia. These items are of very high rate of choice, all being over 90% (see Table 23).

Question 8 finds out from what sources the teachers often get minimal pairs for their pronunciation teaching.

TABLE 24:
TEACHERS' SOURCES OF MINIMAL PAIRS FOR THEIR PRONUNCIATION TEACHING

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Valid	Books	20	100.0	100.0
	Internet	20	100.0	100.0
	Experience	14	70.0	70.0
	Friends	12	60.0	60.0

As displayed in Table 24, all of the teachers state that the Internet and textbooks are the most common sources where minimal pairs are available. Sources of these kinds are within reach of both teachers and students. Such availability fosters the applicability of the teaching technique and saves teachers a great deal of time. It is also the Internet that facilitates the sharing of such sources among teachers who are in need of minimal pairs. This convenience makes it even more possible to employ minimal-pair exercises and games even online if Internet access is available in the classroom.

Question 9 focuses on the teachers' evaluation of the students' pronunciation improvement. The data collected from the teachers' responses to this question is one of the factors which indicate the effectiveness of the study's suggested teaching technique.

TABLE 25:
TEACHERS' EVALUATION OF THEIR STUDENTS' PRONUNCIATION IMPROVEMENT

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very much	12	60.0	60.0	60.0
	Much	5	25.0	25.0	85.0
	Not much	3	15.0	15.0	100.0
	Total	20	100.0	100.0	100.0

Table 24 shows that the majority of the teachers (85%) assert the considerable improvement of their students' pronunciation. None of the teachers negate the progress that their students made. This confirms the effectiveness of the teaching technique employed in the research.

Question 10 collects data of the teachers' opinion on how accurate their assessment of their students' pronunciation improvement is.

TABLE 26:
TEACHERS' OPINION ON HOW ACCURATE THEIR ASSESSMENT OF THEIR STUDENTS' PRONUNCIATION IMPROVEMENT IS

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very accurate	6	30.0	30.0	30.0
	Accurate	12	60.0	60.0	90.0
	Not very accurate	2	10.0	10.0	100.0
	Total	20	100.0	100.0	100.0

Almost all the teachers (90%) believe that their assessment is reliable. Only a small proportion (10%) is not quite sure of this reliability (see Table 26). None of the teachers deny the accuracy of their assessment. This allows statistics of such evaluation to be considered as sufficiently dependable.

Question 11 focuses on what problems the teachers encounter in teaching pronunciation. The difficulties reported in Teachers' Questionnaire can be grouped as follows:

Difficulty 1 = Lack of audiovisual aids
Difficulty 2 = Interference of students' L1 acquisition
Difficulty 3 = Students' poor awareness of pronunciation accuracy
Difficulty 4 = Students' low motivation for pronunciation learning
Difficulty 5 = Others

Difficulties included in the first four groups are similar to what was hypothesized. Thus, the application of the teaching aids employed in the research turns out to be of great suitability; and the recommendations of this research seem to be feasible solutions to these problems.

Question 12 builds up a collection of the teachers' suggestions for teaching pronunciation to the whole population at Hung Vuong University.

The suggestions focus on (1) more equipment for the teaching and learning process, recommended by 90% of the teachers; (2) reformation of the way students are tested, i.e. more weight should be counted on pronunciation, suggested by the same percentage; (3) more time for pronunciation teaching in class, advocated by 80%; and (4) application of new and suitable teaching techniques, endorsed by three quarters. The other pieces of advice such as inviting native teachers or holding one or more English speaking clubs seem to be also practically useful. However, the two last are quite far from the focus of the research, being excluded from the analysis of this section.

As far as concerned, the above-mentioned four main groups of suggestions reconsolidate the rationale as well as the significance of the research.

B. Results from the Recordings and Test Scores

As reflected in their responses Students' Questionnaire 1, it is obvious that the student subjects face pronunciation problems which directly originate from their poor production and recognition of English discrete sounds. This conclusion is further supported by the analysis of the data from Teachers' Questionnaire, Diagnostic Test, Pre-experiment Recordings together with the outcomes of the interviews and observations carried out. In addition, the student subjects from different geographical regions suffer from different English sounds.

For further evidence, also mentioned hereafter are some spectrograms of the students' production before ET.

Within the scope of this research, the researcher would like to present only one typical case for each type of the mistakes[12] in question.

For Mistake 1 (Omitting the word-final consonant) (see Figure 14)

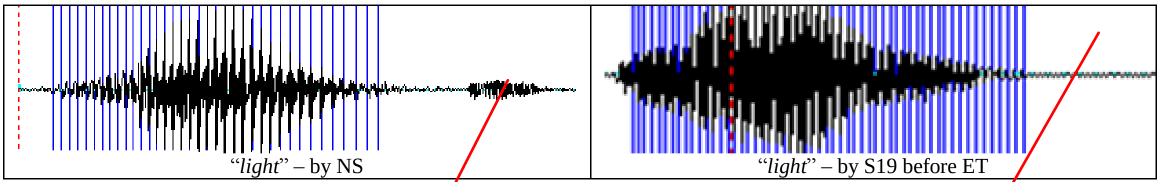


Figure 14: Spectrograms of "*light*" produced by NS and S19 before ET

This part indicates the voiceless final consonant /t/ in the production of *"light"* by NS.

This part indicates no final consonant in the production of *"light"* by S19 before ET.

For Mistake 2 (Adding the word-final /s/ to English words not ending in /**s**/) (see Figure 15)

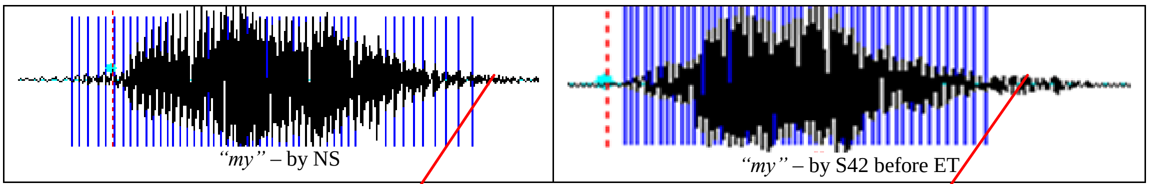


Figure 15: Spectrograms of "*my*" produced by NS and S42 before ET

This part indicates no final consonant in the production of *"my"* by NS.

This part indicates the additional voiceless final consonant /s/ in the production *"my"* by S42 before ET

[12]A mistake "is caused by lack of attention, fatigue, carelessness, or some other aspects of performance." (Richards et al., 1993: 127)

For Mistake 3 (Adding the schwa **/6/** in the middle of a consonant cluster) (see Figure 16)

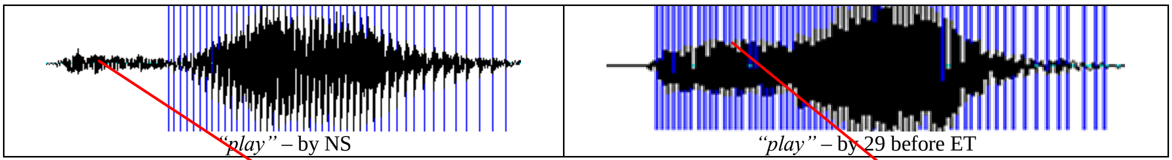


Figure 16: Spectrograms of "*play*" produced by NS and S29 before ET

This part indicates the aspirated voiceless initial consonant /p/ in the production of *"play"* by NS.

This part indicates the additional vowel /@/ after the voiceless initial consonant /p/, which is pronounced as the voiced consonant /b/, in the production of *"play"* by S29 before ET.

For Mistake 4 (Mispronouncing strange sounds to Vietnamese people, e.g. /T/ and /D/) (see Figure 17)

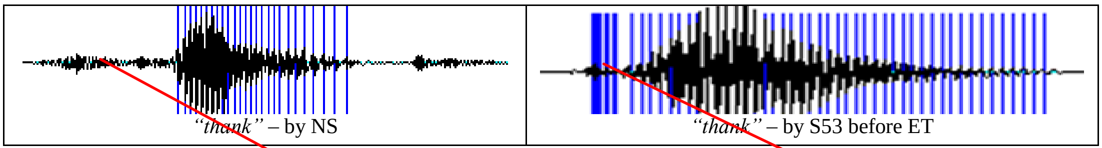


Figure 17: Spectrograms of "*thank*" by NS and S53 before ET

This part indicates the aspirated voiceless initial consonant /T/ as in the production of *"thank"* by NS.

This part indicates some kind of a voiced initial consonant which sounds like the Vietnamese "th" in the production of *"thank"* by S53 before ET.

For Mistake 5 (Failing to differentiate between long and short vowels) (see Figure 18)

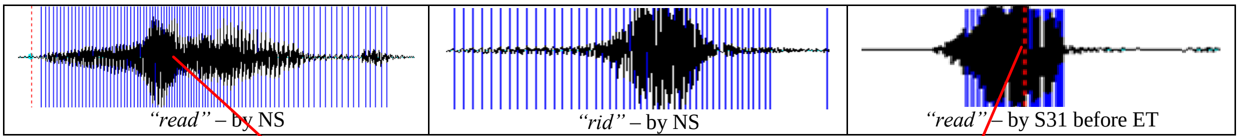


Figure 18: Spectrograms of "*read*", "*rid*" by NS and "*read*" by S31 before ET

This part indicates the long and tense vowel /i:/ as in the production of *"read"* by NS.

This part indicates the short and lax vowel /I/ in the production of *"read"* by S31 before ET, which sounds like the production of *"rid"* by NS.

For Mistake 6 (Failing to differentiate between voiced and voiceless consonants) (see Figure 19)

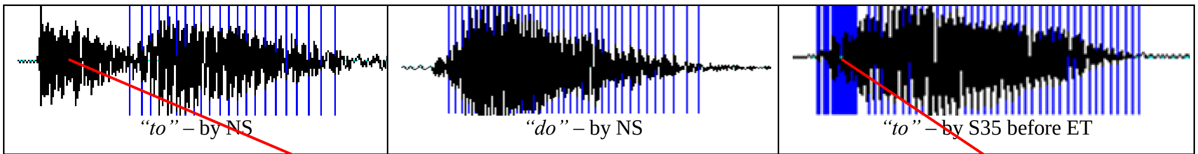


Figure 19: Spectrograms of "*to*"; "*do*" by NS and "*to*" by S35 before ET

This part indicates the aspirated voiceless initial consonant /t/ in the production of *"to"* by NS

This part indicates some kind of a voiced initial consonant which sounds like /d/ in the production of *"to"* by S35 before ET. As seen in the spectrogram, the production of *"to"* by S35 sounds like the production of *"do"* by NS.

The above analyses show that the student subjects' poor acquisition of English discrete sounds that result in their problems of English pronunciation.

The following demonstrates the benefits of minimal pairs as a tool (1) to raise the students' awareness of pronunciation, (2) to improve both their recognition and production of English discrete sounds, and (3) to point out the path for these students to get closer to further aspects of English pronunciation.

TABLE 27:
OVERALL CALCULATION OF STUDENTS' SCORES IN THE TWO TESTS

GROUP	DIAGNOSTIC TEST		ACHIEVEMENT TEST		STUDENTS' PROGRESS	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
G1	10	18.5%	02	03.7%	08	14.8%
G2	40	71.1%	18	33.3%	22	40.7%
G3	04	7.4%	30	55.6%	26	48.1%
G4	00	0.0%	04	07.4%	04	07.4%

Table 27 shows that all of the four groups made considerable progress after ET, especially the sharp increase in number of G2 (the group of *average* students) and G3 (the group of *good* students). More importantly, the appearance of G4 (the group of *excellent* students) serves as an assertion of the "depth" of the students' progress.

TABLE 28:
OVERALL CALCULATION OF STUDENTS' MISTAKES IN THE TWO SETS OF RECORDINGS

MISTAKE	PRE-EXPERIMENT RECORDINGS		POST-EXPERIMENT RECORDINGS		STUDENTS' PROGRESS	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
M1	42	77.7%	15	27.7%	27	50.0%
M2	20	37.0%	06	11.1%	14	25.9%
M3	29	53.7%	14	25.9%	15	27.8%
M4	48	88.8%	20	37.0%	28	51.80%
M5	39	72.2%	21	38.8%	18	33.4%
M6	33	61.1%	10	18.5%	23	42.6%

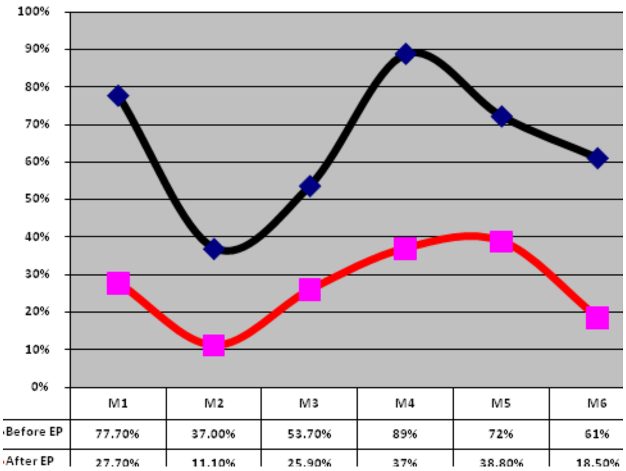


Figure 20: Distribution of mistake groups before and after ET

As inferred from Table 28 and Figure 20, the frequency of all mistake groups made by the students decreases remarkably after ET. Together with the above-mentioned analysis from the results of the two tests, it is obvious that the students made great progress both in recognition and production at word level.

TABLE 29:
FREQUENCY OF STUDENTS' SELF-STUDYING ENGLISH PRONUNCIATION BEFORE AND AFTER ET

FREQUENCY	BEFORE ET		AFTER ET		GROWTH	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Very often	0	0	30	55.6	30	55.6
Often	6	11.1	20	37	14	25.9
Sometimes	36	66.7	4	7.4	32	59.2
Never	12	22.2	0	0	12	22.2

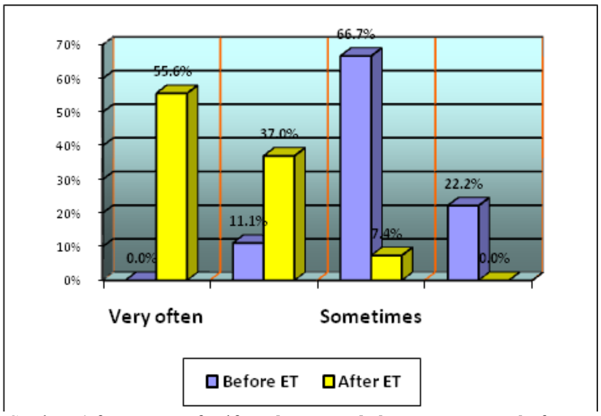


Figure 21: Students' frequency of self-studying English pronunciation before and after ET

As seen in Table 29 and Figure 21, the students' self-studying pronunciation rockets after ET. This partially indicates that the students have made their own ways to further aspects of pronunciation after attending the experimental pronunciation classes.

Together with these findings, the practical effectiveness and pedagogical benefits of minimal pairs employed in pronunciation teaching can be supported by the statistics from the students' responses to Question 1 and Question 4 of Students' Questionnaire 2 and from the teachers' responses to Question 1 and Question 2 of Teachers' Questionnaire.

As far as concerned, it seems advisable to consider some more spectrograms of the students' production before and after ET. By comparing the students' production at these times with that of the native speaker, the students' progress will be more reliably investigated. Hereafter are mentioned the analyses of the same cases as previously presented, one case for one mistake group.

For Mistake 1 (Omitting the word-final consonant) (see Figure 22)

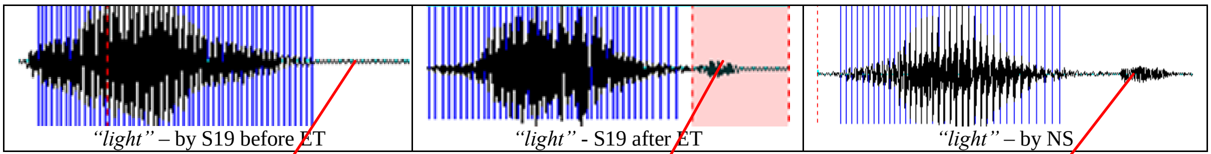
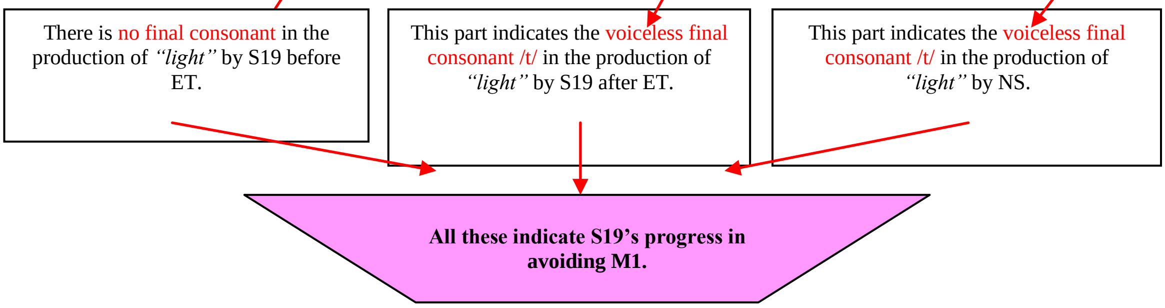


Figure 22: Spectrograms of "*light*" produced by NS and S19 before and after ET



For Mistake 2 (Adding the word-final /**s**/ to English words not ending in /**s**/) (see Figure 23)

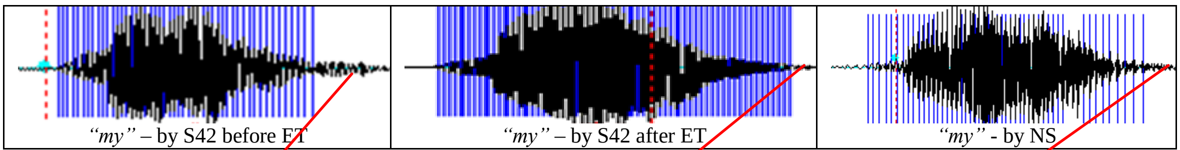
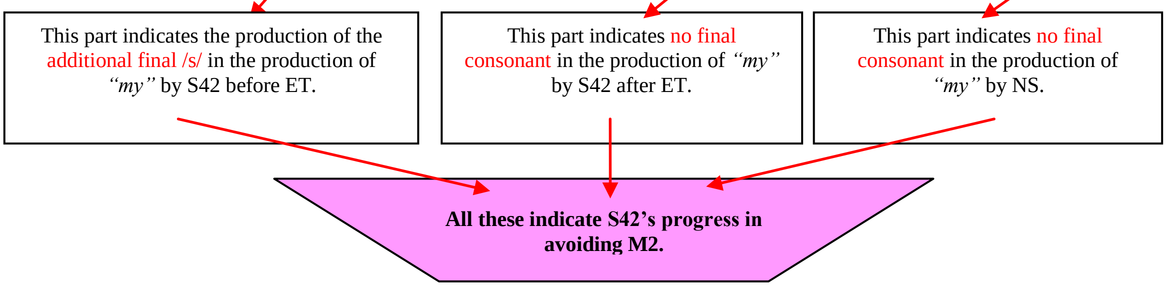


Figure 23: Spectrograms of "*my*" produced by NS and S42 before and after ET



For Mistake 3 (Adding the schwa /6/ in the middle of a consonant cluster) (see Figure 24)

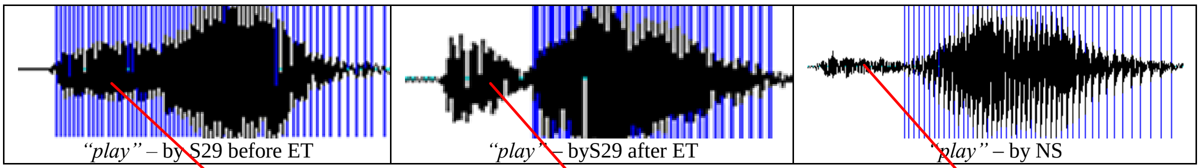


Figure 24: Spectrograms "*play*" produced by NS and S29 before and after ET

This part indicates the additional vowel /@/ after the voiceless initial consonant /p/, which is pronounced as the voiced consonant /b/, in the production of *"play"* by S29 before ET.

This part indicates the aspirated voiceless initial consonant /p/ in the production of *"play"* by S29 after ET.

This part indicates the aspirated voiceless initial consonant /p/ in the production of *"play"* by NS

All these indicate S29's progress in avoiding M3.

For Mistake 4 (Mispronouncing strange sounds to Vietnamese people, e.g. /T/ and /D/) (see Figure 25)

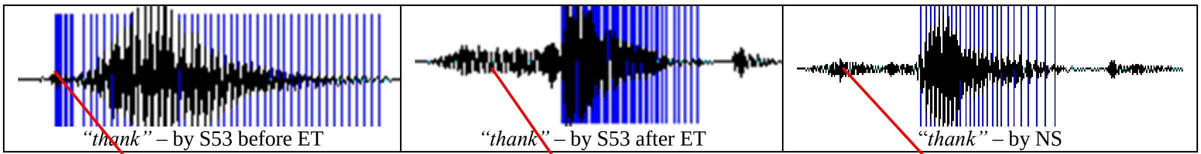


Figure 25: Spectrograms of "*thank*" produced by NS and S53 before and after ET

This part indicates some kind of a voiced initial consonant which sounds like the Vietnamese "*th*" in the production of *"thank"* by S53 before ET.

This part indicates the aspirated voiceless initial consonant /T/ in the production of *"thank"* by S53 after ET.

This part indicates the aspirated voiceless initial consonant /T/ in the production of *"thank"* by NS.

All these indicate S53's progress in avoiding M4.

For Mistake 5 (Failing to differentiate between long and short vowels) (see Figure 26)

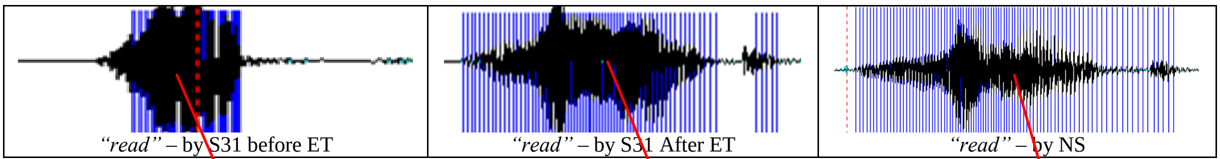


Figure 26: Spectrograms of "*read*" produced by NS and S31before and after ET

This part indicates the short and lax vowel /I/ in the production of "*read*" by S31 before ET, which sounds like the production of *"rid"* by NS.

This part indicates the long and tense vowel /i:/ as in the production of *"read"* by S31 after ET, which sounds like that of NS.

This part indicates the long and tense vowel /i:/ in the production of *"read"* by NS.

All these indicate S31's progress in avoiding M5.

For Mistake 6 (Failing to differentiate between voiced and voiceless consonants) (see Figure 27)

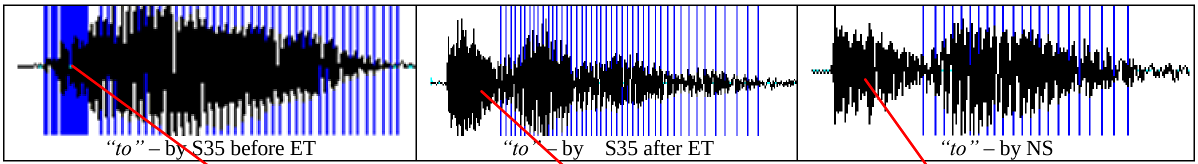
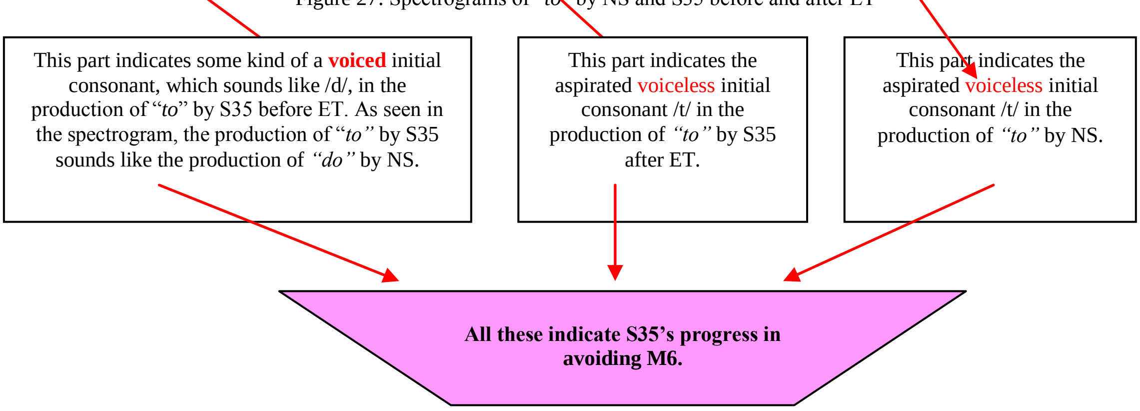


Figure 27: Spectrograms of "to" by NS and S35 before and after ET



V. Conclusion

Minimal pairs bear great benefits in pronunciation teaching and learning which have long been of fruitful use. Nonetheless, the full use of these pairs has not yet been made in the setting of Hung Vuong University. Considered in the light of these assumptions, minimal pairs were selected as a means to solve pronunciation problems facing the institution's first-year students in acquiring English discrete sounds basically at word level. As observed and analyzed, both learners and teachers demonstrate high appreciation of the pedagogical effectiveness of minimal pairs when employed either as a teaching or learning tool within the extent to which English discrete sounds are concerned. As crucially, the experiment has considerably raised the students' awareness of the roles the pronunciation of English discrete sounds plays in oral communication; and as a result, these students are more motivated to make their own way into other aspects of English pronunciation with a more practical impetus either by themselves or with their teachers' support. After all, a new foundation has been laid for the sake of learners' further progress in English pronunciation via minimal pairs.

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An Experimental Study of Chinese English Major Students' Listening Anxiety of Classroom Learning Activity at the University Level

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***Abstract*—Foreign language anxiety is one of the best predictors in accounting for individual differences in language learning success in SLA, and that it is proved to be one of the most essential and influential affective factors. The present study adopts English listening tests and questionnaire to conduct a survey on English listening classroom anxiety with 125 English majors as its subjects. The results show that there exist certain negative correlations both between English listening classroom anxiety and listening achievement. This thesis investigates the influence anxiety has on listening comprehension, explores the potential sources of foreign language listening anxiety, and puts forward some coping strategies from various aspects such as learners' psychology, teaching techniques, etc. in a hope to create a low-anxiety classroom atmosphere, and help to improve students' listening performance and proficiency in a most favorable affective state.**

***Index Terms*—anxiety, listening, English teaching, strategies**

I. Introduction

Listening is one of the most important skills for a student to learn in order to communicate effectively and in a mutually satisfying manner. Unfortunately, listening and speaking are the weakest points of most English learners of all the five skills in China. Poor listening ability results from many factors, such as insufficient emphasis on listening by the whole society, immature teaching methodologies, ineffective listening strategies, and students' lack of vocabulary, but the increasingly important one is that anxiety, an affective factor in listening comprehension, plays a very important role because the anticipation of foreign language use in receiving information can provoke anxiety. Listening comprehension is "highly anxiety-provoking if the discourse is incomprehensible" (Young, 1992). Therefore, anxiety has gradually been a focus of research in the area of listening comprehension and it is a "variable that must be respected in teaching and accounted for in research" (Young, 1999). Listening anxiety of Chinese English major students in the college classroom learning activity is researched in this thesis to investigate the influence of anxiety on listening comprehension and to discuss further the potential sources of English listening classroom anxiety and suggest possible coping strategies.

II. Methodology

A. Subjects

The subjects chosen for this study are 131 second-year English majors from four classes in Grade 2008 at Henan Agricultural University (HAU) during an autumn semester. Six subjects failed to follow the instructions and their data were excluded, leaving a total sample of 125. There are about 33 students in each of four classes and the gender ratio between male and female is about 1:7. All of them have learned English for at least 7 years before entering college. After 3 to 4 semesters at HAU, they will be required to sign up for CET-6(College English Test, Band 6), TEM-4(Test for English Majors, Grade 4) and TEM-8(Test for English Majors, Grade 8). Only TEM-8 is not compulsory. They are willing to cooperate because they want to know how to cope with language anxiety and improve their 1istening ability.

B. Instruments

The Foreign Language Listening Anxiety Scale (FLLAS) (See Appendix II), the listening proficiency test --TOEFL (Test of English as a Foreign Language) and the subjects' personal background information such as sex, age, major, and their scores in the last semesters' listening exams in college are employed in the study. The subjects are required to put down their students' ID card numbers so that the researcher can easily get their personal background information. The questionnaire is in Chinese for the sake of convenience and time-saving. The FLLAS is used to measure the level of their listening anxiety. Two TOEFL listening tests and scores of students' listening examinations gained from their records for undergraduate students of HAU are used to check the participants' English listening proficiency.

1. Foreign Language Listening Anxiety Scale (FLLAS)

In this study, the researcher chooses the main part of Kim's (2000) English version of FLLAS which is based on the

FLLAS designed by Horwitz et al in 1986. The Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale designed by Horwitz et al in 1986 is one of the most popular instruments used in the language anxiety research. The scale is a self-report measure of language learner's feelings of anxiety in the foreign language classroom. The scale has 35 items and 5-point likert-type scales are used. According to Horwitz (1986), the internal consistency is 0.93 based on Cronbach's coefficient alpha and test-retest reliability over a period of eight weeks is r=0.83(p<0.001). Therefore, the scale is "an adequately reliable and valid measure" (Kim, 2000). The purpose of this scale is to measure the general language anxiety as a specific reaction to foreign language learning. Listening anxiety as a language anxiety accompanied by listening process has its own characteristics. Therefore, some researchers, such as Elkhafaifi (2005), Zhou (2003) and Kim (2000), studying listening anxiety tend to work out their own scales on the basis of the FLLCAS. Kim (2000) uses her own version of Foreign Language Listening Anxiety Scale in her dissertation under the supervision of Horwitz, E.K. To develop the new instrument, Kim follows the guidelines of Gable and Wolf and De Vellis. The adapted second language version of Wheeless' Receiver Apprehension Test and the Foreign Language Reading Anxiety Scale by Saito, Horwitz and Garza (1999) are also good sources for addition to items. A five point Likert Scale has been widely used in instruments measuring opinions, beliefs and attitudes, so it was chosen in the research. It ranges from l) "strongly disagree" to 5) "strongly agree". A student's endorsement in l) "strongly disagree" is equated with a numerical value of one; 2) "disagree" is two; 3) "neither agree nor disagree" is three; 4) "agree" is four; and 5) "strongly agree" is five. After the deletion of 8 items, an alpha of 0.93 and 33 items remained in the final form of the instrument. Therefore, as a scale, it is highly reliable. In the study of HAU English majors' listening anxiety, the researcher uses Kim's English version, adapts, deletes and adds some items (Items 3, 14, 20, 21, 29, 30, 31, 32, 33, 34 and 35) for his own research purposes. The final version has 35 items and 3 categories: tension and worry over English listening (Items 2, 3, 4, 9, 10, 12, 13, 14, 16, 17, 19, 20, 21, 22, 24, 31, 32, 33, 34, and 35), lack of confidence in English listening (Items 6, 7, 8, 13, 18, 25, and 27), concern about insufficient prior knowledge(Items1, 5, 11, 15, 23, 29, and 30) and some items (Items 6, 21, 23, 25, 27, 31, and 35) are negatively worded so that the participants would not fall into a pattern of marking only one side of the rating scale. For each subject, an anxiety score is derived from summing his or her ratings of those items in the questionnaire. A high score represents high anxiety in the English classroom. According to the results of FLLAS, the 125 students are classified into three groups: HI-ANX(High Anxiety), AVE-ANX(Average Anxiety) and LO-ANX(Low-Anxiety) in order to compare their scores of semester listening examinations and TOEFL listening tests.

TABLE 1
CATEGORIES AND ITEMS OF FLLAS

FLLAS			
Categories	Tension and Worry over English Listening	Lack of Confidence in English Listening	Concern about Insufficient Prior Knowledge
Items	Items 2, 3, 4, 9, 10, 12, 13, 14, 16, 17, 19, 20, 21, 22, 24, 31,32, 33, 34, and 35	Items 6, 7, 8, 13, 18, 25, and 27	Items 1, 5, 11, 15, 23, 29, and 30

2. Students' personal information and TOEFL Listening Tests

The students' ID card numbers can clearly and officially elicit their basic demographic information, including name, sex, age, birth place and various records such as the first and second semester's listening grades. The research purpose is explained and the privacy of the participants is ensured to be respected by the researcher. According to the English Teaching Syllabus for English Majors of Universities (2000), the English proficiency of the second-year English major after two semesters' study should meet Grade Three. Therefore, the researcher does not use TEM-4, which is an authoritative proficiency test for English majors after 3 to 4 semesters learning. TOEFL, a Test of English as a Foreign Language, is to evaluate the English proficiency of people whose native language is not English. The test uses a multiple-choice format to measure the ability to understand North American English. The test consists of three sections: listening, structure/written expression (i.e. grammar) and reading comprehension. Listening Comprehension is to measure the ability to understand English as it is spoken in North America. Most students taking this examination must achieve a certain score to enter an institution abroad of higher learning. Therefore, TOEFL is used in the study to more appropriately evaluate the subjects' listening proficiency. The listening proficiency test for the second-year English majors of HAU is the listening parts of the TOEFL tests in January and October 2009.

3. Data Collection

In autumn, 2009, the questionnaire and TOEFL listening test were carried out at HAU and the data of the study were collected. The instructions about how to fill in the questionnaire were explained carefully to them. First, the participants were told the purpose of the research. Second, the listening tests and instructions were carried out in language labs. The participants were informed to start with the TOEFL listening questions. They were also guaranteed that the results and personal information would not be publicized and had nothing to do with their final-term listening test score. Seventy minutes later the test papers were collected. After the listening tests, the questionnaire was given to each participant, and it took about 20 minutes to finish. Third, the data of each class were collected separately and given to the researcher. 131 copies of questionnaires and test papers were collected. Six of them were not counted because the participants failed to follow the instructions completely.

4. Data Analysis Procedure

FLLAS is based on a Likert-type scale with five possible responses to each of the questions. The scale ranges from 1

(Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree). The answer indicating the highest degree of anxiety receives five points, whereas the answer indicating the least anxiety is one point. The quantitative analysis includes descriptive statistics, reliability analysis, correlation analysis and One-way ANOVA which are provided by SPSS. In order to summarize the participants' background information and responses to the questionnaire, descriptive statistics (mean, SD, maximum, minimum, frequency distribution of the variables) were computed for each item. The negative worded items were firstly recoded and the mean of two TOEFL listening scores and the sum of anxiety scores for each participant were computed. The relationship of the two scores -- the mean of first and second semester's listening examination scores and that of the two TOEFL listening test scores and the relationship between listening proficiency and listening anxiety were tested by the correlation analysis.

III. Results and Discussion

A. *Scale Analysis of the FLLAS and Reliability of the FLLAS*

The FLLAS is comprised of 35 items scored on a five-point scale with a theoretical range of 35 to 125. After the relatively few negatively worded items being recoded, a higher score indicates a higher level of listening anxiety and a lower score indicates a lower level of listening anxiety. In this study, the total scores ranges from 72 to 137 with a mean of 101.38 and a standard deviation of 14.30. A mean scale score is also computed. On the basis of a 5-point format, the mean score is 2.95 indicating a slightly elevated level of listening anxiety. The three categories of FLLAS: tension and worry over English listening (Items 2, 3, 4, 9, 10,12, 13, 14, 16, 17, 19, 20, 21, 22, 24, 31,32, 33, 34, and 35), lack of confidence in English listening (Items 6, 7, 8, 13, 18, 25, and 27), concern about the insufficient prior knowledge (Items 1, 5, 11, 15, 23, 29, and 30) receive different scores. The first category ranges from 48 to 86 with a mean of 64.19 and a standard deviation of 8.26. The mean scale score of this category is 3.01. The second category ranges from 10 to 27 with a mean of 19.83 and a standard deviation of 4.28. The mean scale score of this category is 2.81. The third category ranges from 14 to 31 with a mean of 22.04 and a standard deviation of 4.37. The mean scale score of this category is 3.04. The result shows anxiety due to the first and third categories are roughly equal. Anxiety due to lack of confidence for the participants is less than the anxiety caused by the insufficient prior knowledge or tension and worry over English listening.

Table 2
Descriptive Statistics of FLLAS

	Listening anxiety	Listening worry	Confidence	Prior knowledge	Valid N(listwise)
N	131	131	131	131	131
Minimum	72.00	48.00	10.00	14.00	
Maximum	137.00	86.00	27.00	31.00	
Mean	101.3782	64.1927	19.8329	22.0352	
Std. deviation	14.29813	8.26171	4.27611	4.37217	

As a result of SPSS analysis, Cronbach's coefficient alpha is 0.841 for the FLLAS and Cronbach's coefficient alpha of the three categories are 0.702 for the category about the tension and worry over English listening and 0.637 for the category about lack of confidence in English listening and 0.650 for the category about concern about insufficient prior knowledge. The results are acceptable because Cronbach's coefficient alpha of the overall scale is higher than 0.80 and Cronbach's coefficient alpha of the subcategories is higher than 0.60. Therefore it is a scale with high reliability and the items in the scale are consistent.

Table 3
Reliability of the FLLAS

Scale	Cronbach's coefficient alpha
FLLAS	0.841
Tension and Worry over Listening	0.702
Lack of Self Confidence	0.637
Concern about The Insufficient Prior Knowledge	0.650

B. *Worries and Tension over Foreign Language Listening*

Anxiety caused by tension and worries over English listening includes Items 2, 3, 4, 9, 10, 12, 13, 14, 16, 17, 19, 20, 21, 22, 24, 31, 32, 33, 34 and 35. The means of Items 2, 3, 4 and 9 show that the participants suffer higher anxiety in those situations. 51.8% of the participants report that they get nervous if a listening passage is read only once during the English listening exams. 70.3% of the participants report that it is difficult to understand English with an accent and none disagree or strongly disagree with it. When a person speaks English very fast, 69.4% of them worry that they might not understand all of it. While listening to English, 73.1% of the participants feel more relaxed if there are some visual clues (e.g. with pictures, TV programs, speakers with facial expressions). Accent is one of the characteristics of the spoken language, but since most materials used in listening classes are usually Standard English, once the students are exposed to English with an accent or dialects, they will likely feel more anxious. The best way to handle this anxiety is to make an extra-curriculum listening plan and listen to more authentic English. As a foreign language learner, he usually can not control the velocity of the input especially during listening tests and lectures. Even in the interactive listening, it is not easy for Chinese students to control the speaker's speaking speed. In addition, they are too cautious and polite and they dread losing face before peers. To avoid this occurrence the students should make use of the strategies to ask for repetition and clarification. With regard to the visual cues, visual methods in listening classes are always limited because of lack of facility; the listening materials are often given without any visual support except the question items. Therefore in the interactive listening, a listener can use visual cues to help understand what the speaker means; but in listening tests, it is impossible to get visual cues for help. This is perhaps one reason why some students do not feel anxious if they have some visual cues. In other situations of the interactive listening, such as telephone conversations or attending lectures, 18.1% of the participants report that they feel anxious in telephone conversations but 61.3 % of them feel anxious when listening to a lecture. The reason may be that telephone conversations are carried out with some familiar greetings, but lectures can cover any topics and the listener cannot control the speed of the speech; therefore they make listeners more anxious. As to listening class anxiety, Item 32 shows that there are only 7.2% of the participants who do not often feel like going to their listening classes; Item 33 shows that 23.7% of the participants report that they often daydream in listening classes; 19.5% of them worry that they will fail in listening tests; 26.9% of the participants report that they do not feel nervous at all while taking semester listening exams. To sum up, listening anxiety experienced by students in listening class is not very high to most of the participants. But in some interactive listening situations, they suffer severer anxiety.

C. Correlation Analysis

The TOEFL listening scores which represent the listening proficiency is significantly and positively correlated with the scores of two semesters' listening exams. This result means the changing direction of the TOEFL listening mean scores is consistent with the changing directions of two semesters' listening exam scores. That is to say, those who have higher scores in the two semesters' listening exams usually score high in the TOEFL listening tests. Therefore, the mean of the TOEFL listening scores can be accepted as a method to test the listening proficiency of the participants, although it only represents the non-interactive listening proficiency. According to the mean of the subjects' TOEFL listening scores and that of two semesters' listening exam scores, the 125 students were divided into three groups: HI (the group of high grades) of 29 students who got more than 80 scores, AVE (the group of average grades) of 83 students who got between 65 and 85 scores and LOW (the group of low grades) of 13 students who got below 65 scores.

According to the results of the FLLAS, the 125 students were classified into three groups. First, we calculated the group's mean for all the questions (M=3.22), and then determined the degree to which students deviated from the mean. The deviation of the highest score (i.e. the most anxious student) from the mean is +0.8, and the deviation of the lowest score from the mean is -0.76. So those students that score between +0.4 and -0.38 standard deviations from the mean were identified as AVE-ANX; and those with standard deviations below -0.38 were identified as LO-ANX; and the students with standard deviations over +0.4 were identified as HI-ANX. Table 4 presents the number and percentage of students in each FLLAS category and mean anxiety level and range of each identified group.

TABLE 4
FLLAS CATEGORIES

Category	Number	Percentage	Mean	Range
LO-ANX	20	16%	-0.47	-0.76~-0.39
AVE-ANX	91	73%	+0.244	-0.38~+0.4
HI-ANX	14	11%	+0.516	+0.41~0.8

The data computerized in the SPSS imply that the listening proficiency of second-year English majors is negatively correlated with the listening anxiety at the 0.00 level, which further confirms the previously-conducted researches(Aida, 1994; Cheng et al, 1999; Horwitz et al., 1986; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991; Kim, 2000; Zhou, 2003 and Chen, 2004; Elkhafaifi, 2005): when the listening anxiety goes up, the proficiency will go down, and vice versa (See Table 5). It can be concluded that FLLAS has a significant but debilitating correlation with English listening achievement (r=-0.392), which indicates that anxiety does affect listening proficiency negatively.

TABLE 5
CORRELATION BETWEEN THE LISTENING PROFICIENCY AND FLLA

		Listening proficiency	FLLA
Listening proficiency	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	1.000 - 125	-0.392** .000 125
FLLA	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	-0.392** .000 125	1.000 - 125

**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level(2-tailed).

IV. CONCLUSION: PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

This experimental study has shown a negative correlation between FLLA and the subjects' listening achievement. Although FLLA is a complicated and multidimensional phenomenon, it is possible for us English teachers to find out the potential sources of FLLA and coping strategies.

First, as an instructor of listening, s/he needs to pay attention to the affective state of the learners, especially the listening anxiety experienced in listening so as to help improve the listening proficiency of the students. As the results of this research and many other researches have shown a negative relation between listening anxiety and listening performance, the listening instructors should "create a low-anxiety classroom atmosphere" as Young (1999) says.

Second, listening comprehension strategies are the particular approaches or techniques that learners use to try to reduce or lower students' listening anxiety and improve their listening comprehension ability (Ellis, 1994). According to the previous researches both at home and abroad, listening anxiety is negatively correlated to the use of listening comprehension strategies. That is to say, the more strategies students use during their listening process, the lower students' anxiety degree is. Therefore, English listening teachers should diagnose English learners' anxiety precisely and carry out corresponding strategies to improve students' listening level. To those highly anxious learners with low listening proficiency, the mastery of a variety of strategies and frequently using these strategies to handle anxiety is helpful in listening and learning. To those less anxious learners with high listening proficiency, using more strategies, integrating different strategies and raising the strategy awareness is helpful for them to make greater achievements.

Third, instructors should get rid of the teaching model which is just to play a record or cassette without giving any suggestions. As an instructor of listening, s/he should try to make his or her listening class interesting and rewarding so that a learner does not feel bored or tired about listening. For example, in listening classrooms, music, humorous stories and jokes, interesting narrative stories, deep breath training can be adopted as supplement to listening textbooks.

Fourth, students should be informed to be more autonomous and know their present level of foreign language learning. They should be faced with English listening anxiety and foreign learning problems objectively and correctly, and find appropriate strategies to lower anxiety and solve problems so as to improve their listening level and further improve their foreign language learning.

APPENDIX 1

TABLE 1
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF FLLAS

Anxiety Items	1	2	3	4	5	Std.D	Mean	Maximum	Minimum	Valid N
1	7.6	28.9	27.2	28.5	7.8	1.10	2.99	5.00	1.00	125
2	1.1	14.0	30.6	37.2	17.1	.97	3.52	5.00	1.00	125
3	0	10.6	17.2	53.9	18.3	.86	3.8	5.00	2.00	125
4	1.1	7.8	20.0	57.2	13.9	.83	3.75	5.00	1.00	125
5	0	26.7	30.0	38.9	4.4	.89	3.21	5.00	2.00	125
6	5.6	22.2	56.7	14.4	1.1	.78	2.83	5.00	1.00	125
7	10.0	30.6	23.3	30.6	5.6	1.11	2.91	5.00	1.00	125
8	13.3	54.4	19.4	11.7	1.1	.89	2.32	5.00	1.00	125
9	1.1	9.4	17.2	49.4	22.8	.92	3.83	5.00	1.00	125
10	3.3	39.4	32.8	20.0	4.4	.94	2.83	5.00	1.00	125
11	8.9	33.9	21.7	30.0	5.6	1.10	2.89	5.00	1.00	125
12	10.0	27.8	14.4	40.0	7.8	1.18	3.07	5.00	1.00	125
13	5.6	18.9	26.7	37.2	11.7	1.08	3.31	5.00	1.00	125
14	2.2	27.8	43.9	21.7	4.4	.87	2.98	5.00	1.00	125
15	1.1	23.9	30.0	39.4	5.6	.92	3.24	5.00	1.00	125
16	1.1	23.3	27.2	41.7	6.7	.94	3.29	5.00	1.00	125
17	3.3	36.7	31.7	26.1	2.2	.92	2.87	5.00	1.00	125
18	7.8	34.4	32.2	21.7	3.9	1.00	2.79	5.00	1.00	125
19	0	21.7	20.0	51.7	6.7	.90	3.43	5.00	2.00	125
20	0	10.0	33.9	38.3	11.1	1.02	2.71	5.00	1.00	125
21	11.7	52.2	23.9	12.2	0	.84	2.37	4.00	1.00	125
22	3.3	29.4	26.7	33.3	7.2	1.02	3.12	5.00	1.00	125
23	5.6	50.6	21.7	17.8	4.4	.98	2.65	5.00	1.00	125
24	0	26.7	33.9	32.8	6.7	.91	3.19	5.00	2.00	125
25	11.7	54.4	28.9	5.0	0	.73	2.27	4.00	1.00	125
26	5.0	36.1	21.1	27.2	10.6	1.12	3.02	5.00	1.00	125
27	2.2	8.9	17.8	55.6	15.6	.91	3.73	5.00	1.00	125
28	2.8	17.2	16.1	54.4	9.4	.98	3.51	5.00	1.00	125
29	3.3	29.4	31.1	27.8	8.3	1.02	3.08	5.00	1.00	125
30	2.2	22.8	21.7	43.9	9.4	1.01	3.36	5.00	1.00	125
31	11.1	36.7	16.1	28.3	7.8	1.18	2.85	5.00	1.00	125
32	35.6	43.3	13.3	7.8	0	.89	1.93	4.00	1.00	125
33	13.3	42.2	18.9	20.0	5.6	1.11	2.62	5.00	1.00	125
34	8.9	37.2	27.2	22.2	4.4	1.04	2.76	5.00	1.00	125
35	9.4	33.3	28.3	24.4	4.4	1.05	2.81	5.00	1.00	125

APPENDIX 2

调查问卷

亲爱的同学，你好！本问卷旨在了解当代大学生在大学英语教学中听力学习的情况，以达到共同进步和提高的目的，无其他用途。请您认真阅读问卷中的每一道题目，并根据自身的实际情况作答。所有问题的回答都是一种主观判断，没有“对”与“错”，“是”与“非”之分。本次调查是以匿名的形式进行的，您的回答将处于完全保密状态。为了保证本次调查结果的准确性，请大家如实地回答所有的问题。

您的回答对于我们得出正确的结论很重要，希望能得到您的配合和支持，谢谢！问卷上交后有一礼品奉送，以表谢意。

FLLAS (焦虑问卷)

学号：

在你认为合适的选项下打勾，以下为每个选项的意义，表示你对这个表述的态度。

1= 完全不同意 2 =不同意 3 =不确定 4= 同意 5 =完全同意

1. 听英语时我常常因为一两个生词而陷入困境。	1	2	3	4	5
2. 英语听力测试时如果只读一遍我便很紧张。	1	2	3	4	5
3. 听英语时我很难理解带有口音的英语。	1	2	3	4	5
4. 当英语说得很快时，我常常担心不能完全听懂。	1	2	3	4	5
5. 如果听一个我不熟悉的话题，我会很紧张。	1	2	3	4	5
6. 我发现猜测我听的时候错过的部分是很容易的。	1	2	3	4	5
7. 听英语的时候我不自信。	1	2	3	4	5
8. 听英语的时候我常常最后在没有理解内容的情况下进行逐字翻译。	1	2	3	4	5
9. 听英语的时候如果有些视觉提示（诸如图片、视频和面部表情等），我就会感到轻松些。	1	2	3	4	5
10. 如果听的时候我稍微走一下神，我就担心会错过重要的部分。	1	2	3	4	5
11. 课堂上听英语如果没有文字材料我就感觉很不舒服。	1	2	3	4	5
12. 当我听不懂老师的口头指令时我会很心烦。	1	2	3	4	5
13. 听英语时我常常非常慌乱以致于记不得所听的内容。	1	2	3	4	5
14. 听磁带而不是听人讲英语时我就会有信心。	1	2	3	4	5
15. 听英语时我担心我对某些话题了解得不够充分。	1	2	3	4	5
16. 听力考试时因为我几乎没有时间思考我所听到的内容所以很担心。	1	2	3	4	5
17. 听英语时我的思绪常常很乱。	1	2	3	4	5
18. 我一直认为除了我别人都很理解要听的内容。	1	2	3	4	5
19. 如果一个人讲英语的时候很平静，我就担心理解的问题。	1	2	3	4	5
20. 当听人在电话里说英语时，我就会很紧张。	1	2	3	4	5
21. 听英语讲座时我感觉很轻松。	1	2	3	4	5
22. 当有一些背景噪音我就很难听懂英语。	1	2	3	4	5
23. 听英语时碰到一些我不理解的词我也不会受到干扰。	1	2	3	4	5
24.听英语时我常常能几乎听懂每一个单词的意义，但是依然不能很好的理解说话者所说的内容。	1	2	3	4	5
25. 我喜欢听英语。	1	2	3	4	5
26. 学习英语最难的就是听懂口语。	1	2	3	4	5
27. 我对我目前所达到的英语听力水平很满意。	1	2	3	4	5
28. 独自一人听英语比集体听英语我感觉更轻松一些。	1	2	3	4	5
29. 我似乎对英语文化和思想很陌生。	1	2	3	4	5
30. 听英语的时候一碰到复杂的结构我就心烦。	1	2	3	4	5
31. 我不介意老师或同学对我的听力水平进行评判。	1	2	3	4	5
32. 我不喜欢上我们的英语听力课。	1	2	3	4	5
33. 上听力课我常常开小差。	1	2	3	4	5
34. 我总是担心我听力考试会不过关。	1	2	3	4	5
35. 期末听力考试我一点都不紧张。	1	2	3	4	5

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The Effects of Pre-reading Activities on ESP Reading Comprehension

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***Abstract*—The present study intended to investigate the effects of pre-reading activities on reading comprehension of L2 learners of science and technology majors. In this respect the following research question was under consideration: Will comprehension be facilitated if students are instructed through restoring to pre reading activities? To carry out this research, participants were selected on the basis of Michigan Test of English Proficiency, and were assigned into control and experimental groups. Members of each group were randomly assigned to one of the two experimental and Control groups. Data analysis conducted through T -test statistical procedures. The findings revealed that better comprehension can be gained through restoring to pre-reading activities. In fact, experimental group which was exposed to pre-reading activities gained considerable abilities in comprehension than control group. Results of this study revealed that giving prior information through restoring to pre-reading activities might become a useful tool for teachers of ESP to facilitate the learner's reading comprehension ability. Some implications have been drawn for ESP material designers too. The computation and analysis of the T-test, provided us with empirical answers for the research question posed, and the effectiveness of employment of pre-reading activities in ESP reading comprehension ability was confirmed.**

***Index Terms*—pre-reading activities, ESP, reading comprehension**

I. Introduction

Studies of pre-reading activities for native speakers have demonstrated the facilitative effects of activating reader's prior knowledge relevant to understanding of the new text (Mayer, 1994). Not only do pre-reading activities prepare native speakers for the concepts that follow, but making the reading task easier and connecting the new concept more meaningfully to prior knowledge, pre-reading activities make reading a more enjoyable task (Hansen, 1981) Pre-reading activities are thus intended to activate appropriate knowledge structures or provide knowledge that the reader lacks. The present study intends to investigate the effects of pre-reading activities on comprehension of engineering students. It is hypothesized that employing the pre-reading activities would significantly improve student's ability in comprehension. For the realization of this objective two groups of participants were employed and put in the two experimental and Control groups. The comparison of mean scores made by subjects of the two groups provided evidence to the effect that whether the difference between teaching strategies, if any, were due to experimental treatment or sampling error. This study is an attempt to arrive at an empirical answer to the following research question and hypotheses:

RQ: Will comprehension be facilitated if students are instructed through restoring to pre-reading activities?

The results of this study paved the way for acceptance of the belief that giving related information of the text through restoring to pre-reading activities can have large impact on reading comprehension. So we will come up with some guidelines for ESP teachers and syllabus designers regarding reading pedagogy in the final section of the study.

II. Literature Review

A good deal of the current research in the field of EFL reading is embedded in a Psycholinguistics framework (Goodman, 1970, Coady, 1979). In this view, the reader is seen as an active processor of information, one who selects only the most productive cues from the printed page. One way of facilitating a reader's interaction with a text for triggering and building background knowledge is through pre-reading activities (Hudson, 1982). Pre-reading activities provide orientation to content and context. They vary with the nature of the text, the reader's purpose and context of situation (Wallace, 1992).

A. Importance of Reading

Most scholars would agree that reading is one of the most important skills for educational and professional success (Alderson, 1984). In highlighting the importance of reading comprehension Rivers (1981:147) stated that " reading is the most important activity in any language class, not only as a source of information and a pleasurable activity, but also as a means of consolidating and extending one' s which are knowledge of the language".

Reading reinforces the learner's other language skills. Krashen (1981) confirms that those who read more, have larger vocabularies, do better on test of grammar and write better (Kim & krashen, 1997). Chastian (1988:218) while accepting the significance of reading for meaning claimed that all reading activities serve to facilitate communication fluency in each of the other language skills.

According to Eskey (1988), in advanced levels of second language the ability to read the written language at a reasonable rate and with good comprehension has long been recognized to be as oral skills if not more important.

B. Interactive View of Reading and its Relationship with ESP

A significant body of literature posits that reading is an interactive process (Carrell, Devine & Eskey 1988; Grabbe, 1991; Rumelhart & Ortony 1977). According to Grabbe (1991:385) the notion of reading as an interactive process refers to "a kind of dialogue between the reader and the text" The notion of reading as an interactive process evolved from the schema theory and is often termed top-down approach to reading. Carrell (1983) distinguishes between formal schemata the reader's knowledge of formal, rhetorical structure of the texts and content schemata – previous knowledge which the reader posses.

In an interactive model, the reader is not seen to progress in just one direction (bottom-up or top-down) in understanding the text, but as being able to alternate approaches as necessary (Barnett, 1989). The reader is seen as able to draw simultaneously from a variety of sources to understand the text such as lexical, orthographic, schematic, semantic, syntactical, and visual (Davies, 1995). Thus reading is seen as a simultaneous perceptual and cognitive process (Rumelhart & Ortony, 1977). Interactive model of reading comprehension not only acknowledges the role of background knowledge, but also it stresses the significance of processing actual words of the texts. Goodman (1981:137) maintains that, " … the goal of reading is constructing meaning in response to text. It requires interactive use of graphophonic, syntactic, and semantic cues to construct meaning." Although he is often referred to as a leading advocate of the top –down approach, his model by his own admission is interactive.

An interactive model of reading posited by Grabbe (1991) usually refers to interplay of both bottom-up and top-down reading strategies (Block, 1992). Bottom-up strategies include decoding graphic features and grammatical characteristics, while top-down strategies include predicting, applying background knowledge and recognizing global text structure. The notion of top-down strategies is usually used in the literature to include both global strategies for processing the text as well as activating conceptual knowledge of the world (Carrell, 1985 Shih, 1992).

According to Dubin and Bycina (1991), the interactive modal entails the reading processes to be as such that the visual data are transmitted to brain where they are matched with existing knowledge. Then on the basis of this experience, predictions are made about the content of the text, upon which, further sampling of the data are either confirmed or revised.

Anderson (1999) claims that "many teachers now accept the view that reading is the result of a two way communication between the reader and the text, achieved through simultaneous processing (which involves word recognition, sound/spelling correspondence etc.) and top-down processing (which involves skills like predication, inference etc.)

How do the above notions relate to ESP reading pedagogy? Grabbe's (1991) notion of reading as an interactive process implies that the ESP reader most probably has more limited content and formal schemata as well as less knowledge of language used in the text than the author has, thus, while an ESP reading course usually emphasizes building up student's knowledge of rhetorical structures and improving their knowledge of the target language. The gap in content schemata should not be ignored. The issue of ESP reading instructor as a content specialists raised in ESP literature (e.g. Robbinson, 1991). Grabbe's interactive model of reading dictates that ESP instruction should focus both on decoding language and on global reading strategies which (Duffy, 1988:763) defined them as "plans for solving problems, encountered in constructing meaning". They can be taught to students and when taught strategies help student's performance on tests of comprehension and recall.

C. General Views on Pre-reading Activities

The goals of Pre-reading stage are to activate the student's knowledge of the subject, to provide any language preparation that might be needed for coping with the passage and, finally to motivate the learners to want to read the text (Celce-Murcia, 1991). Tudor (1989) call pre-reading activities "enabling activities" because they provide a reader with the necessary background to organize activity and to comprehend the material (these experiences involve understanding the purpose (S) for reading and building a knowledge base necessary for dealing with the content and the structure of the material). They say that pre-reading activities elicit prior knowledge, and focus attention. Various techniques have been suggested by some authors (e.g. Greenall & Swan, 1986) to mobilize existing knowledge including the use of pictures, movies and even role – plays. Research has not determined which of these is the most effective. So teachers are free to experiment according to the nature of reading material and inclinations of their classes (Carrell & Eisterhold, 1983). In an academic setting, however, more formal techniques might be appropriate, of course different scholars listed different types of pre-reading activities, (Celce-Murcia, 1991:225) suggests, Word Association, Discussion and Text Surveys.

Word association tasks generally involve eliciting from the students as many ideas as they can offer regarding the announced subject of the text. Normally their suggestions are written on the board and sometimes arranged into semantic map or “graphic organizer” which indicates how concepts are related to each other.

Discussions have also been found to activate what students know and through the exchange of information, to enhance their knowledge of the subject. Discussions can be initiated by simply posing questions about the content of the text or by using “anticipation guide” which is a series of statements often provocative in nature, which are intended to challenge student’s knowledge and beliefs about the content of the passage (Celce-Murcia, 1991:225).

Nuttal (1982) claims that discussion promotes the active struggle with the text and students learn the processes of critical thinking that good readers use. Group work is ideal, because in small groups, even the weaker students should be active and learning. The procedure works in almost every level, and discussion can be in L1, if students cannot manage it in the FL.

Text Survey is often, but not exclusively, used with longer stretches of discourse, such as chapter from a textbook, the purpose of this activity is to quickly determine the structure of the piece and to identify the key ideas (Celce-Murcia, 1991).

Tudor (1989) gives five other categories of Content-related pre-reading activities (a) pre questions to be answered after reading the text; (b) pre questions to activate the reader’s knowledge about the topic; (c) content organizers (e.g., summaries); (d) predictions based on the title, subheadings, illustrations, or skim reading of the text; and (e) integrated reading preparation (combining the above). Taglieber (1988) found the last two activity-types (viz. Using illustrations to make predictions, and formulating questions) to be more effective in facilitating EFL student’s comprehension than vocabulary pre-teaching. This result is interesting, since it indicates that heightened background knowledge can enable students to use contextual clues to overcome specific vocabulary deficiencies.

Taglieber (1988) has indicated three major problems that interfere with reader’s comprehension.

1. Lack of vocabulary.
2. Difficulty in using language cues to meaning.
3. Lack of conceptual knowledge.

She claimed that the following practical preceding activities may help address these problems:

1. Pictorial context
2. Pre-questioning
3. Vocabulary Pre-teaching

D. Pictorial Context

Illustrations can be an integral part of ESP courses. The justification is that they make ESP courses more tangible and understandable. Robinson (1991:62) asserted, “ as well as print material … one would expect that for teaching ESP there would be a rich supply of authentic visual and mechanical material”; however, he believed that there is not a great deal of discussion of this in the literature.

In this regard, Wilson (1986) refereed to visual support for the avoidance of problems in the comprehension. She also suggested that visual aids may be exploited as a kind of elicitation strategy.

Furthermore, she favored a classroom in which students use illustrations to fulfill a specific task.

Ellis (1993:26) stated, “ visual stimuli, like verbal stimuli, are organized in comprehension and memory” He further added that the organization for visual stimuli is a consequence of perceptual processing, which is bottom -up, or data-driven, in its earlier stage, but top-down processing is affected by conceptual knowledge later on.

As a supporting basis for teaching through illustration, Paivio (1971) proposed the dual coding theory of learning from words and pictures. The theory proposes that learners can construct three types of connections when they are presented with verbal and visual material. McDaniel and Waddill (1994) conducted a research to find out the extent to which pictures can enhance recall of textually presented information, particularly item specific (detailed) information and relational information. They concluded that providing readers with the requisite comprehension abilities to begin with, pictures enable the extraction and under ordinary circumstances do not encode effectively.

E. Pre-questioning

The questions we are discussing here in pre-reading stage are not intended to test. Their purpose is to make students aware of the way language is used to convey meaning, the questions are not necessarily different from questions in tests, but their purpose and the way they are used is quite different. Nuttal (1982:160) suggests signpost questions would be of great help in pre-questioning. A signpost stands at a crossroads to show travelers the way.

In using signpost questions in pre-reading stage Nuttal (1982) states that you can ask an easy SPQ on the whole text, as an initial top-down activity; and / or you can ask one for each section. Write the SPQ on the board and ask class to read the text silently and find answer. After silent reading, perhaps followed by group discussion check whether they have been able to do this. If a fair number have not, leave it open and explain that you will return to it later avoid giving an answer yourself if you possibly can. Pre-questioning is taught by having the instructor ask questions about a passage and the students answer the questions, through pre-questioning students set purposes for reading, the method is supported by (Johnson, 1981).

F. Vocabulary Pre-teaching

In recent years, authorities in the field of teaching English have rejected the idea of learning vocabulary out of context. Richards (1985) stated that words are organized into an intricate, interlocking system; therefore, they cannot be learned in isolation without considering their related context.

Now this question arises: What kind of context is appropriate for vocabulary pre-teaching? Carter and McCarthy (1988) stated that one cannot pin-point a certain treatment or approach to be the best for all situations and for every level of language knowledge. The student's proficiency level and the nature of the course inevitably demand a certain way of treating this component of language.

Explicit vocabulary development and pre-reading activities are very useful when the text or content can be specified. However, what is also required is for teachers to ensure that students use appropriate strategies to increase their recognition vocabulary when confronted with unfamiliar texts. Tudor (1989) states that for the ESP teacher, a popular approach to this problem is to pre teach the vocabulary required for a specific text. Vocabulary pre-teaching is only one of the possible ways in which the ESP teacher can assist in the activation of appropriate content schemata so as to improve the student's comprehension of texts (Tudor, 1982).

G. Sub-technical Vocabulary

In ESP courses students often have difficulty not with the technical jargon (which usually has a unique L1 equivalent, familiar to students from their specialized studies), but with the common core of semi-technical words that occur in most disciplines.

Troublemakers are words like average, approximate, effect, combination, determine. They are needed in most fields of study and are therefore worth attention. The problem, however, is conceptual rather than linguistic. To make sure the concept has been grasped, ask students to give concrete examples, or offer examples yourself, getting the students to distinguish one that illustrates the concept from one that does not (Nuttal, 1982:67).

Vocabulary Pre-teaching is only one of possible ways in which the ESP teacher can assist in the activation of appropriate content schemata, So as to improve the students comprehension of text (Tudor, 1982).

H. ESP Reading Comprehension

In a university setting where the medium of instruction and communication is not English, but where students are required to read textbooks in English, there is a need for reading comprehension courses in English for specific purpose (ESP). The texts assigned in academic content-courses require a high level of linguistic proficiency and presuppose extensive background knowledge. Spector, Krischner & Wexler (2001) argued that this compounded problem is particularly acute in the first year of undergraduate programs, since students are not familiar with the academic jargon and conceptual issues of their respective field.

AbdulGhani (1993) states that unfortunately, reading comprehension, especially in the ESP field, is too often kept at the low level of recalling information learned or of simply locating information explicitly stated in a text. This is partly due to the fact that the language teacher finds the scientific content difficult to tackle in depth. Also, in an ESP course the main emphasis is on language use, language functions, and terminology; thus, content is kept at a low level so as not to constitute an obstacle that interferes with language teaching. In addition, comprehension questions are manipulated to elicit certain grammatical structures or language functions. The question is: Is this really reading comprehension?

When designing a reading course, it is extremely important to strike a balance between content and language. Questions asked about the content must vary in their cognitive level to allow for intellectual involvement on the part of the student (Abdul Ghani, 1993:45). Celece-Murcia (1991) states that ESP academic reading courses should emphasize both reading to learn (activities that stress comprehension of subject matter content) and learning by doing (activities that call for utilization of the ideas in the text. The former deals with the text at hand, exclusively the latter takes the learner beyond the text and into some kind of reformulation of the facts, information and concepts found in it, for example in reading to learn, emphasis is given to close reading of texts, often paragraph by paragraph, in order to find the function which each paragraph fulfils in the passage.

Does the paragraph contain the author's main thesis, supporting ideas, transition to another theme or what else?

Reading to learn also involves complex thinking skills in which students must be able to make the material their own through activities which guide them into analyzing texts, such as summarizing passages and chapters, finding comparison and contrast or cause and effect examples, following an argument in the text (Celce – Murcia 1991:.200).

Many of the reading -to- learn activities lend themselves to thematic or topic – centered reading in which a set of material is composed of a variety of passages, all with common subject area focus. By reading in depth around a particular subject area, students experience marked growth in background knowledge (Dubin & Bycina, 1991).

Learning by doing activities help students extract meaning from texts by using note-taking skills, following directions. Solving problems set up in the text and similar methods. By manipulating the data, learners gain more experience with the language as well as with the underlying organizational systems presented in the material.

III. Design

Forty undergraduate engineering students have been chosen among 70 volunteers through administrating of a

Michigan Test, the Pre-test allowed the homogenized students to enter the study, then these students have been divided into experimental and control group in which the former received treatment which was employing pre-reading activities and the latter didn't receive any treatment.

A. *Participants*

The participants of this study were 40 students from Razi University majoring in engineering courses in the fourth and the fifth terms who were supposed to possess enough linguistic knowledge and had passed general English I.

B. *Procedure*

As mentioned in the previous sections, two groups of students with the same range of language proficiency were selected from the engineering departments of Razi University. This was carried out through the administration of Michigan proficiency pre-test. These two groups were randomly assigned into experimental and control groups. The experimental group received treatment, while the control group didn't, the treatment consisted of three different pre-reading activities (a) pictorial context (b) vocabulary pre-teaching (c) pre-questioning. There was also a control –condition, in which there was no pre-reading activity. In the pictorial context condition a picture about the content of the reading passage was shown to the students, then the researcher encouraged discussion by having them describe the content of the picture on the basis of which finally make a guess about the content of the reading passage. In the vocabulary pre-reading condition participants were taught a number of sub-technical vocabularies and-vocabulary of ideas from the reading passages.

The researcher presented these words on the board in meaningful sentences, students took turns reading the sentences and predicting meaning of words, when a word was not adequately defined, it was defined through class discussion.

Pre-questioning consisted of giving participants a one-sentence oral summary of the reading passage and asking them to formulate some questions that they thought the passage might answer, for example, for the "oil" passage researcher said "This text contains a story about oil, what questions do you have that you think the story might answer? Make a list of your questions on the paper in English or in Farsi, then questions were written on the board, where they remained while the students read the passage." This technique combines pre-questioning with receiving very short summary, which then directs students self generated pre-questioning, without a short summary pre-questioning would be vague and abstract.

These pre-reading activities were carried out in five sessions for experimental group, each activity lasted 10 minutes and was carried out immediately before the reading task when participants in the control group received a passage, they began reading task immediately after receiving their instructions for a full account of practical employment of these pre-reading activities.

At the end of the experiment a post-test on reading comprehension was administered to both of the groups. It was aimed at measuring the reading performance of the participants to see if the treatment had made any difference in the reading performance of the two groups. The results obtained through post-test were to be analyzed and interpreted statistically by T-test. Post-test was composed of two booklets each including two texts with 20 comprehension questions, one of the booklets including pre-reading section. Utilizing vocabulary pre-teaching and pictorial context, which was distributed among experimental group and the other booklet had no pre-reading section for control group. Each group was required to answer the questions in 40 minutes. The means of the post-test obtained scores were compared through the T-test statistical procedure to help determine how confident the researcher can be that the difference are not due to chance. In addition, a problem to the nature of all tests of this kind is the effect of chance. To avoid this problem, the students were penalized one-fifth of a correct answer for every wrong one. This could help keep the genuine effect of the treatment.

IV. RESULTS AND DATA ANALYSIS

To analyze the data obtained through the post-test, the T-test procedure was employed and the following results reported:

TABLE 1
MEAN VARIANCE AND STANDARD DEVIATION FOR EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS

Groups	Number	Mean	Variance	Standard deviation
Experimental	20	9.68	12.98	3.60
Control	20	6.02	9.54	3.09

TABLE 2.
STATISTICAL SUMMARY OF THE RESEARCH

Statistical hypotheses	H0 :tobs<tcrit H1 :tobs>tcrit
Alpha decision level	a<.05
Number of participants	N=Ne+ Nc=40
Observed statistic	tobs=3.45
Degree of freedom	N-2=38
Critical value	2.04 At a < 0.05 df 38
Results	tobs>tcrit

V. CONCLUSION

The present study intended to investigate the effects of pre-reading activities in reading comprehension of a group of students involved in the area of science and technology. In this respect the following question was under consideration:

Will comprehension be facilitated if students are instructed through restoring to pre-reading activities?

To carry out this research, participants were selected on the basis of Michigan test of English proficiency, and were put in one control group and one experimental group. Members of each group were randomly assigned to one of the two following testing conditions:

Experimental group was instructed and tested through restoring to pre-reading activities. Control group was taught in the normal way without restoring to pre-reading activities.

T-test was employed as for the purpose of data analysis. The calculated T-test proved that better comprehension can be gained through restoring to pre-reading activities. In fact experimental group which was exposed to pre-reading activities gained considerable abilities in comprehension than control group. The computation and analysis of the T-test provided us with the judgment to reject the null hypothesis of this study that employment of pre-reading activities would not significantly improve ability in ESP reading comprehension.

Results of this study indicated that giving prior information through restoring to pre-reading activities might become a useful tool for teachers of ESP to facilitate the learner's reading comprehension ability.

The results of this study also, provided empirical answers for the research question posed, and stressed the effectiveness of employment of pre-reading activities in ESP reading comprehension ability.

Pedagogical Implications

Although much has been said about reading comprehension in a first or second language, most writers conclude that we really know very little about the reading process and perhaps less about what should be done in first or second language to facilitate it.

Mayer (1994:135) asserts, "although the potential advantages of visuals have been extolled by instructional designers, research on illustrations and animations is far from complete." The percent study may provide some support for the idea that visual aids can have powerful effects on learning under certain circumstances. Illustrations, vocabulary pre-teaching and pre-questioning can boost the students' interest and help them construct mental models for the incoming text.

As it was mentioned earlier this study intended to investigate the effects of pre-reading activities on reading comprehension. Findings of this research paved the way for acceptance of the belief that giving prior information of a text through restoring to pre-reading activities can have a large impact on reading comprehension. Providing background knowledge through pre-reading as well as previewing content for the reader seems to be the most obvious strategies for ESP teacher to come up with the problems students have in reading comprehension.

The major implication to be drawn from this research is that students need to activate prior knowledge of the topic before they begin to read, if student do not have sufficient prior knowledge, they should be given at least minimal background information from which to interpret the text. Asserting the main points of the text, providing the readers with the meaning of complicated sub-technical words and expressions, and posing signpost questions prior to the task of reading can lead, to a great extend, to success in their comprehension. One of the implications of this study for ESP syllabus designers is to take care of some pre-reading activities which proved to have positive effect for ESP reading comprehension in this study such as the vocabulary pre-teaching section including a list of definition and explanation of complicated sub-technical vocabularies, concrete illustrations and pictures, some global signpost questions at the beginning of each lesson in engineering materials. Of crucial relevance to the present study is schema theory which asserts that activating, or building reader's existing knowledge prior to reading would improve reading comprehension. Eskey (1988) believes that new information, new concepts, new ideas can have meaning only when they can be related to something the individual already knows.

To sum, the teacher's major role in ESP is to recognize the importance of pre-reading activates in building of related information in such a way that the new material is easily assimilated in to the learner's existing field of knowledge. Since comprehending a text is an interactive process between reader's background knowledge and the text, it is the teacher's role to give sufficient language and context clues through restoring to pre-reading activities such as vocabulary pre-teaching, per questioning and pictorial context to each class of readers to process and activate the relevant schemata necessary for comprehension of the text.

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A Study of Chinese Learning of English Tag Questions

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***Abstract*—Questioning or being questioned is a necessity in communicative activities. The tag question plays an important role in everyday communication. In the tag mechanism of those questions, the tags are not formed in accordance with the general forming rules. So, learners often commit errors. This paper studies the types and causes of errors of the tag question. By analyzing these error sources, the learner can avoid and benefit from errors. Thus, they can understand tag questions better.**

***Index Terms*—tag question error, learn, second language acquisition**

I. Introduction

The tag question, as a kind of interrogation, is rather complicated in the semantic aspect. And due to the informality of the colloquial English, the patterns appear, more often than not, to be irregular. The first part of this paper is the generalization of the English tag question. When the tag question produced by we Chinese people are examined and compared with target language norms, they are often found to be full of errors. The second part of this essay attempts to analyze every kind of causes of errors. There are five error sources--Negative transfer of the mother tongue; Overgeneralization of the formation rule; Ignorance of rule restrictions; Incomplete application of rules; False concepts hypothesized(Xu Jie,2008:37).As errors are inevitable, they are an integral part of language acquisition. We should try to seek methods to avoid committing errors repeatedly and continuously. The latter part of this article is to deal with three kinds of approaches of avoiding and benefiting from these errors. They are --Compare tag questions in both languages; Increase target language input and output; Effective feedback to learner errors (Xu Jie, 2008).

II. Literary Review

In the 1950s and 1960s, a favored paradigm for studying second language learning and organizing its teaching was Contrastive Analysis. Contrastive Linguistics can be defined as a sub discipline of determine both differences and similarities between them. Johansson and Hofland held that language comparison is of great interest and can be categorized in a theoretical as well as an applied perspective. Therefore, the study may be theoretical, without any immediate applications or may be applied, namely, carried out for a specific purpose (Xu Jie, 2008).

But, in 1973, many examples made by Dulay and Burt showed that 85% of the errors of second language acquisition were “developmental” (i.e., on-interference errors), 12% were unique and only 3% were result of L1 interference. Under this circumstance, Wardhangh (1970) proposed a distinction between the strong and the weak version of CA. The latter became known as error analysis (quoted by Xu Jie, 2008). It can be further divided into four categories: 1) Overgeneralization.2) Ignorance of rule restriction.3) Incomplete application of rules.4) False concepts hypothesized (Xu Jie, 2008).

This paper attempts to apply these error theories to English tag questions learning. By analyzing the specific errors theoretically and systematically, Chinese learners can benefit from them.

III. Generalization of Tag Questions

The tag question, one of the important English sentence patterns of speech plays a great important role in people’s communication. It mainly consists of “declarative sentence plus tag question ”.The declarative sentence is used to put forward a view of the speaker, while the tag question indicates this view wants to be identified.

The tag question can be classified into two categories. One is the canonical tag question, the other the invariant tag question (Yang Shideng, 2006).The canonical tag question is much more complicated. People should consider gender, number, and tense into account in order to meet grammatical needs. That is to say, the function word of the tag question should agree with the predicate verb in the preceding declarative sentence or the functional word in number, tense and form. The invariant tag question uses modal words to interrogate, such as “right”, “yeah”. This kind of modal words are invariant. The invariant tag question is less formal than the canonical tag question. It is very colloquial. The following are the examples of this kind:

You can play basketball, right? (invariant tag question)

You are almost fluent in English, yeah? (invariant tag question)

The canonical tag question can be further divided into non-disjunctive question and disjunctive question. Non-disjunctive question refers to tag question which the declarative part and the tag question are either negative or affirmative. e.g.

Open the window, will you?(non-disjunctive tag question)

The cat is in the house, isn't it? (disjunctive tag question)

The disjunctive tag question refers to tag question which the declarative part and the tag question are either negative or affirmative. It can be categorized into regular question tags and irregular question tags. The irregular question tags are the exceptions which did not comply with the formation rules of tag question. e.g.

He often plays basketball, doesn't he? (regular tag question)

Nobody went to the library, did they? (irregular tag question)

IV. Errors Made by Chinese Learners

An error, in its technical sense, is the breaches of rules of code; it is the noticeable deviation grammaticality resulting from a lack of requisite knowledge. It arises because of the lack of competence. According to James's definition, an error is an "instance of language that is unintentionally deviant (unlike poetry) and is not self-corrigible by its author"(Xu Jie,2008:37). That is to say, error refers to a deviation from the acceptable target language that the learners did not recognize or do not know how to correct.

As a saying goes, "To err is human". Errors are seen as a natural phenomenon that must occur when learning the first or second language. I t is an integral part of human learning. So, when people learn English tag question, they inevitably commit errors. As errors are normal things, we should study the causes leading to the errors. The next below are the types of errors and errors sources.

A. Negative Transfer of the Mother Tongue

Lado in his influential book *Linguistics Across Culture* claimed: "Individuals tend to transfer the forms and meanings and the distribution of forms and meanings of their native language and culture to the foreign language and culture---both productively when attempting to grasp and understand the language and the culture as practiced by natives"(Ning Guo,2005:16).Simply, transfer can be defined as "the influence resulting from similarities and differences between the target language and any other language that has been previously acquired "(Ning Guo,2005:17).It can be positive or negative. When the language patterns of L1 and L2 are identical, learning could take place easily through positive transfer of the L1 pattern, but when they are different, learning would be difficult and errors may arise as the result of negative transfer or interference.

So, in the case of negative transfer, many elements of the native language have no corresponding counterparts in the target language,L1 habits would cause errors in the L2 and learners would transfer inappropriate properties of L1.It is true for English tag question learning.

In Chinese, we also use some phases like "是不是", "好吧", "是吧", "对吧"to interrogate. The Chinese tag question can be seen as a kind of invariant tag question. People need not to consider questions related with agreement. This habit can lead to the fact that Chinese learners rely much on the invariant tag question and neglect the canonical ones. Because the Chinese phases"是吧", "对吧"can be translated to "right" "okay" in English. Here are the examples:

她妈妈病了，对吧？

Her mother was ill, right?

In the above English tag question, people will use "right" rather than "hasn't he". This phenomenon can be regarded as a kind of negative transfer.

Due to this kind of negative transfer, people use more invariant tag questions than the canonical ones. So, when communicating with others who often use the canonical tag questions, they usually misunderstand them and commit errors of comprehension.

B. Overgeneralization of the Formation Rule

Overgeneralization covers the instances where the learners create a deviant structure on the basis of his experience of other structures of the target language. It is learners' previous knowledge of the second language that learners use. That is to say, It is the incorrect application of previously learned second language material to a present second language context. It is one of the common causes of language errors. For example:

Everybody is here, isn't everybody? (aren't they?)

You had your hair cut last night, hadn't you? (didn't you?)

The above examples show that there are some exceptions of the tag question rule. The learners can't treat it in the same way.

C. Ignorance of Rule Restrictions

This type of errors is again a type of generalization or transfer. Since the learner is making use of a previously acquired rule in a new situation, some rule restriction errors may be caused by analogy (YAN Lidong, 2004:83).For example:

I didn’t expect that she would give up the opportunity, did I?(would she?)

I suppose Lucy’s crying, don’t I?(isn’t she?)

When learners encounter a complex sentence, they attempt by analogy to follow the same rule. Thus errors were committed.

D. Incomplete Application of Rules

In order to produce some sentence structures, more than one rule should be used or a rule is used to some different degrees. But learners sometimes fail to understand or apply these rules completely. For example:

She hardly plays with you, doesn’t she? (does she)

I never said she was wrong, didn’t I? (did I)

The learner knows the agreement rule of forming an English tag question. But when there are some words which denote negative without the word “not”, the learner has some difficulties in dealing with the whole sentence. Thus he produces the above sentences in stead of correct ones.

E. False Concepts Hypothesized

This type of errors means that learners fail to comprehend fully. It derives from faulty comprehension of distinction in the target language. For example:

Lily didn’t go to Beijing, did she?

Yes,(she did)

No,(she didn’t)

When dealing with the answer, people are usually in a mess and understand the meaning in an opposite way. They may just consider the apparent meanings of the words “yes”, “no” without thinking their specific meaning in tag questions.

Another example is about my friend Lucy. She is a tour guide. About five months ago, she guided some foreigners to visit Hangzhou. After finished visiting the scenic spots, there still had time. So, she advised to go to the zoo to see the peacock. The foreigners were excited when hearing her suggestions. But when they arrived at the zoo, they were informed that the peacock was lent to others. My friend was sorry for that and explained the new notice of the zoo. At that time, a woman asked my friend “so, you didn’t know that beforehand, did you?” My friend answered “yes”. The woman continued asking “You didn’t mean that you knew it in advance, did you?” unfortunately, my friend answered “Yes, Miss”. The woman was very angry and had sued her.

It is estimated that my friend had known the woman’s questions, but she misunderstood the specific meaning of the words “yes”, “no” in English tag questions. Thus, the error was committed. This is the error caused by false concepts hypothesized.

So, when one learns English tag questions, one should understand the structures and meanings of them exactly for fear of hypothesizing false concepts.

V. METHODS TO AVOID ERRORS

As a saying goes, “A fall into the fit, a gain in one’s wit”. Since errors are a natural and indispensable part of the learning process, we should try to seek measures to avoid errors or benefit from the previous errors.

A. Compare Tag Questions in both Languages

Researchers from the 1940s to the 1960s conducted contrastive analyzes (CA), systematically comparing two languages. The proponents of CA assumed that “Where L1 and L2 rules are in conflict, errors are likely to occur which are the result of interference between the two language” (Xu Jie, 2008:36).

So, from this speaking, effective learning of English tag question should be based on scientific perception of the English tag question rules on the one hand, and on appropriate generalization of the Chinese rules on the other. Learners should build up their target knowledge on the basis of the differences between L1and L2 through comparisons of enormous details of two languages. That is to say, when learning English tag question, we should compare the English tag question with the Chinese ones first and try to seek differences between them. For example:

1).A: She has gone to Beijing, hasn’t she?	她去北京了，不是吗？
B: Yes, she has.	是，她去北京了。
No, she hasn’t	不，她没有去北京。
2).A: She hasn’t gone to Beijing, has she?	她没有去北京，是吧？
B: Yes, she has.	不，她去北京了。
No, she hasn’t.	是，她没有去北京。

For the two examples above, the first example of the English tag question is nearly the same with the Chinese one. The learner can learn it easily and quickly. It can be seen as a kind of positive transfer. But the second example shows the other way. The meaning of the words “yes”, “no” take on opposite meanings, which are different from our Chinese tag question. That is to say, the Chinese and English answers to tag questions imply meanings respectively. So, through this comparison, the learner can pay much attention to the differences and errors were avoided.

B. *Increase Target Language Input and Output*

Reading and listening in the SLA situation is understood as the appropriate input for acquisition of language skills. Extensive reading and listening of authentic materials and wide exposure to meaningful and authentic target language contexts might provide input of linguistic knowledge at various levels, lexical, syntactic and even rhetorical and cultural to L2 learners (Xu Jie,2008).

While being exposed to huge amounts of authentic target language input, learners should also be provided with ample opportunities to use and promote target language output. Producing the target language can provide the learners the opportunity to test out hypotheses about the target language and to move from a purely semantic analysis of the target to a more general understanding of it (Xu Jie, 2008).

The increase of target language input and output can resist the interference of the Chinese language. Through a mount of reading, listening and speaking, the learner can acquire the target language accurately. It is true for English tag question learning.

By listening and reading some authentic materials, the learners are likely to produce the tag question smoothly. They will not just depend on the invariant tag question, but focus their attention on the canonical one. When the learner attached more attention on the canonical tag question, errors could be decreased.

C. *Effective Feedback to Learner Errors*

This method is suitable for the students' learning. It is about teachers and students. Teachers play an important role in students' learning. They are supposed to provide adaptive, qualified and motivating support for the individual learner in his learning process. It is important for teachers to be aware of the basis position that errors should neither be tolerated nor corrected excessively.

Some teachers in order to avoid discouraging students always let errors go uncorrected and to indicate understanding when understanding may not have occurred. But unfortunately, their goodwill may result in the reinforcement of the learners' errors and even the persistence and perhaps the eventual fossilization, of such errors. And the influence may even reach other students, for if they regard an un-corrected mistake to be true, they will employ it themselves. (ZHA Ye-juan, 2007:36).

On the other hand, it has been improved that rigid and immediate correction of every error at the time may interfere with and alter learners' path of thinking and induce severe psychological frustration. In some cases, teachers may note errors and deal with them later. This non-immediate correction can also provide time for the teachers to research efficient and effective practice tasks to drill the learners in the correct forms. Moreover, students are different individuals, teachers should treat them respectively.

So, necessary amount of correction is indispensable for teachers to improve students' language performance.

Meanwhile, the students should be informed of the fact that committing errors is a natural part of language learning process, and every man or woman, young or old, smart or ordinary, has to commit errors while learning a language.

As for teachers, they might as well generalize and summarize these frequently appearing errors and remind students of these errors as often as possible. Repeated warnings of certain mistakes beforehand will even eliminate the chances of committing some of these errors.

Take my own experiences as an example. When I was learning English tag question, my teacher put much emphasis on the exceptions which are not agree with f1ormation rule of tag question and asked me to learn them by heart. After remembering these exceptions, I later came across many kinds of tag questions and I seldom made mistakes.

So, through effective feedback, the students can decrease the chance of committing errors.

VI. CONCLUSION

To sum up, the tag question is not easy to learn. The learners should not only pay attention to the general rules but also the exceptions. As errors are inevitable, this paper has described the errors in English tag question learning, analyzed their causes and types, and threw some light on the knowledge of second language acquisition and on the correct attitude to errors and error correction. If learners can follow the advices above, they may easily understand the tag questions and use them smoothly.

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The Impact of Syntactic Priming on English Language Learners' Production: A Transfer Study of Indirect Questions/Requests

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***Abstract*—This study examines the impact of syntactic priming on production of indirect questions/requests by Persian learners of English as a foreign language (EFL). Eighty learners participated in two experiments investigating the impact of syntactic priming on oral production and the possibility of transfer of the priming effects to a different modality. A Production experiment showed that priming resulted in increased production of the target structure by the Experimental groups as compared with production by the Control groups. A Transfer experiment showed the gains accrued by participants in the Experimental groups could also be observed in a different modality, i.e., written production.**

***Index Terms* —syntactic priming, language production, modality transfer**

I. Introduction

Syntactic priming refers to a tendency to produce or repeat a recently produced or heard structure (Bock, 1986) – that is, the phenomenon by which processing of an utterance is facilitated by processing of another one which shares the same underlying syntactic structure. This facilitation can help understand the nature of syntactic representation (Branigan, 2007). After the discovery of syntactic priming (also called structural persistence and structural priming) over 20 years ago, there have been numerous studies across a wide variety of populations. Syntactic priming has been the focus of studies with children (e.g., Garrod & Clark, 1993; Fisher, 2002), aphasiacs (e.g., Saffran & Martin, 1997), bilinguals (e.g., Bernolet, Hartsuiker, & Pickering, 2007; Schoonbaert, Hartsuiker, & Pickering, 2007), and second/foreign language learners (e.g., Gries & Wulff, 2005; McDonough, 2006).

Bock (1986) reported a study which specifically used structural priming to investigate the processing and representation of language structures. In her study, speakers repeated prime sentences (transitive and dative structures) and afterwards described target pictures which were semantically unrelated to the prime sentences. The results showed that speakers tended to use an active description of the target picture after an active prime structure and a passive description after a passive prime structure. The same effect was observed with dative sentences. Pickering and Ferreira (2008) pointed out that the results of Bock's (1986) study reveal that priming happens automatically and is not related to specific communication purposes or prime-target relationships (Levelt & Kelter, 1982), or discourse factors such as register (Weiner & Labov, 1983).

Bock's (1986) initial finding encouraged several researchers to investigate the nature of the phenomenon and its linguistic implications more in depth. Branigan, Pickering, Liversedge, Stewart, and Urbach (1995) concluded that syntactic priming can occur within production, within comprehension, and between comprehension and production. Within production, uttering particular syntactic forms might affect the production of subsequent utterances. For example, if a prime is produced that contains a double-object structure (*The rock star sold an undercover agent some cocaine*), it increases the probability of participants producing a target with the same structure (*The girl handed the man a paintbrush*); and the same will happen with alternative structures such as prepositional objects. Within comprehension, Branigan et al. found priming with locally ambiguous sentences. For example, readers process an "early closure" sentence (*While the woman was eating the creamy soup went cold*) faster if it is encountered after another "early closure" sentence, and a "late closure" sentence (*While the woman was eating the creamy soup the pudding went cold*) is read faster immediately after reading another "late closure" sentence (Branigan et al.). With regard to the "comprehension-to-production" priming, Branigan et al. also found produced sentences are often structurally similar to recently heard utterances. For example, when shopkeepers were asked *At what time does your shop close*, they answered *At five o'clock* more frequently than *Five o'clock,* while the question *What time does your shop close* was followed by *Five o'clock* more often than *At five o'clock*. They pointed out that a process which is common to both comprehension and production might be the source of priming, although the nature of that source is unclear.

Pickering and Ferreira (2008) reviewed several studies which used syntactic priming and concluded that they provide evidence for autonomous syntax. They argued that the production of a sentence depends largely on an abstract syntactic form which can be defined in terms of parts of speech and phrasal constituents and they believe that it is this abstract syntactic structure that influences syntactic priming.

Other studies have addressed the question of durability of syntactic priming. These studies have dealt with the question of whether priming is long lasting and results in implicit learning, or decays over time (Bock & Griffin, 2000; Branigan et al., 1999). Seger (1994) defined implicit learning as involving knowledge which is not accessible to consciousness; it is characterized by being, to some extent, complex and abstract; it happens incidentally as some tasks are being performed, and finally, it is preserved in cases of amnesia (Bock & Griffin, 2000). Bock and Griffin (2000) believed that these four characteristics can be attributed to syntactic priming as well.

Research on syntactic priming (both in a first and second language, L1 and L2 respectively) during the last two decades has focused mainly on the participants' performance when there is a choice between alternative constructions; such as the choice between prepositional-object and double-object (Chang, Dell, Bock, & Griffin, 2000), or the choice between active and passive sentences (Bock & Griffin 2000). Here, however, we focus on a single type of structure: indirect questions/requests in the production of Persian-speaking learners of English as a foreign language (EFL). Persian-speaking EFL learners' production of indirect questions/requests seems to be greatly affected by their first language which has a quite different structure from English. What follows is a simple exemplification of indirect questions/requests in Persian. Consider the following situation. Someone asks a friend to do something for him and now that person is reporting the request. The original request is:

Example 1:

1. Mitöni mäshineto biyäri
Can you your car bring
Can you bring your car?

This request is reported indirectly as either (a) or (b) in English:

1. a. He asked me to bring my car.

1. b. He asked me if I could bring my car.

And directly as:

1. c. He asked me "can you bring your car?"

Persian speakers, however, employ two different types of sentences when reporting this request in Persian:

1. d. Be man goft mäshineto biyär.
To me told your car bring

He told me you bring your car.

1. e. Be man goft mitöni mäshineto biyäri.
To me told can you your car bring
He told me can you bring your car.

As the example shows, in Persian, it is more common to use direct reporting when referring to someone else's speech.

As well as looking at the possible effect of syntactic priming on the subsequent production of a particular structure it is of interest to consider whether the effects would transfer from one modality or skill (speaking) to another (writing), since the assumption that syntactic priming leads to learning would imply processing changes that are modality neutral.

In sum, the research questions of the present study can be formulated as follows:

1. Does exposure to indirect questions/requests in L2 increase the likelihood of subsequently producing these structures in L2?

2. Does syntactic priming in the oral contexts encourage the renewed use of indirect questions/requests in upcoming written production?

II. Pilot Study

In order to see what kind of structures Persian speakers use when they are reporting a question or request, a questionnaire in the form of a preference test, was given to thirty Persian native speakers. These participants were different from those participating in the two experiments reported below. The questionnaire contained 40 sentence triads in Persian and participants were asked to mark the sentence they preferred from among the set of three alternatives. The following are two examples of the test items.

Example 2:

2. a. Miläd az döstesh khäst mitöni mäshinet-o biyäri?
Milad from his friend asked can you your car-OM bring
Milad asked his friend can you bring your car.

2. b. Miläd az döstesh khäst ké mitöneh mäshinesh-o biyäré
Milad from his friend asked that can he his car-OM bring
Milad asked his friend if he can bring his car.

2. c. Miläd az döstesh khäst ké to mäshinet-o biyär
Milad from his friend asked that you your car-OM bring

Milad asked his friend that you bring your car.

Example 3:

3. a. Minä dirūz ketāb-rä kharid
Mina yesterday book-OM bought
Mina bought the book yesterday.

3. b.!Minä dirūz kharid ketāb-rä
Mina yesterday book-OM bought
Mina bought the book yesterday.

3. c. *Dirūz ketāb-ra kharid Minä
Yesterday book-OM bought Mina
Mina bought the book yesterday.

There were 20 sentence triads which contained a request (such as Example 2 above), and 20 fillers (such as Example 3 above) where participants had to choose between different word orders, considering the fact that Persian is an SOV language which also allows OSV and even SVO (Lotfi, 2003).

This study was conducted before the main experiments (Production Experiment and Transfer Experiment) in order to see whether Persian speakers favor direct or indirect speech when they are reporting a request or question. The results showed that participants preferred direct reporting 78 percent of the time and indirect reporting 22 percent of the time.

III. Production Experiment

We conducted a production experiment in order to answer the first research question, that is, whether hearing indirect questions/requests in L2 increases the likelihood of subsequently producing these structures in the second language.

A. Participants

Participants of the study were 80 Persian-speaking L2 learners of English who were studying English at Gooyesh Language Institute and Khorasgan Azad University in Isfahan. These participants were selected from among a larger 135-participant sample after taking Allen's (1992) proficiency test. In order to group participants, the following procedure was followed. The 40 participants who got the highest proficiency scores were placed in the High-proficiency groups, that is, those participants who scored 161-144 (out of 200 which is the maximum possible score in the placement test). In order to eliminate the Low-proficiency participants, the 40 participants who got the lowest scores (less than 101) were excluded. Of the remaining 55 participants, the forty who were in the middle of the list were placed in the Mid-proficiency groups, that is, those participants who scored 119-101. This was done in order to make sure that the High-proficiency and Mid-proficiency groups were significantly different from each other. The same participants took part in the two experiments described below.

Participants of the study were, then, placed in four groups with respect to proficiency and treatment, namely Experimental High-proficiency, Experimental Mid-proficiency, Control High-proficiency, and Control Mid-proficiency (N = 20 in each group). No low-proficiency group was assigned, because such participants would not have been able to perform the task. The groups labeled Experimental were those that were subject to syntactic priming, while the Control groups provided the baseline.

In order to ensure the comparability of the Experimental and Control groups, two independent samples t-tests were conducted comparing proficiency scores. The results of the t-test comparing the Experimental High-proficiency (M = 150.96, SD = 5.91) and Control High-proficiency (M = 153.40, SD = 4.90) showed no significant difference in proficiency, t (38) = 1.43, p = .16. The results of the t-test comparing the Experimental Mid-proficiency (M = 110.45, SD = 5.58) and Control Mid-proficiency (M = 109.25, SD = 6.09) also showed no significant difference in proficiency scores, t (38) = 0.65, p = .52.

B. Materials

There were two sets of 45 pictures, one set for the researcher and one for the participants. The critical or experimental pictures (N = 20) depicted a scene where somebody was seen to be asking or requesting something from somebody else. This question or request was made apparent by means of a balloon so that participants knew they were supposed to report this question/request. For example, someone is asking to talk with the manager, or someone is asking a friend to explain how a cell-phone works, etc. See Fig. 1 for an example of the experimental pictures.

Figure 1 Experimental picture. In this picture a young man is showing a cell-phone to his friend and is asking about how the cell-phone works.

All participants saw the same set of pictures, but the researcher's set was different for the Control and Experimental groups. The researcher's pictures for the Experimental groups provided the researcher with the opportunity to produce a prime, that is, the researcher also had pictures where there was a question or request that had to be reported. For the Control group, the researcher described a picture that did not require direct reporting and therefore lacked a priming sentence.

In addition to the experimental pictures, there were 25 filler pictures that served to hide the purpose of the study. Like the experimental pictures, the fillers depicted a scene where people were seen to be involved in some sort of conversation. For example, a police officer is giving directions to people, or while someone is watering the flowers another person is talking about the weather and the flowers. Similarly, the sentences used in conversations in both the experimental and filler pictures were made apparent by means of balloons. For example, in the picture in Fig. 2 a young man is watering the trees and flowers and another friend is talking about how beautiful the flowers are. When describing this filler, the researcher would say: "Here, there are two young men in a yard. One of them is watering the flowers and the other is also talking about the trees and the flowers."

Figure 2 Filler picture. In this picture a young man is commenting on the flowers his friend is watering.

For the filler pictures and unlike the experimental ones, the researcher would not report the sentence in the balloon; however, participants had been asked to describe the picture and always report the sentence in the balloon.

C. Procedure

Participants met with the researcher in individually held sessions. The experiment took place in a quiet room and participants were given enough time in order to describe the pictures. Each session lasted between 45 and 60 minutes. First, the researcher explained the procedure to participants and after he had made sure that participants were familiar with the procedure, the experiment started. In order to make sure that participants became completely familiar with picture description, some trial pictures were described before the main part of the experiment started. Furthermore, in order to hide the purpose of the research, the researcher mentioned that he was interested in the type of sentences that people would use to describe a variety of situations.

First, the researcher described a picture and, after he was done with his description, the participant had to look through their set of pictures and choose the one he thought best matched the situation just described by the researcher and describe it. For example, if the researcher described a picture in which a student is asking the teacher to explain a point, the participant could choose a picture of a store where a man is asking his friend to explain how a cell phone works.

The researcher and participants continued in this way until they had described all the pictures (both experimental and filler). The experimental and filler pictures were mixed in a semi-random arrangement, making sure that no two experimental or even similar structures were placed one after the other. For the critical pictures, the researcher either described the pictures including an instance of indirect request/reporting (with the Experimental groups), or described the picture but did not produce any instance of direct or indirect request/reporting (with the Control groups). For example, for the Experimental group, the researcher would say: “Here we have a class. All the students are gone, but one of the students is talking with the teacher. She is asking if he can explain a grammatical point to her.” For the Control group, on the other hand, the researcher would say: “Here we have a class and all the students are gone, but it seems that one of the students wants to talk with the teacher and needs some help with a grammatical problem.” It should be emphasized that all participants’ pictures had a balloon containing the sentence the interlocutors were uttering which participants were instructed to report.

D. Scoring

In order to facilitate the scoring procedure, a checklist was prepared. The experimental prime sentences were of three types: Wh-questions/requests (Where is the restaurant?), requests/questions with auxiliaries or yes/no questions (Could you mail these letters for me?), and requests in the form of imperatives (Take a seat, please; or Call us when you arrive). When participants produced the same structure as the prime in their description, the sentence was scored, that is, it was coded as “Indirect questions/requests.” These were sentences which were indirect wh-questions, yes/no questions, or infinitive clauses that contained verbs like ask, request, require, invite, want to know, wonder, etc. Other types of responses were coded as “Other” and not scored. For example, the researcher presented the following prime:

The student is asking the teacher if he can explain a grammatical point.

The following target sentence would be considered acceptable:

The man is asking his friend if/whether he can explain how the cell-phone works.

For each participant, a mean score was obtained for the whole session which was the sum of all the instances in which they had described a picture using the target structure. The maximum possible score was 20.

E. Results

The means for the groups were 14.70 (*SD* = 2.36), 13.20 (*SD* = 2.70), 4.80 (*SD* = 2.07), and 3.95 (*SD* = 2.28) for the Experimental High-proficiency, Experimental Mid-proficiency, Control High-proficiency, and Control-mid proficiency, respectively.

To address the first research question, which asked about the occurrence of syntactic priming in L2, the data were analyzed using a 2 x 2 analysis of variance with score as the dependent variable and group (Experimental and Control) and proficiency (High and Mid) as independent variables.

TABLE 1
RESULTS OF 2 X 2 BETWEEN-SUBJECTS ANOVA FOR THE PRODUCTION EXPERIMENT

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	1863.33	3	621.11	110.92	.000
Intercept	6716.11	1	6716.11	1199.44	.000
Group	1833.61	1	1833.61	327.47	.000
Proficiency	27.61	1	27.61	4.93	.03
Group * Proficiency	2.11	1	2.11	.37	.54
Error	425.55	76	5.59		
Total	9005.00	80			
Corrected Total	2288.88	79			

There was a statistically significant main effect of group F (1, 76) = 327.47, $p < .01$ with Experimental groups being associated with significantly higher scores (M = 13.95, SD = 2.62) than Control groups (M = 4.37, SD = 2.19). Furthermore, a significant main effect was found for proficiency, F (1, 76) = 4.93, $p < .05$, indicating that more proficient participants had significantly higher scores (M = 9.75, SD = 5.47) than did less proficient ones (M = 8.57, SD = 5.29). The interaction between group and proficiency, however, was not statistically significant, F (1, 76) = 0.37, p = .54.

In sum, the Persian-speaking EFL learners who participated in this study produced more indirect questions/requests when primed for this structure. The results provide the answer to the first research question regarding whether priming results in increased production of indirect questions/requests.

IV. Transfer Experiment

This experiment was intended to investigate whether participants of the study could transfer priming effects from one modality or skill (speaking) to another (writing).

A. Participants

The same participants (except one who voluntarily decided not to take part in this experiment) who took part in the previous experiment also participated in the transfer experiment.

B. Materials

Materials consisted of a completely new set of 45 pictures of similar characteristics as those used in the previous experiment. For this experiment, however, the pictures were printed in a booklet and participants were asked to provide the description in writing. Furthermore, in transfer experiment there was no researcher's set.

C. Procedure

All participants were asked to participate in this experiment immediately after the first experiment. The researcher provided participants with the booklet as well as the instructions on how to complete it, that is, they were supposed to provide the description of the pictures in writing. After the researcher made sure that participants were familiar with the procedure, participants were asked to complete the booklet. To help participants with picture description, a sample filler picture had been described.

D. Scoring

Sentences were coded as "Indirect questions/requests" or "Other" following the same criteria as for production experiment.

E. Results

The means for the groups were 13.75 (*SD* = 2.75), 11.90 (*SD* = 3.01), 4.10 (*SD* = 2.12), and 3.89 (*SD* = 2.42) for the Experimental High-proficiency, Experimental Mid-proficiency, Control High-proficiency, and Control-mid proficiency, respectively. The data were subjected to a 2 x 2 analysis of variance with score as the dependent variable and group (Experimental and Control) and proficiency (High and Mid) as fixed factors. Table 4.1 presents the data obtained from the 2 x 2 analysis of variance.

Table 2.
Results from the between-subjects ANOVA for the transfer experiment

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	1572.53	3	524.17	77.52	.000
Intercept	5586.33	1	5586.33	826.15	.000
Group	1538.30	1	1538.30	227.50	.000
Proficiency	20.84	1	20.84	3.08	.08
Group * Proficiency	13.35	1	13.35	1.98	.16
Error	507.13	75	6.76		
Total	7745.00	79			
Corrected Total	2079.67	78			

There was a statistically significant main effect of group F (1, 75) = 227.50, $p < .01$. Experimental groups had significantly higher proportion of target structures (M = 12.83, SD = 2.99) than did Control groups (M = 4.00, SD = 2.25), which meant the benefit accrued on spoken production due to syntactic priming was observable in the domain of written production. No significant main effect was obtained for proficiency, F (1, 75) = 3.08, p = .08, indicating that there was no significant difference between more proficient participants (M = 8.92, SD = 5.45) and less proficient ones (M = 8.00, SD = 4.87). Furthermore, no significant interaction effect was obtained for group and proficiency, F (1, 75) = 1.98, p = .16.

V. Discussion: Research Questions Revisited

Syntactic priming phenomena have been investigated from very different perspectives in the psycholinguistic literature on both first and second language acquisition. In addition to language production, syntactic priming has been researched with respect to issues such as first and second language comprehension, language processing, the mental representation of language among native speakers, bilinguals, and second language learners, and last but not least the impact of syntactic priming on retention or learning. In this study, we wanted to examine whether syntactic priming would be found in a second language and whether it would transfer from one modality (speaking) to another (writing) taking into account a particular target structure (indirect questions/requests) that had not been investigated until now. Based on personal and classroom observation, this structure seems to be underrepresented in the production of Persian learners of English and can therefore be an ideal candidate to test the potential benefits of syntactic priming in L2 acquisition.

We posed two research questions. The first research question asked about the impact of syntactic priming on the production of the target structure, namely indirect questions/requests, among Persian-speaking L2 learners of English. The results obtained from the first experiment (the production experiment) showed that those participants who had been primed for the target structure did produce more of the target structure than those who had not. This indicates that priming was effective even though it was conducted in a second language and even though it concerned a structure apparently difficult for the learners, judging by the low production of the Control group. In fact, these results support previous research on syntactic priming among second/foreign language learners, especially Kim and McDonough (2008) who showed the impact of syntactic priming on Korean speaking L2 learners of English production of passive structure. Similarly to us, they found that, regardless of the level of proficiency, their participants could be primed to use passive sentences in picture description. The results support the idea that when speakers or language users are involved in a dyadic conversation, they are aligned to one another. This alignment facilitates communication and might even enhance learning or retention of particular structure (Bock & Griffin, 2000). They showed that participants who had been primed for certain structures actually learned the structure in question. Although retention has not been a determining question in our study, we believe that it can be further scrutinized among a variety of populations.

The very reliable boost to the production of indirect questions/requests, which tend to be underrepresented in Persian speakers' production of English, fits the "*inverse-preference effects*" argument (Pickering & Ferreira, 2008) according to which in any production contexts, structures that are less favored by participants/speakers seem to exhibit higher syntactic or structural priming. These effects might be because of the way speakers process prime structures, or the way they process target structures (see also Hartsuiker & Kolk, 1998; Hartsuiker, Kolk, & Huiskamp, 1999; Scheepers, 2003). The present results show that the same applies to priming studies in second language acquisition research.

The second research question of the study dealt with modality or interskill transfer, that is: Do the Persian speaking participants of the study who have been primed for the target structure transfer syntactic priming effects from one modality (speaking) to another (writing)? Particularly, the transfer experiment was designed to address this question and the results showed that participants in the Experimental groups produced more target structures in their written production, a sign that the benefits gained during the priming session were available for this task as well. Nevertheless, the difference between Experimental and Control groups was significantly smaller in the transfer experiment than in the production experiment indicating that the transfer may not have been complete. Although the reason for this is not clear, one possibility is that, given that writing is a more demanding task, because it requires more conscious knowledge of grammar and language compared with speaking, which is more spontaneous and speakers may tend to employ the more frequent and easier structures to compensate.

VI. Conclusion

Our data clearly show that priming can take place in a second/foreign language and that its effects are modality independent. Based on these findings several lines of enquiry suggest themselves. For example, one recurring theme in L2 research is the issue of cross-linguistic syntactic integration (De Bot, 1992; Ullman, 2001), that is, to what extent the two languages of a bilingual are separate. It should be possible to address this question using a syntactic priming paradigm by looking at whether bilinguals or second/foreign language learners can be primed by structures in one of their languages, and expect the target structure to be produced in the other language. Of course, it should be noted that this happens when there is syntactic proximity between the two languages. If so, it would mean learners are making use of the same mechanisms to process the two languages (see Hartsuiker, Pickering, & Veltkamp, 2004 for an investigation of the same issue among Spanish-English bilinguals). The role of proficiency in priming effects is yet another potentially interesting area of research in that it could help determine to what extent new structures can be "acquired" through priming. Still another promising and fruitful line of research using syntactic priming methodology can be the investigation of the role syntactic priming plays in the implicit learning of particular structures. This line of research will shed more light on mental processes involved in learning a second/foreign language.

Furthermore, syntactic priming can have a very practical use in the classroom. For example, in order to introduce grammar points, the teacher can prime the structure and then expect students to use that particular structure in their language production. This could be particularly helpful with structures that are less favored by the learners' first language. In Persian, for example, in addition to indirect speech, passives, tag questions, and causatives are among the less favored structures. These are, therefore, suitable for further investigation on syntactic priming and, possibly, for improvement of learning outcomes.

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The Changing Role of Teachers in the Development of Learner Autonomy— Based on a Survey of "English Dorm Activity"

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***Abstract*— College English aims at improving the learners' ability to take charge of his or her own learning. In view of this, the role of teachers is crucial in helping promote leaner autonomy. This thesis discusses the responsibilities of teachers in the exercise of autonomy by analyzing the concept of autonomous learning and the difficulties the students meet in English dorm activity.**

***Index Terms*— leaner autonomy, English dormitory, the role of teachers**

I. Introduction

Since the concept of autonomous learning was introduced into the field of education in 1950's, a wide research at home and abroad has been made in this field. Linguistic scholars began their study on autonomous learning in 1970's, gradually it was accepted that another goal in language learning is to cultivate students' ability of autonomous learning. These researches reflected the transition of teaching emphasis from teacher-centered to students-centered learning. The cause of this transition stemmed from the flaws in traditional teaching methods for instance, those methods couldn't be in accordance with the requirements and learning style of every student, with the consequence that learning became very passive and boring. In order to promote their initiative and creativity, learners must have the ability to manage their learning process, to set a sensible goal, and to evaluate their effectiveness and adjust accordingly. Only under this condition can a leaner find different chance of learning, make good use of his (her) time in and outside classroom according to his own requirements and style in learning, and finally enhance the ability of language learning. This ability is more important when a leaner graduates from school and enters into society for "learning for lifetime" has become essential for modern personnel.

Based on the theory above, the English Dorm Activity (EDA) carried out in Zhejiang Gongshang University aims to promote and improve students' oral activity by assigning some oral homework related to the texts. Students can decide how to practice, and mostly, the practice takes place in their dormitory. That's why the activity is so called. In the next class, teachers examine what students have done by asking them to make a presentation. The form of the presentation is up to students, e.g. a short speech, a role play, a report, etc. After the presentation, teachers evaluate it and give some comments. The evaluation of the performance is put into the learner's file and calculated in proportion into every student's final performance. In this way, students find stimulation in learning English and autonomously practice English in dorms. When this is realized, a culture of speaking English in dorms will emerge, which helps form learner autonomy in a real sense.

II. Autonomous Learning

A. The Definition of Autonomous Learning

It was Henri Holec (1981:3) who first introduced the concept of autonomous learning in foreign language teaching. His definition of learner autonomy is "learners' ability to manage his learning", that is, a leaner is able to make learning strategies appropriate to his personal situation, including: 1. Setting learning objectives and schedule; 2. Deciding the content and procedure of learning; 3. Finding learning methods and techniques; 4. Supervising the whole process of learning, e.g. learning time, place and procedure; 5. Self-evaluation.

Other researchers may not agree with this definition. Peng Dingjin (2002:16) , from the perspective of Chinese students' characteristics, holds that learner autonomy has the following five aspects: " 1. Taking responsibility for learning; 2. Having a clear objective; 3. Making schedules; 4. Evaluating the effectiveness of learning; 5. Adjusting learning strategy ."

B. Learner Autonomy and the EDA

In the EDA, teachers take charge of evaluating the effectiveness of learning and direct students in shaping their own learning objective. However, learners are still responsible for their learning, including making schedules and adjusting strategies. Considering the tradition and characteristic of Chinese learners, it is impractical for them to supervise the whole learning process and evaluate the effectiveness by themselves. A teacher is no longer a source of knowledge, but still an instructor or a supervisor in learning. A teacher’s monologue, which has long been a tradition especially in English teaching in China, disappears as well. Student-centered classroom activity takes the place of teacher’s long lecture. Students are no longer soldiers waiting for orders from their commander but actors and actress taking part in every thing under the instruction of their “director”. However, without originality, creativity and diligence, no one can be a good actor.

Yet, the importance of a good director can never be neglected.

C. Autonomous Learning and Teacher’s Role

English learner autonomy puts significant emphasis on learner’s control of his learning; nevertheless, this does not mean that learners should take the task independently. The premise of learner autonomy in SLA is learners’ helpful dependence on one another, Little (Aoki, 2000:143) pointed out, because the development of language ability involves a great deal of communication. Without surrounding language environment and learners’ cooperation, it is impossible to enhance the language communicative competence.

The existence and implementation of autonomous learning is also dependent on social relations. Nedesky (1989:25) observes that autonomy is an ability existing under the condition of certain social surroundings and dependent on social relations. Thus negotiation and cooperation between teacher and student has a very strong influence on the way of autonomous learning. Taylor (Guan Shuhong, 2004:143) holds the point that autonomous learning emphasizes learner’s own responsibility for his learning, but that does not mean that a teacher should abandon his right of organizing and directing the class. In comparison with traditional teaching method, autonomy does not deprive teachers of their responsibility, but redistributes the decision-making rights between teachers and students in the learning process. In autonomous learning, learners have more rights in making learning strategies. Accordingly, teachers do not control the whole learning procedure like a commander, but take many other roles like directors or advisors.

To attain a path to learner autonomy, a direct and practical instruction is essential (Pang Weiguo, 2003:86). A systematic instruction is necessary in cultivating the ability of autonomous learning. In China, for a very long time, teachers have dominated the English classroom. Consequently, Chinese students become passive and dependent on teachers too much, lacking the ability of managing his study. On the other hand, influenced by our traditional culture and ethics, students tend to believe that teachers are authorities as a source of knowledge and information. As learners, they neglected their responsibility in learning. Therefore, learners in China need more instruction from their teachers on the way to autonomous learning.

In the EDA in Zhejiang Gongshang University, a teacher makes the teaching schedule, but he leaves many other aspects to students. For example, after a teacher designs and assigns the oral work, students must decide where and how to begin, what kind of presentation they will make, how to cooperate with other students, etc. The teacher also evaluates students’ work by marking their presentation, and giving advices as well.

However, a teacher’s role changes in different aspects and different stages of learning. The following are some problems and obstacles in implementing the EDA, through which I try to discuss the role a teacher should take in this teaching process and in autonomous learning.

III. Students' Problems and Difficulties in the EDA

The English Dormitory Activity has a full name as Interaction between English dormitory Activity and Class-room teaching (IEDC), a project carried out in Zhejiang Gongshang University since 2004 (Zhang Junying, 2006:6). The characteristic of this project is to promote English learning, especially oral practice, outside classroom. The policies and strategies are mentioned in the Introduction at the beginning of this essay.

The implementation of the EDA is another way of autonomous learning. When assigning tasks for oral practice, teachers do not confine the form of oral work into a certain one. It is open and up to students. For example, when learning the text unit with the name “Psychology in Our Daily Life”, some students find some psychological tests to test their peer students; some interview a psychologist (played by another student); some have a group discussion about how to ease pressure; some make a role play(one giving psychological support to another), etc. The variety of presentation forms enhances the classroom atmosphere, and allows students to show their originality and creativity. In order to accomplish the task, first, students have to be familiar with the test. And search some language information is also necessary. Then most importantly, practice with roommates until they are ready for presentation, in this way, students’ oral English improves, which leads to the improvement of their ability of autonomous learning.

I designed a questionnaire, aiming to know the difficulties and problems in the EDA. 8 classes, about 320 students, took the survey. They are second-year students, non-English major, having been trained under the EDA program for one year. The following points are a summary of what the students expressed in the questionnaire:

1. They found it difficult to arrange their time of learning. They always couldn’t agree on a time to practice oral English, leaving the homework until next morning before the second class when they had to make a presentation. So they prepare the presentation in a hurry.

2. Many students felt that they couldn’t express what they wanted to say freely and precisely mainly due to lack of

vocabulary and grammatical structure.

3. Some students found themselves tongue-tied when talking about certain topics, hoping that the teacher could provide some related vocabulary and information to help the practice.

4. Students also complained that it was not easy to organize the oral practice. Some room members were quite reluctant in taking part in the activity, saying that they didn't have time. This negative attitude influenced the whole group and directly led to a poor presentation in the second class.

5. Many students admitted that they felt extremely nervous when presenting the work. Even though they prepared presentation very sufficiently, it turned out to be a poor one.

From the problems and obstacles above, we can see that students don't have a clear idea about the EDA, or in a sense, autonomous learning. At the same time, their ability of autonomous learning is still to be developed. This is a new challenge to teachers. How to encourage and organize autonomous learning? How to help students take more responsibility in their learning?

IV. The Change of a Teacher's Role

In autonomous learning, the function of a teacher is not only passing along knowledge, but taking different roles in accordance with the requirement of developing learner's ability needed in learner autonomy. Little pointed out that learner's autonomy is to a great extent dependent on teacher's autonomy, while teacher's consciousness of changing his roles is the basis of teacher's autonomy (Liu Wanqiu, 2004:105).

Generally, a teacher plays three different roles: facilitator, counselor and resource (Voller, 1997). Voller argues that a teacher should provide students with psycho-social support and technical support as a facilitator and counselor. The former is to promote students' learning motivation, and enhance their consciousness of autonomy (Aoki, 2000:147). The latter is to help learners make and carry out the learning schedule, evaluate the effectiveness, and attain necessary knowledge and techniques in autonomous learning.

Based on the obstacles students met in EDA, I concluded that a teacher should help students manage their learning through the following 5 aspects:

A. Develop the Consciousness of Autonomous Learning

Learner's idea about learning has a big influence on his way of learning. Autonomous learners must be reflectively engaged with their learning. If learners are proactively committed to their learning, the problem of motivation is naturally solved.

The students surveyed apparently lack the motivation of autonomy. They hope for teacher's help in a very specific way, e.g. providing associated vocabulary and information, which can be found in a library or the Internet easily. Therefore, it is necessary for teachers to make it clear at the beginning of the learning program that a teacher is only a director, guiding students in their learning, not a knowledge or information provider. Students, particularly Chinese students, should change his habitual thinking, stop being too much dependent on teachers.

To be more specific, a teacher should make students understand the nature of language learning, and the basic requirements in the College English course. This may be carried out by the form questionnaire and discussion. Teachers may talk with students about the theories of language learning and autonomous learning, with the purpose that students realize an important path to successful language learning is autonomy. Thus students may take the responsibility for their learning.

B. Motivate Students in Their Learning

A premise of participating actively in learning activities is a strong will to achieve the goal. Students' unwillingness to do the oral English homework is originated from lack of interest in learning English. How to motivate students becomes a main challenge to teachers.

Learning motivation originates from many aspects, including inner motives and outer motives. Inner motives arise from personal focus and interests, e.g. learner's interests in cultures of the English-speaking countries. Outer motives stems from some outside aspects like getting a high score. Researches show that the former is more important in maintaining learner's enthusiasm in learning. So teachers have the responsibility to arouse learner's real interest in English learning.

A good way to arouse students' interest is to create an appropriate environment in which learners realize the importance of English as a communication tool and thus become curious about the content. Teachers may emphasize the communicational function of English, abandon the traditional spoon-feed method, and encourage students to use the language to talk about some familiar things in their life. Vocabulary and language itself are not the only content of teaching, because there are other information and knowledge like culture, literature and history under the words and language. Teachers may direct students' attention into those respects, trying to discover their interest. On the other hand, teachers may also create a learning environment outside the classroom, such as English song contest, English corner, English speech, etc. A teacher's recommendation of certain magazines, films or web-sites has a comparatively deep influence on students.

One part of the EDA program is activities outside the classroom, speaking English in dormitories. If students have real interest in the language and spend time searching for relative information instead of confining themselves in the text content, this activity is surely not a problem, at least well-motivated.

C. Develop the Ability of Autonomous Learning

The development of the ability of autonomous learning consists of two parts—the training of metacognitive strategies and cognitive strategies. The former includes learning planning, set the contents and goals, monitoring the whole process of learning, and assess the effectiveness. It can be realized by making learner profiles. Cognitive strategies training refers to various techniques in learning.

1. Learner Profile

Gardner and Miller (1999:84) define learner profile as “a series of information related to learners”. On one hand, the learner profile may help learners understand his current situation of learning, as well as goals in the future, and monitor his process of learning. On the other, it helps teachers know and understand students’ personal situation, their requirements and problems, thus recognize and praise their improvements and analyze the setbacks in learning, redirecting the learners into the correct path. The profile may include the following:

a). Learner’s self-analysis

With the help of teachers, a learner may recognize his strengths and weaknesses, thus be able to set a clear and practical goal. In the EDA program, this is not completely done due to some realistic reasons, for example, big classes up to 45 students make it extremely inconvenient for teachers to make profiles. And usually one teacher has 3 to 4 classes. The alternative might be dividing students into groups, and making group profiles rather than personal ones.

b). Personal Requirements and Goals

Goals are a reference point of autonomous learning, therefore a core part of learner autonomy. Learning goals are usually combined with teaching schedules. In English class in China might weigh more in teaching schedules, so it is more important to make student understand the teaching schedules and arrangements. Every student’s goal should be different from one another because of different personal situations. Once goals are set, students’ motives in learning will be strengthened.

c). Learning Schedules

Some students complain that they don’t have time to finish the oral homework. In most cases, it is a result of inappropriate arrangement of time. Learners should make a learning schedule according to his goals, which will greatly improve the efficiency of learning. Teachers may help students make the schedule, the more detailed, the better. With the learning schedule, teachers will find it convenient to supervise students learning. If a group is formed, students in the same group may help each other accomplish the goals.

d). Accomplishments and Reflections

In the College English course in China, students need to learn how to evaluate his learning and supervise his learning process. First, it is impossible for teachers to know every student’s small improvement, while learners should know better about himself than teachers. Teacher may provide some advises on how to do the evaluation. Second, many students are used to assess himself through test results. In college, there are fewer tests than high schools. In this case, students might neglect his progress. So teachers should introduce various method of assessment to ensure that students are evaluating themselves precisely.

The specific method of self-assessment might be a self-test questionnaire, a diary or a peer assessment. Through these, learners know his progress and setbacks. They can also consider whether the plan is carried out or not, whether the learning method is effective or not, etc. teachers, on the other hand, should make students sure that test scores are not the only assessment of students learning. Other experiences in learning can also be documented in the profile, such as the happiness and bitterness in learning, peer judgments, classroom performance, and teacher’s comments, etc. a teacher might organize discussion regularly to share and solve problems students have.

A correct method of assessment is very important in helping learners establish self-confidence. In this aspect, teachers should “help students find a good and appropriate standard to assess himself (Aoki, 2000:153)”. In this way, from the feedbacks in assessment, students enjoy a sense of achievement, and will become more motivated and confident.

In the EDA practice, each learning groups may set a group profile, which will contribute to the cooperation and progress inside the group.

2. Cognitive Strategies Training

Surveys indicate that few students know confidently how to learn English. Many hope that teachers could provide a reasonable and efficient way of learning. For example, in the EDA practice, many groups write down the draft of the oral work, recite it. As a result, the presentation becomes a contest of recitation. This is similar to learning swimming by reciting the swimming techniques rather than by practicing swimming. Teachers thus should guide students into correct ways of practicing oral English.

During the teaching process, teachers should convey to students the importance of cognitive strategies in improving learning efficiency in order to motivate students to learn different techniques in learning (Pang Weiguo, 2003: 223). Through a long-time training of cognitive training, learner’s consciousness of strategies will be enhanced. As a result, learners will be more confident and autonomous in learning.

D. Provide Learning-related Information

In autonomous learning, teachers' function as "resource" is still very important. Teachers are more professional and sensible in choosing the appropriate materials for students in accordance with their language levels, which prevents students from wasting time on some inappropriate materials. When assigning tasks, a teacher may provide students with some related materials, or at least tell students how and where to find the material. When a learning group meets some problems, a teacher may help them solve the problem regularly. When students are communicating in English, a teacher should always be a supporter and corrector. One important task of teachers is to be aware which student needs what help, and provide help and information accordingly (Aoki, 2000:152)

E. Providing Psychological Support

It is normal for students learning a foreign language to feel nervous when they are making an oral presentation. This has a negative influence on their participation in class-room activities. Rogers, the American humanistic psychologist, pointed out that a harmonious class-room atmosphere provided an important psychological environment for students to express their ideas freely and creatively (Liu Wanqiu, 2004:106).

In order to create such an environment, it is essential for teachers to establish a smooth and equal relation with students. Teachers should treat every student equally, avoiding neglecting some poor students, giving the equal opportunities to present themselves. Appropriate praise and stimulation is very helpful in promoting learners' sense of achievement and enhancing their motives in learning. Some non-verbal languages, such as gestures, also have a significant function in easing students' nervousness and anxiety. Kelly listed some teachers' gestures students felt comfortable: body tilting toward students, nodding, smiling, facing students, maintaining encouraging eye contact, pausing; listening to students calmly, etc ((Aoki, 2000:151).

V. CONCLUSION

To conclude, autonomous learning puts forward a new challenge to English teachers. Teachers need to improve themselves in order to be qualified for the multi-roles.

In the EDA practice in Zhejiang Gongshang University, according the questionnaire and survey mentioned above, teachers particularly need to improve their teaching method in motivating students, establishing learner profiles and cognitive strategies training. In this way, the program will gradually perfect itself and become a successful example of autonomous learning.

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Reading-writing Connections in EAP Courses: Implications and Applications

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***Abstract*—Reading and writing skills are said to be so much interrelated at either primary, secondary and/or tertiary levels of education that it has been claimed that "…. Good writers are good readers…good reading is the key to becoming a good writer" (Rodriguez Kessler, 2006:5-6). Also, reading, as a skill for EAP students, is often linked to writing because the former often precedes the latter within the target disciplines. Seen together, reading and writing today are described as "parallel processes" or "natural partners" (Sarasota, 2008; Tsai, 2008) where the activities of readers are congruent to or mirror images of the activities of writers. The present research paper is an attempt to pinpoint different aspects of the issue, as far as its implications and applications at EAP courses are concerned. To this end, a number of relevant theoretical issues are touched upon first, later to be followed by a series of suggestions as to the empirical applications of the interrelationships between the skills.**

***Index Terms* —reading, writing, reading-writing connections, EAP, mediation theory of language learning**

I. Introduction

Teaching, as well as learning, at higher education level is a rather challenging enterprise. Working with young adults, as college or university students, is a demanding job which has proved to involve so many tough obstacles. At this level, students have their own cognitive, affective, and socio-cultural characteristics which make them distinctly different from other learners among other age-groups

Likewise, the variables involved in ensuring success in both teaching and learning at such a level are so diverse that so far no one has dared to claim possessing a thorough list to be considered the last word in the field. True, this is more so nowadays because the age-old ‘‘information transmission’’ mode of teaching -as the most dominant paradigm in academic, educational settings- is no longer considered appropriate (Cannon and Newble, 2000; Light and Cox, 2001).

A. Higher Education and EAP

In academia worldwide, a large number of journals and research articles are published in English, and a large proportion of academic textbooks too are in English. In addition, a considerable number of college/university courses, academic seminars and conferences are also held using English as their major language for the exchange of information.

This has clearly led to the emergence of the discipline of English for Academic Purposes (EAP), itself a younger offshoot of the little older branch of English for Specific Purposes (ESP).To explicitly define the meaning of EAP, it is said to cover those educational activities in higher education, the purpose of which is the teaching and learning of the English language required by undergraduates, post-graduates and/or staff (Kennedy, 2001:25).

The divisions and sub-divisions of EAP are characterized with some minor differences in a number of relevant sources (e.g. Jordan, 1997; Johnson & Johnson,1998; Dudely-Evans & St John , 1998; and Johns & Price-Machado, 2001; Flowerdew & Peacock , 2001).Such sources typically tend to divide EAP into two main branches, i.e. English for General Academic Purpose (EGAP) and English for Specific Academic Purposes (ESAP). According to Blue, as quoted in Dudely-Evans and St John (1998), an awareness of the distinction between English for General Academic Purposes (EGAP) and English for Specific Academic Purposes (ESAP) is crucial to a full understanding of EAP. EGAP refers to teaching the skills and language that are common to all disciplines; ESAP refers to the teaching of the features that distinguish one discipline from others (p.41).

B. Teaching and Learning L2 Reading and Writing

Historically speaking, of the four language skills, reading comprehension and writing in a second or foreign language can be regarded as the oldest and most viable skills both in being learned or taught at educational settings across the world. Furthermore, reading and writing skills are said to be so much interrelated at either primary, secondary and/or tertiary levels of education that it has been claimed that ‘‘… good writers are good readers… Good reading is the key to becoming a good writer…Becoming a good writer works together with becoming a good reader’’ (Rodriguez Kessler, 2006:5-9).

Seen from another perspective, throughout the years of their stay at colleges, university students are expected to spend the lion's share of their time primarily on reading various textbooks, journal articles and other similar reading materials. Thus, they are required to be or become efficient and competent readers of such texts. That's why Nunan (2001:242), among so many others, maintains that ‘‘an enormous amount of time, money, and effort is spent teaching reading…[and] it is probably true to say that more time is spent teaching reading than any other skill’’. As to the nature and typology of academic reading materials, they are thought to be different from other types of texts that we may have read prior to being admitted to the university. They are organized differently and are written in a distinctive style (Seal, 1997; introduction, xix).

C. Reading-writing Connections in Summary Writing

In everyday use of language, we are continually integrating the language skills or switching from one skill to another. It is best to reflect this integration when teaching a second or foreign language (Davies and Pearse, 2000:99). As far as the integration of reading- writing connections is concerned, it is admittedly an old, established technique to ask EAP students of reading comprehension courses to present or produce brief statements of the main ideas in a text or reading passage, either while reading or after completing reading the text. The ability to produce a summary (alternatively known as synopsis, or précis) is referred to in TEFL literature as summarizing, or summary skills, and has been a focus of instruction in the teaching and testing of reading comprehension skill(s).

At academic settings in particular, students are usually required to produce study summaries, to complete various types of summary assignments, and to complete tasks that call for the incorporation of a written source material in term papers or any other similar presentation (Johns & Mayes, 1990; Kirkland & Saunders, 1991; Nunan, 2003; Brown, 2004). However, this is not an activity to be expected to be carried out with the same degree of success by all language learners. After all, some more proficient language learners outperform the others and some others, with less background and practice in these skills, may lag behind.

D. Statement of the Problem

Reading, as a skill for EAP students, is often linked to writing because the former often precedes the latter within the target disciplines. Students read textbooks and journal articles with the goal of extracting relevant information and ideas for writing up assignments, examinations and dissertations, etc. For this reason, reading teachers often focus on reading skills they believe will be useful when students write extensively (See Flowerdew & Peacock, 2001).

EAP is admittedly "a thriving and important aspect of TESOL that has so far received less attention from researchers than it deserves…[and is]more complex and potentially problematic than most English language teachers recognize in the beginning of their EAP teaching" (Hamp-Lyons, 2001: 130). Within EAP, reading comprehension skill plays a pivotal part. The role of reading is so significant that reading is said to be "the skill of skills" (Anderson, 1984). Grabe (1991:375) too notes that reading is probably the most important skill for second language learners in academic contexts.

Nevertheless, reading is a skill that is one of the most difficult to develop to a high level of proficiency (Grabe, 2002). Dreyer and Nel (2003), as quoted in Lin and Siriyothin (2008) point out that many students enter higher education underprepared for the reading demands that are placed upon them. Nuttal (1996) too points out that although reading textbooks is vital for assignments, projects and exams, students are often not taught how to read textbooks and there is a tendency for subject teachers to use strategies that will not help them to improve their content reading skills or to be independent learners.

However, within EGAP (English for General Academic Purposes) all university language teachers are required to be fairly grounded in teaching of the skills and language that are common to all academic disciplines. To quote Dudley-Evans & St John (1998:41):

English for General Academic Purposes isolates the skills associated with study activities such as listening to lectures; participating in supervisions, articles and other reading material; writing essays, examination answers dissertations and reports. These are particular skills associated with each of these, so that, to take one example, reading almost any textbook involves understanding the main ideas, distinguishing the main ideas and the supporting detail, making notes on the main ideas, evaluating the writer’s point of view, and where necessary skimming to understand the gist of the argument or scanning to find specific information.

This research article, thus, intends to contribute to the former body of scholarship on different aspects of teaching and learning of reading comprehension, in particular as far as the connections between this skill and writing are concerned.

II. Review of the Literature

A. Theories of Reading-writing Relations: Interlingual and Intralingual Aspects

Historically speaking, the relationships between reading and writing have been characterized by a complex set of approaches and conceptualizations .In more traditional approaches, reading and writing were conceptualized as individual skills that could be analyzed and taught as sets of independent skills and strategies. The separation between reading and writing instruction, Huot (1988) maintains, can be traced back as far back as the Middle Ages. Today however, reading and writing are usually described as "parallel processes" or "natural partners" (Trosky & Wood, 1982;

Tierny & Pearson, 1983; Sarasota, 2008; Tsai, 2008) where the activities of readers are congruent to or mirror images of the activities of writers (Smith, 1983).

Reading and writing are rightly referred to as "parallel" because there is a connectedness between what readers do and what writers do as they prepare to read or write: as they create meaning through text (in writing), and as they reflect on the text (in reading).However, as far as the exact nature of these relationships is concerned, it appears not to have been properly determined yet. As a matter of fact, the field committed to locating the interrelationships between these two skills seems still to be in its infancy because the concern for the study of reading and writing appears to have boomed in the last two decades (Stotsky, 1983; Shanahan, 1984; Hirvela, 2004; Hinkel, 2006; Parody, 2007).

Researchers from a variety of fields (e.g. education, composition, reading, learning psychology, and applied linguistics) have become interested in the ways that reading and writing might reinforce or accelerate the learning of content, the development of literacy skills, and the acquisition of language abilities (Grabe, 2003:242).Interactions between reading and writing is thus a topic of concern in the academy as it relates to students studying in their first language (L1) as well as students studying in their second language (L2).

The study of reading-writing relations, according to theoreticians (e.g. Grabe & Kaplan, 1997; Urquhart & Weir, 1998; Grabe, 2003) must be grounded in the theories of reading and writing that can stand independently. Reading-writing relations should then build on these theories and offer a framework that explains the ways in which reading and writing together enhance language, literacy, and content learning. Such a framework can offer teachers a richer understanding of how to assemble a course designed to promote literacy and language skills needed for successful performance in EAP contexts.

Academic writing too occupies a large proportion of student's study time. For a variety of reasons it causes difficulties. The requirements needed for any successful written assignment in academic setting is said to include: the need to select relevant material, present a reasoned argument, evaluate evidence and draw appropriate conclusions (Jordan, 1997:12-13).Knowledge of genre is a key element in all communication and especially significant in writing academic or professional texts. Knowledge of genre involves an understanding of the expectations of the discourse community that reads the text and of the conventions that have developed over time about the structure, the language and the rhetoric of the genre. And these are clearly challenges-at times insurmountable-for the majority of EAP students.

Researchers who address reading-writing relations adopting an approach to similarities and/or differences between or among L1-L2 (both in terms of processes and products involved)can be said to be interested in studying the interlingual aspects of the issue. Reading-writing relations have been a topic of L1 research for the past two decades(e.g. , Tierney & Shanahan,1991;Carson et al; 1990; Alderson, 1984, 2000; Macaro, 2001; Grabe, 2003; Cobb & Horst, 2001; Sadeghi, 2007).

Such sets of research have contributed to the view that some familiarity with L1 findings can help L2 teachers develop greater awareness of the challenges that all learners face in accomplishing their reading and writing goals. Carson et al.(1990) examined the first language and second language reading and writing abilities of ESL learners to determine the relationships across languages (L1 and L2) and across modalities(reading and writing)in the acquisition of L2 literary skills.

Researchers who address reading-writing relations with an eye mainly on what processes and/or products are followed in particular in L2, can be said to be interested in intralingual aspects of this issue. Second language research on reading-writing connections can be traced back to the 1980s.Two early topics of research involved the Interdependence Hypothesis and the Language Threshold Hypothesis (Cummins, 1979, 1981; Durgunoglu & Verhoeven, 1998; Connor, 1996; Johns & Mayes, 1990; Sasaki & Hirose, 1996). The former approach suggests that literacy transfers from the L1 to the L2, while the latter hypothesis argues against supportive transfer until a certain variable level of L2 proficiency is attained. Two further topics of research have also been identified; one being the argument that extensive reading directly improves writing abilities (Krashen, 1984, 1993), and the second to be the role of directionality between reading and writing (Is it better to go from reading to writing or from writing to reading for the most effective teaching?).Together, these four issues have dominated discussions of L2 reading-writing relations in the 1980s and 1990s (Wallace, 2001; Grabe, 2003).

B. Reading-writing Relations in L2 EAP Settings: Pedagogical Aspects

With the recognition that students must be prepared to engage in academically appropriate task and do so efficiently and successfully, reading-writing relations have taken on greater importance. Research exploring academic settings and tasks has demonstrated that students are commonly asked to combine reading and writing activities. Thus , apart from any value that derives from literacy development through reading and writing interactions ,there is an increasing need for teaching specific instructional genres (e.g. ,summarizing, writing a response to a reading selection and so forth) in connection with a variety of academic contexts.

Curricula and pedagogical practices for language and literacy development at EAP courses require considering two factors: 1) a needs analysis, and 2)a coherent framework for meeting student needs. A needs analysis needs to be done to identify student and institutional goals; tasks, texts and topics that should be included in instruction; time and resources needed to ensure effective teaching; and appropriate tools to assess effectiveness of learning. As regards the necessity for adopting a coherent framework, four general options are suggested for implementing EAP instruction (Grabe, 2003:254):

1. a language-emphasis program, focusing on specific language skills
2. a program with a reading-and-writing emphasis
3. content-based instruction emphasizing EAP contexts
4. task-based instruction, again emphasizing EAP contexts

As such, the two frameworks that offer the best opportunities for incorporating and writing within realistic academic demands are content-based instruction and task-based instruction. In both cases, there are possibilities to build the foundational skills for reading and writing abilities based on realistic academic expectations. Content-based instruction can be implemented in many different ways. When set up well in response to student needs and instructional goals, it offers an effective way to provide a set of reading and writing experiences, and it can provide much practice in the specific literacy tasks expected in advanced academic settings. Johns (1997), Snow and Brinton (1997) and Kasper (2000) list suggestions, both in theory and practice, to help enrich college-level content-based instruction. Similarly, task-based teaching can be relied on to support reading-writing integration at EAP courses. One example, is Carson (2000) who emphasizes reading and writing tasks developed for students in transition to academic work in university settings. She notes the following as a series of goals for EAP task-based teaching:

1. establish tasks that support real academic learning goals
2. cycle across fluency, accuracy, and complexity
3. vary familiar and unfamiliar tasks, more formal and less formal language
4. focus on meaning, form-control, and form-restructuring
5. use tasks that reflect real-word language uses.

Based on the above guidelines, there are many tasks and activities that can prepare students for academic demands through reading and writing interactions. A number of these tasks are fairly traditional (e.g. , summaries, writing responses ,in-class essay writing ,report writing), but they are useful enough for developing skills for academic success as well.

With respect to the practical instructional tasks and activities that can promote reading-writing relations, Grabe (2003) asserts that hundreds of ideas for writing instructions can be found in relevant sources (Reid, 1993; White, 1995; Grabe and Kaplan, 1996; Ferris & Hedgcock, 1998; Grabe & Stoller, 2002).The same source and author (Grabe, 2003: 255-257) offers ten general guidelines for instruction to be used for building reading and writing foundations for academic success.

One more experimental project dealing with reading-writing relations deserved to be mentioned here is Hirvela's (2001).The project centered on incorporating reading in the writing class. He describes a qualitative study of 39 undergraduate students' reading during an integrated EAP reading and writing course in an American university. The aim of the study was to investigate the incorporation of reading into a writing course. The course aimed to ensure that the learners were taught as active rather than passive readers, and also that the texts they read came from their academic discourse communities. Data were collected through student self-assessment, an end-of-course survey, interviews and recall protocols on learner attitudes.

C. Reading-writing Relationships: An Alternative Paradigm

In parallel with the above theoretical and practical researchers dealing with different aspects of reading-writing relations in both L1 and L2,and in both EAP and non-EAP courses, numerous studies have elaborated on the same issues from other perspectives. Of the numerous studies dealing with exploring reading-writing connections since 1980s, many appear to have adopted another alternative paradigm. Within this paradigm, the relevant issues are studied in terms of either an "interactive orientation" or "constructive orientation".

1. The Interactive Orientation

The interactive orientation postulates that reading can influence writing development and writing can influence reading development. Within this paradigm, reading is believed to involve an "interaction" between a reader and a text, which means that reading process is dynamic and variable, and there are different levels of understanding of a text (Lin, 2008).

Here, findings suggest interdependence between reading input and written output. It is meanwhile suggested that students' enthusiasm for the task adversely affect the written outcome in that interests may not be perceived by the independent markers as being particularly salient to the text and the summary task.

In another research of relevance to interactive orientation approach, Yamada (2002) investigated whether Japanese intermediate EFL writers would be able to summarize and integrate source texts without being heavily dependent on them if they were encouraged to use inferential thought processes. Students engaged in two summary writing tasks, each task requiring integration of two media sources on the same topic. One task involved more inferential process than the other. The results showed that task requiring greater degree of inference helped writers generate information which were more independent of the source texts.

2. The Constructive Orientation

The 1980's marked a change in focus as far as research into reading-writing interrelationships was concerned. Research began to examine the relationships between writing and reading as cognitive and social processes. In fact, a large and extremely influential body of research from a constructivist perspective indicates that reading and writing development are characterized by gradually more sophisticated rule-governed representations, and that the learner is an active problem-solver who is influenced by background knowledge, text, and context (Stotsky, 1983; Squire, 1983;Chall & Jacobs, 1983; Eckhoff, 1983). During 70s, 80s and 90s several researchers described how "construction of meaning" occurs through reading-writing linkages (e.g., Flower & Hayes, 1981; Pearson & Tierney, 1984; Spivey, 1990; McGinley, 1992).

Constructive theory as well as research asserts that writing and reading are both meaning-making activities. When people write and read, meaning is continually in a state of becoming; the mind anticipates, looks back, and forms momentary impressions that change and grow as meaning develops. Because writing and reading involve the development of meaning, both were conceptualized as composing activities in the sense that both involve planning, generating and revising meaning which occur recursively throughout the meaning-building process.

Seen together, the work on reading and writing processes indicates that writing and reading are deeply related activities of language and thought that are shaped through use. The structures and strategies that writers and readers use to organize, remember, and present their ideas are generally the same in writing and reading. However, the structure of the message and the strategies used to formulate and organize it are driven by purpose and therefore different.

As an example of an action research carried out in terms of a constructivist approach to integration of reading and writing at EAP contexts, one may refer to McKusick et al.'s (2001).What they actually did was intended to emphasize purposeful uses of reading and writing in college, to stress strategic approaches to literacy development rather than isolated skills, to capitalize on the connections between reading and writing ,and to encourage students more toward independence and control of their own reading and writing processes. As a result, they planned to have students engage in reading and writing activities through the pursuit of meaningful, thematically focused goals, much as they might do in any college course in humanities or social science.

Preliminary evaluations of the integrated course have shown that students are more likely to retain, demonstrate more dramatic growth in reading on a standardized instrument, and report greater satisfaction than students who enroll in separate reading and writing courses (Mc Kusick, 2001).However, more research is needed to demonstrate effectiveness of the course, including longitudinal studies of how students perform in subsequent courses and qualitative studies of students self-directed reading and writing processes.

III. Discussion

A. *Reading-writing Connections and Mediation Theory of Language Learning*

Within the task-based language teaching/learning approach as expounded on by Ellis (2000,2003),Willis & Willis (2007), Harmer (2001), Johnson (2001), Skehan (1996), Nunan (2001,2003,2004), and Van den Branden (2006), one aspect which can empirically be addressed is the role of application of mediating tasks to EAP classroom procedures. This can be aimed at increasing the efficiency levels of TBLL/TBLT.

To explain the underlying tenents of mediation theory of language learning, of the numerous proponents of the theory, originally put forward by Vygotsky (1978),two can be regarded as outstanding figures: Lantolf (2000) as quoted in Ellis (2003:175-176), and Feustein (1991),as quoted in Williams and Burden (1997:67-87).As Lantolf (2000) points out "the central and distinguishing concept of sociocultural theory[the mediation theory of learning]is that higher forms of mental activity are mediated" (quoted in Ellis, 2003:175).

As such, the theory seeks to explain how mediated minds are developed out of social activity. Through social activity human capacities are modified and reorganized into higher forms, which allow individuals to exercise conscious control over such mental activities as attention, planning and problem-solving. A question however may be asked as to what extent the concept of mediator differs from a more traditional view of the teacher as disseminator of information. A difference does exist. First of all, mediation must be concerned with empowering, with helping learners to acquire the knowledge, skills and strategies they will need in order to progress, to learn more, to tackle problems. It is also concerned with helping learners to become autonomous, to take control of their own learning. Again, this may be argued that this is, and always has been, the job of a good teacher to act so. However, the advocates of the theory (e.g. Williams & Burden, 1997: 68) see the distinction between the teacher as mediator and teacher as instructor as a useful one.

Second, it is to be noted that mediation involves interaction between mediator and learner, and that the learner is an active participant in the process. Third, there is an emphasis on reciprocation, that is, the importance of the learner reciprocating the intentions of the mediator or teacher. This means that the learner is ready and willing to carry out the task presented, and that there is an agreement as to what should be done and why. Reciprocation can occur at the level of acceptance and willingness to comply, or it may involve a process of negotiation whereby agreement is reached as a result of other meditational activities. Fourth, it is important to note that learner autonomy involves more than the provision of suitable materials. The mediator needs to help the learners to interact with the materials in various ways until they become truly self-directed.

Furthermore, as far as the predominant models in SLA are concerned, proponents of mediation theory are said to prefer to talk of "participation" rather than "acquisition" (Ellis, 2003:176) to emphasize the point that development is not so much a matter of taking in and the possession of knowledge but rather of the taking part in social activity. In this view of learning, then, the distinction between "use" of the L2 and "knowledge" of the L2 becomes blurred because knowledge is use and use creates knowledge. As an instance of task-based research, researchers may launch analyses of the way new linguistic forms and meanings arise out of the social and interpersonal linguistic activity that learners engage in while they are performing a task. In particular, the researchers may employ specific mediated tasks between reading a text and writing a summary for it. The mediated tasks here may include a "group discussion", "clustering", "personalizing" etc. to follow reading a passage which requires the reader to turn in a writing summary for it. Afterwards, an examination of the changes that resulted from performing the collaborative tasks may turn out to be fruitful in teaching language skills more effectively. This seems particularly of importance because" there have been few attempts at investigating the mediation that occurs in language classroom" (Williams & Burden, 1997:83).

To turn to another proponent of the application of mediated tasks to teaching language skills successfully, Feuerstein's viewpoints are required to be reviewed. According to Feuerstein, right from the birth an individual's learning is shaped by the intervention of significant others, sometimes as parents, sometimes as teachers, sometimes as gurus or as any other influential role model in any field. In teaching-learning contexts, these significant others select and organize stimuli that they consider most appropriate for the individual, shape them and present them in the ways considered most suitable to promote learning. They also intervene in shaping the learner's early attempts at responding to stimuli, directing and encouraging more appropriate responses while explaining why one response is more useful and appropriate than others (Feuerstein et al. ,1980).

Thus, in contrast to Piagetian theory, where it is believed that learners develop at their own pace through interaction with the environment, the way significant others interact with learners is considered to play a central part in the learner's cognitive development. This enables the learner to construct a view of the world and his or her place within it. Cognitive, social and emotional development are seen as inextricably linked, and the establishment of an appropriate climate in the learning environment within which this can be effectively fostered is as important as the content of what is conveyed (Williams & Burden, 1997:67).

B. Suggestions for Further Research

In the pages immediately preceding, some aspects of mediated learning experience to teaching in particular were introduced and elaborated on. Although these ideas are just beginning to be applied in a systematic way to language teaching, there is considerable accumulating evidence from a vast number of studies in general and special education to enable us to conclude that their influence can be both powerful and profound. (Williams & Burden, 1997: 84).

Drawing on the implications and findings mentioned above as to the reading-writing connections mediated by tasks, and using summarization protocol as an elicitation technique, a number of relevant areas for further research are suggested because as Williams and Burden (1997:83) maintain" there have been few attempts at investigating the mediation that occurs in the language classroom". However, before considering doing any of the following topics of research, it is important to state that this is not to advocate using each aspect of mediation for every language task given. Teachers will need to select for themselves which areas of mediation to consider for a particular teaching situation, with the needs for a specific class and context in mind.

1. Choosing three experimental groups and a control group in which a similar set of reading passages with appropriate levels of difficulty is distributed among the subjects. For each particular subject group, after studying the reading selected, the teacher may want to use a specific mediating task (e.g. oral discussion task, clustering task, personalizing task etc.) to get the subjects involved in more communicative activities aimed at using the information in the reading in real communication situations. The readers of the passages may afterwards be requested to write up a summary in English. On collecting the summaries followed by evaluating them based on a reliable measurement scale, and then by subjecting the resultant data to relevant statistical procedures, it may finally be possible to determine which of the four groups outperformed the others in reading comprehension as reflected in their written summaries. Does the introduction of reading passage (the input) and the written summary (the output) result in any significant difference in performance across the four subject groups? Why yes or no?
2. The same preceding procedure can be made use of in evaluating the likely difference(s) in performance across subject groups who are requested to present cross-linguistic summaries as their final output. In this case, respondents may be required to present two summaries for the reading they study; one in their mother tongue and the other in the target language. Since Nuttal (1996:187) has hypothesized a difference in performance in such a case, such a research may come up with findings which either reject the hypothesis or support it.
3. The same procedure may be replicated with both English and non-English major students in order to make appropriate comparisons and contrasts between performance of the two groups in terms of the reading-writing connections.
4. Another similar procedure may be replicated with students of EAP courses but with the application of some other elicitation techniques other than summary protocols, e.g. recall protocol, cloze procedure, gap-filling tests, information-transfer technique etc. to obtain relevant data for a more comprehensive research.
5. Another research plan to be suggested here is to do the same procedure as above but with an emphasis on elaborating on the likely similarities or differences observed in a cross-sectional treatment versus a longitudinal one.
6. Different language teaching methods for improving reading skills may also serve the prospective researchers as a basis for comparison and contrast of the performance of subject groups in terms of the resultant reading-writing connections.

7. Given the likelihood of differences in performance between males and females in reading comprehension, investigating the role of specific mediating tasks between reading and writing may also result in some fruitful results.

IV. CONCLUSION

Teaching, as well as learning, at higher education level is a rather challenging enterprise. Likewise, the variables involved in ensuring success in both teaching and learning are so diverse that so far no one has dared to claim possessing a thorough list to be considered the last word in the field. Historically, of the four language skills, reading comprehension and writing in a second or foreign language can be regarded as the oldest and most viable skills in both being learned or taught at educational settings across the world. However, the variables involved are so varied that an appropriate study and examination requires a comprehensive outlook. The present paper first presented the variables involved, then elaborated on the theories of reading-writing relations: those emphasizing interlingual theories versus the intralingual ones. Touching upon some pedagogical aspects of reading-writing connections in L2 EAP setting, the authors introduced the concept of "mediating tasks" as a factor seemed to positively affect reading-writing relations. Finally, some suggestions were put forward for further research by prospective researchers.

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A Survey of the Foreign Language Learning Motivation among Polytechnic Students in China

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***Abstract*—A Survey of the foreign language (English, French and Japanese) learning motivation among polytechnic students in China has been made. In the Study I (English learning motivation); participants are 200 freshmen from Shenzhen Polytechnic, Guangdong province. Descriptive statistics, correlation analysis, multiple regression, independent t-test, and ANOVA were conducted. Results indicate that: students study English for integrative, instrumental, and requirement reasons; orientations are predictors of learners' motivation; positive English learning or using experience of other family members increases students' motivation, and students with higher entry exam scores also demonstrate higher motivation. In the Study II (French and Japanese learning motivation), interviews were conducted with 70 first-year students. After similar questionnaire and same analysis method like the Study I, it was found that both groups share more characteristics than they differ in the process learning a second language. The main difference in integrative orientation is greater in French & Japanese than English.**

***Index Terms*—foreign language learning motivation, integrative orientation, instrumental orientation, requirement orientation, polytechnic students**

I. Introduction

Motivation or orientation is very important in language study, and the orientation including integrative, instrumental and requirement three models (Dornyei, 2001a). For the past few decades one of the most influential theories in second language acquisition has been the social psychology advocated by Gardner, which addresses the role that affective factors play in second language acquisition. Among the affective factors motivation stands out as a vital issue. According to Gardener (1985) motivation is a central element along with language aptitude in determining success in learning another language in the classroom setting. This view was echoed in many studies (Robin and Oxford, 1992; Peng, 2006; Robert, 2008). Oxford & Shearing (1994) suggest that motivation is one of the main elements that determine success in developing a second or foreign language; it determines the extent of active, personal involvement in second language learning. Warden (2005) states that motivation determines the extent of active personal involvement in second language learning. In other words, language learning motivation is the inner driving force of an individual toward the learning of another language, which explains why he or she decides to study a particular second or foreign language, how hard he or she will pursue it, and how long he or she is willing to sustain the action of studying the language chosen (Dornyei, 2001b).

II. Literature Reviews

A. Definition of Motivation in Social-educational Model

Robert Gardner (1985) defines in his social-educational model of language learning that "motivation" is the combination of effort plus desires to achieve the goal of learning the language plus favorable attitudes toward learning the language. In other words, motivated language learners have positive affection to the language they are learning, they strongly want the achievement of the learning goal, and they will actually expend effort to learn the language. Thus, motivation is at the heart of language learning influencing and being influenced by outside forces in determining the future performance.

B. Motivation vs. Orientation

One of the distinctive features of Gardner's social-educational approach of second language acquisition has been the orientation aspect. Orientation is defined as long-range goals, which, along with attitudes, sustain students' motivation to learn a second language (L2) (Belmechri and Hummel, 1998). In other words, orientation is a class of reasons for studying another language. The main difference between orientation and motivation is that a student might demonstrate a particular orientation, but not highly motivated to achieve that goal (Gardner and Tremblay, 1994). So the importance of these reasons for learning L2 (orientation) is rarely related to the achievement of L2 study, but will directly determine what degree of effort this individual will make or what cost he or she may pay for the learning motivation (Noels et al, 2000).

C. Integrative and Instrumental Orientations

Two types of orientation are addressed in Gardner's social-educational model: integrative orientation and instrumental orientation. Integrative orientation or integrativeness reflects a genuine interest in learning another language because of a sincere and personal interest in the people and culture represented by the other language group (Gardner and MacIntyre, 1991). The instrumental orientation, in contrast with integrative orientation, emphasizes "the pragmatic value and advantages of learning a new language, such as getting a better job or higher salary" (Gardner and MacIntyre, 1991, p77). According to Gardner, integrative orientation is the center determinant of motivation because the L2 learner's ultimate goal is not only to attain language competence but also to achieve "psychological integration" with the target culture (Chang and Cho, 2003). He also states that students with integrative orientation tend to demonstrate greater motivational effort in learning a L2 than that with instrumental orientation, and thus, achieve greater L2 competence than students whose motivation are primarily infused by instrumental orientation (Nakanishi, 2002). However, Dornyei (1990) argues that integrative orientation might be far less relevant for foreign language learners. In an English-as-a-foreign-language (EFL) context, students hardly have contacts with the people and culture of the target language. In her study of motivational components of Hungarian English learners, Dornyei (1990) concludes that instrumental goals contribute significantly to motivation for foreign language learners. Ho (1998) and Belmechri and Hummel (1998) have also expressed similar argument in their studies.

D. Requirement Orientation

To the existing motivation orientations, Ely (1986) has identified another one: "requirement orientation". Foreign language, for example English and French, both of them as a required subject in the school curriculum is a common practice in many Asian countries (such as Japan, Korea, and China. etc.), where they are studied as a second language. In an English or French as a foreign language setting, most people have little contact with the target-language community, and they do not have the pressing needs to use them in their daily lives, yet they are forced to take English or French course as required credits for academic credentials. Many students thus treat English as knowledge for examination, not as a medium for communication or an instrument for career improvement. Considering this unique policy of language education, the author hypothesizes that students' foreign language learning motivation can also be observed through requirement orientation.

Owing to the mixed results yielded by existing literatures discussed in the literature reviews, the author would like to expand Gardner's aspect of L2 learning orientation by conducting a quantitative research regarding language learning to determine if the three orientations (integrative, instrumental, and requirement) exist among participants of this study and the degree to which the orientations and motivation are internally related. Meanwhile, according to Gardner (2001), individuals' personal backgrounds and histories could play a role in their motivations to learn another language. The author would also like to explore the differences in motivation caused by learners' family background and their previous experiences with foreign language.

The following research questions are addressed:

★ Do three distinct orientations of language learning exist among EFL non-English major students in China: integrative, instrumental, and requirement orientations?

★ To what extent are these orientations of the learners to acquire English and their motivation internally related?

★ What are the differences between motivation to learn English among students and different personal backgrounds?

★ To compare the similarities and differences of motivation between English and French & Japanese.

III. STUDY I

In Study I, we used a survey to explore Chinese students' motivation beliefs, and how these beliefs influence their acquisition of a second language. In this phase, we mainly research the English learning motivation. Materials and method:

A. Participants

Two hundred freshmen (n=200), 105 male students and 95 female students, from three different classes. All participants were native speakers of Mandarin. Before entering college, most students received at least six years of experience with English, for English is a required subject in the curriculum from middle school through college or university. Some students may start learning English since the elementary school as their parents' arrangement.

B. Method

A forty-four multiple-choice survey was created for this study (see appendix I). It contains motivation scale, three subscales for language learning orientations, and background information. With the exception of the background information questionnaire, the items on motivation and orientations are answered on a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from 5 (strongly agree) to 1 (strongly disagree).

The Motivation Scale (items 1 to 19) used in this study was adopted from Attitudes/Motivation Test Battery (Gardner, 1985), which measures the degree of the respondents' motivation through three subscales: attitude toward learning English, motivation intensity, and desire to learn English. With a view to examining the orientations of learning English, this study used the Orientation Scale (items 20 to 29). Questions for integrative and instrumental orientation were also adopted from Attitudes/Motivation Test Battery. To observe the learners' requirement orientation, the paper created a subscale of three questions inquiring if studying English is important simply because they need the credits for school requirement.

The background information questionnaire (items 30 to 44) asked for the following information: the participant's gender, residence, English learning and application experiences outside school curricula, English learning and application opportunities of other family members, their English scores from the college entrance examination, self-rating of English proficiency, whether their English teachers were native or non-native speakers of English, the proportion of English language (L2) Vs Mandarin (L1) used in the classroom, whether the participant had ever stayed in an English spoken country…etc. Information in this part mainly serves as learners' past experience related to English learning.

Participants did the questionnaire in Chinese to facilitate better understanding. The data were analyzed by using the statistical software SPSS11.0.

IV. RESULTS OF STUDY I

A. *The Mean Scores of the Variables of Motivation and Three Different Orientations*

The mean scores of the variables of motivation and three different orientations as follows (Fig.1). Mean scores over three suggest that three orientations exist among students, mean scores from 2.194 to 3.915. With the highest mean score for instrumental orientation (3.915), followed by requirement orientation (3.317), then integrative orientation (2.194) as the lowest.

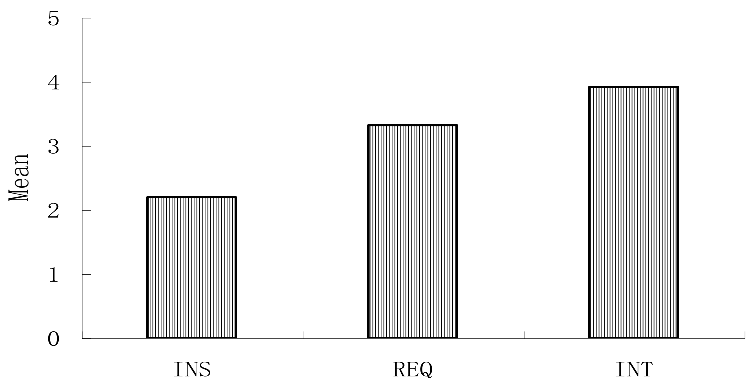

Figure 1. The mean scores of the variables of motivation and three different orientations

B. *Correlation Analysis between Motivation and the Orientations.*

The results of the correlation analysis between motivation and the orientations discussed are presented in Table 1. There is a high positive correlation between learners' motivation and integrative orientation ($r=0.580^{**}$, $p=0.01$, $n=200$), also between learners' motivation and instrumental orientation ($r=0.575^{**}$, $p=0.01$, $n=200$), and a low correlation between learners' motivation and requirement orientation ($r=0.193^{**}$, $p=0.01$, $n=200$).

TABLE 1.
PERSON CORRELATION ABOUT CORRELATION ANALYSIS BETWEEN MOTIVATION AND THE ORIENTATIONS

	INT	INS	REQ	MOT
INT	1.000			
INS	0.571^{**}	1.000		
REQ	0.402^{**}	0.466^{**}	1.000	
MOT	0.580^{**}	0.575^{**}	0.193^{**}	1.000

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

C. *Multiple Regression Analysis, Independent Sample T-tests and ANOVA*

A multiple regression analysis was used to determine how well the different orientations can predict English learning motivation. All three factors were entered in stepwise multiple regression procedures as independent variables and the score of motivation were entered as the dependent variable. The results show that integrative orientation and instrumental orientation can account for 35.6 percent of the variance of the dependent variable (Appendix II).

Independent sample t-tests and ANOVA were used to investigate motivation differences among some personal data inquired in the questionnaire (Questions 30 to 44). Significant differences are found in the following personal data: (* is significant at the 0.05 level; ** is significant at the 0.01 level.)

1. The Chances of using English outside the Classroom

The chances of using English outside the classroom (Q36, F=2.674**, p=0.01) are presented in Table 2. From the table we can see the opportunities of talking in English with foreign friends hold the highest mean score on motivation.

TABLE 2.
RESULTS OF MEAN SCORES AND ANOVA ABOUT THE CHANCES OF USING ENGLISH OUTSIDE THE CLASSROOM

	Number	Mean	F	p
1. Hardly	134	2.293	2.674*	0.01
2. Sometimes with other teachers or peers	29	2.491		
3. Sometimes with foreign friends	11	2.663		
4. Sometimes with my family members	5	2.571		

2. Past English Learning Experience

Past English learning experience (Q37, F=4.406**, p=0.01) are presented in Table 3. Post Hoc Multiple Comparisons indicates that the experience of having studied at only school has the highest score, much higher than the experience of private institutes and training school.

TABLE 3.
RESULTS OF MEAN SCORES AND ANOVA, AND MULTIPLE COMPARISONS ABOUT PAST ENGLISH LEARNING EXPERIENCE

	N	Mean	F	p	Multiple Comparisons
1. Only at school	175	2.896	4.406**	0.01	(1,2)**
2. Have learned at private institutes	30	2.517			
3. Have studied in a training school	15	2.385			

3. English Learning Experience & Family Background

English learning experience of other family members (Q38) (t=1.994*, p=0.05). English using experience of other family members (Q39) (t=2.504**, p=0.01), and abroad living experience of other family members (Q40) (t=2.025**, p=0.01) are present in Table 4.

Independent t-test shows that scores appeared to be higher when participants had family members who majored in English or English related subjects than when no family member ever majored in English or English related subjects. Results with family members using English at work also have higher score than no family members using English at work. And the experience of having lived abroad of other family members scored higher than when no family members ever lived abroad.

TABLE 4.
RESULTS OF MEAN SCORES AND T-TEST ABOUT ENGLISH LEARNING EXPERIENCE & FAMILY BACKGROUND

		N	Mean	*t*	p
Q38	1. Yes	32	3.356	1.994	0.01
	2. No	168	3.119		
Q39	1. Yes	29	3.452	2.504	0.01
	2. No	171	3.137		
Q40	1. Yes	8	3.691	2.205	0.01
	2. No	192	2.998		

4. English Achievement (Q41).

Post Hoc Multiple Comparisons strongly indicate that scores of College Entrance Examination (CEE) between 80~89 obtain higher mean score on motivation than scores of CEE under 69(Table 5).

TABLE 5.
RESULTS OF MEAN SCORES AND ANOVA, AND MULTIPLE COMPARISONS ABOUT ENGLISH ACHIEVEMENT

	N	Mean	F	p	Multiple Comparisons
1. Under 69	90	2.921	5.856**	0.01	(1,3)**
2. 70~79	62	3.139			
3. 80~89	35	3.460			
4. 90 and up	13	3.175			

5. Self-rating proficiency of English (SRPE) (Q42)

Self-rating proficiency of English (SRPE) is present in Table 6. No participants rated themselves as higher intermediate and advanced level user of English. Post Hoc Multiple Comparisons show that SRPE as intermediate has the highest mean score, followed by SRPE as lower intermediate, and the lowest mean score goes to SRPE as beginner.

TABLE 6.
RESULTS OF MEAN SCORES AND ANOVA, AND MULTIPLE COMPARISONS ABOUT SELF-RATING PROFICIENCY OF ENGLISH

	N	Mean	F	p	Multiple comparisons
1. Beginner	109	3.156	16.95**	0.01	(1,2)**
2. Lower intermediate	71	3.400			(1,3)**
3. Intermediate	20	3.667			(2,3)**

V. STUDY II

A. *Object and Methods*

Study I quantitative results provided us with broad findings about English (main foreign language in China) motivation patterns of students in China. The goal for the second phase of the study was to extend and add depth to our quantitative findings, and to provide comparative results between English and French or Japanese (rare foreign language in China).

To accomplish this, we used the similar questionnaire like used in Study I, and used the same methods to analyze the data.

In this phase, seventy first-year students, 37 students registered in language course in the French class and the other 33 students registered in language course in the Japanese class. All participants were native speakers of Mandarin. Most of them received at most one year of experience with French or Japanese before entering colleges, for the two languages are not a required subject in the curriculum from middle school through college or university. They select to learn French or Japanese based on their individual's interest.

B. *Result from Study II*

The mean scores of the variables of French and Japanese motivation and three different orientations as follows: mean scores over three suggest that three orientations exist among students, mean scores from 2.315 to 4.075, with the highest mean score for instrumental orientation, followed by requirement orientation, then integrative orientation as the lowest. In addition, the result of correlation parameters between motivation and the orientations show that there is a high positive correlation between learners' motivation and integrative orientation ($r=0.67^{**}$, $p=0.01$, $n=70$), also between learners' motivation and instrumental orientation ($r=0.49^{**}$, $p=0.01$, $n=70$), and a low correlation between learners' motivation and requirement orientation ($r=0.24^{**}$, $p=0.01$, $n=70$).

A summary of findings in terms of similarities and differences of learning motivation between English and French & Japanese is presented in Table 7 for the four aspects relevant to a second language experience that were examined. Overall, learner's motivation in English and French or Japanese did not differ in main respects; the biggest difference in integrative orientation is higher in French or Japanese than English. The summary presented in Table 7 is discussed in the next section.

TABLE 7.
SUMMARY OF FINDINGS: SIMILARITIES AND DIFFERENCES OF LEARNING MOTIVATION BETWEEN ENGLISH AND FRENCH OR JAPANESE AS A SECOND LANGUAGE AT THE POLYTECHNIC COLLEGE IN CHINA

Similarities	**Differences**
Antecedents	
Gender	
Age	
Type of studies	
High school foreign language (English is a an obligatory course)	High school foreign language (French or Japanese is a an optional course)
Individual difference	
Language anxiety levels	
Visits to foreign language environment (less in English)	Visits to foreign language environment (more change to do in French or Japanese)
Context	
Course level (English: four years)	Course level (French or Japanese three years)
Multiple regression analysis	
The changes of using foreign language outside the classroom (more in English)	The changes of using foreign language outside the classroom (less in French or Japanese)
Past foreign language learning experience mainly from higher school (English)	Past foreign language learning experience mainly from training school or parents (French or Japanese)
Family background. English learning and using experience of other family members is about 15%.	The radio of French and Japanese learning and using experience of other family members is about 4%.
Abroad living experience of other family members is about 6%	Abroad living experience of other family members is about 20%
Self-rating proficiency of L2	

VI. DISCUSSION

A. *Based on Study I*

The first question is about whether the three orientations (integrative, instrumental, and requirement) exist among the participants. Mean scores over three on all three orientations in question suggest that these students study English for integrative, instrumental, and requirement reasons. Among these orientations, instrumentality appears to be the most important factor for students to study English. To pass school requirements places second in importance-slightly higher than integrative orientation. These results are consistent with Dornyei (2001) and other researchers' view of language learning orientation discussed in the literature review, which argues that for EFL learners, instrumental orientation may be more relevant than integrative orientation. Requirement orientation is at the same time confirmed in the results. To the participants of this study, school credits are an important reason for studying English.

The second question is to investigate the correlation of learners' language learning orientations and their motivation. The results of the correlation analysis indicate that integrative orientation and instrumental orientation are strong determinants of students' motivation to learn English. And the high, positive correlation between integrative and instrumental orientation suggests that students start with the instrumental orientation in language learning may at the same time develop integrative attitudes towards the target language and vice versa. In comparison, requirement orientation appears to be a weak determinant of students' motivation. Students study English because of school requirements may not be motivated to commit extra efforts to English studies.

As for the personal data, there are no differences in language learning motivation among students with different gender, majors, residence, or experience of traveling abroad, the native language of the English instructors, or the language used in the classroom.

Students whose family members had English-related experiences, such as majoring in English, experience of living abroad, or using English at work, seem to demonstrate higher motivation than those who do not. It may be concluded thus that these family members serve as role models to the learners and encourage them to be more engaged in English studies, either for integrative or instrumental reasons.

Students who have chances to speak English with foreign friends outside the classroom appear to be more motivated than those who do not. A real chance of using the language instead of practicing it in a stimulated situation gives the learners a sense of usefulness of the language and stimulates their desire to learn that language.

The experience of learning English in school which offer mostly English conversation skills with native speakers, scores much higher in motivation in relation to that of training school, which are examination-oriented with the only purpose of helping students pass the college entrance examination or that of no extra English learning experience outside the classroom (Murphey, 2003). The results again confirm that integrativeness and instrumentality are the stronger determining factors of motivation. Students studying a foreign language for requirement purpose may stop engaging themselves in the study once the requirement is fulfilled.

The scores of college entrance examination in this study as students' language learning achievements. Obviously shown in the results, the better the performance in college entrance examination and the higher self-rating in language proficiency are, the stronger the motivation is. It could be interpreted that higher motivation leads to successful learning outcomes. Also, higher self-estimated ability in language skills contributes to the motivation to achieve the learning goals.

B. Based on Study II

Gardner's motivation construction has often been understood as the interplay of two compounds, integrative and instrumental motivations. The former is associated with a positive disposition toward the L2 group and the desire to interact with and even become similar to valued members of that community. The latter is related to the potential pragmatic gains of L2 proficiency, such as getting a better job or a higher salary. In this study, we observed that learning motivation of English and French or Japanese share more characteristics than they differ. The main difference in integrative orientation is greater in French or Japanese than English. There are two possible reasons for this. 1) The existence of power relationships between languages. Subjects, who select instrumental reasons over integrative ones, often take into consideration the economic and practical advantages of learning a foreign language. We observed in our study that learners faced with the choice between English and French or Japanese; generally choose the former as it has become a kind of *lingua franca*, placing those who are able to use it in a more favorable position than those who are proficient in French or Japanese. In the same way, members of a minority group may have different attitudes and motivations when learning the language of a majority group than those of majority group members learning a minority language. Here, case of immigrants is perhaps the most relevant. 2) The difference between English and French or Japanese is partly due to the policy in China. English is not only a foreign language, but also is a second official language in Chinese mainland. The status or role differ may yield different results in motivation. It must be noted, however, the reasons mentioned above are not absolute or sole. This is because motivation is complex and itself is dynamic (Gardner' state). Further research is required to obtain more data to explain the reason that affects the pattern of results in second language acquisition.

As indicated in this paper, motivation is a crucial factor in learning a foreign language, which is influenced by different variables: personality variables, the attitudes of learners, their learning styles, and even the power relationships between languages.

VII. CONCLUSION

The findings of this study present three implications. First, the results confirm the existence of three language learning orientations: integrative, instrumental, and requirement. Course requirements, though ranking the second at the reason for learning the language, correlate little with English learning motivation. Second, students tend to be more motivated in learning a foreign language if their family members have to use L2 either at work, or in studies, or in life. Students may obtain the positive attitudes or see the usefulness of L2 through these role models. Third, teacher can help students build up self-confidence in language skills by creating an encouraging and flexible learning environment where students can reflect on their expectations of their "language" learning and develop a strong sense of self-efficacy (Wen, 1997).

Since the sample of present study is composed of students of a college. The generalization of its findings to other populations or contexts may be limited. It would be worth conducting further studies to include a much larger scope of samples. Finally, results of this study have implications for policy-markers.

APPENDIX I (QUESTIONNAIRE)

Student Questionnaire

Attitudes toward Learning English (Motivation)

1. I hate English.
2. English is an important part of school program.
3. I really enjoy learning English.
4. I think that learning English is dull.

Motivational Intensity (Motivation)

5. I will try to understand all the English I see and hear.
6. I do not try to understand the more complex aspects of English.
7. I keep up to date with English by working on it almost every day.
8. I don't bother checking my corrected assignments in my English course.
9. When I am studying English, I ignore distractions and stick to the job at hand.
10. I don't pay too much attention to the feedback I receive in my English class.
11. I really work hard to learn English.
12. I tend to approach my English homework in a random and unplanned manner.
13. When I have a problem understanding something we are learning in my English class, I always ask the instructor for help.

Desire to Learn English (Motivation)

14. I haven't any great wish to learn more than the basics of English.
15. I want to learn English so well that it will become second nature to me.
16. Knowing English isn't really an important goal in my life.
17. I would like to learn as much English as possible.
18. If it were up to me, I would spend all of my time learning English.
19. To be honest, I really have little desire to learn English.

Integrative Orientation

20. Studying English can be important to me because it will allow me to be more at ease with fellow foreigner who speak English.
21. Studying English can be important for me because it will allow me to meet and converse with more and varied people.
22. Studying English can be important for me because it will enable me to better understand and appreciate art and literature of English speaken countries.
23. Studying English can be important for me because it will be able to participate more freely in the activities of other cultural groups.

Instrumental Orientation

24. Studying English is important for me because I'll need it for my future career.
25. Studying is important to me because I think it will someday be useful in getting a good job.
26. Studying English is important for me because it gives me the edge in competing with others.

Requirement Orientation

27. Studying English is important for me, so I can pass the required courses in school.
28. Studying English is important for me, so I can pass the selected courses in school.
29. Studying English is important for me, so I can graduate from school.

Background Information (History)

30. Sex: □Male □Female
31. Major: ____________________
32. School before entering this college: □Vocational school □Senior high school
33. Residence: □ ShenZhen City □ GuangDong Province □Other areas
34. How many times have you traveled abroad? □Never □1~2 times □> 3 times
35. Have you ever stayed in other countries over two months? □Yes □No
36. Do you use English outside the class? □Hardly □Sometimes with other teachers or peers □Sometimes with foreign friends □Sometimes with my family members
37. What is your English learning experience? □Only at school □ Have learned at private language institutes □Have studied in a training school □Have studied in a whole English school
38. Are there any family members who majored or are now majoring in English or English-related subject? □Yes □No

39. Are there any family members who use English at work? □Yes □No
40. Are there any family members who have the experience of living abroad? □Yes □No
41. My English score of the college entrance examination is □Under 69 □70~79 □80~89 □90 and up
42. I rate my English proficiency as: □beginner □lower intermediate □intermediate □higher intermediate □advanced
43. My English teacher is □a native speaker of English □a non-native speaker of English.
44. In class, my English teacher speaks □mostly Chinese □mostly English □only English

Appendix II (Multiple Regressions)

MODEL SUMMARY

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
2	0.506	0.332	0.401	6.684

Predictors: (Constant), INT,INS

ANOVA

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig
	Regression	7806.53	6	1301.08	61.59	0.01**
2	Residual	11035.61	193	57.18		
	Total	20185.46	199			

a Predictors: (Constant), INT,INS
b Dependent Variable: MOT

COEFFICIENTS

		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coeffecients	t	Sig.
Model			Std. Error	Beta		
2	(Constant)	21.456	3.528		6.12	0.01**
	INT	1.35	0.246	0.385	5.014	0.01**
	INS	1.49	0.318	0.275	4.268	0.01**

a Dependent Variable: MOT

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Noun Formation in Standard English and Modern Standard Arabic: A Contrastive Study

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***Abstract*—This paper focuses on analyzing and contrasting the processes of noun-formation in both Standard English (English) and Modern Standard Arabic (MSA), in order to reveal the similarities and differences between them and their potential productivity for pedagogical purposes. The data for the present study has been collected from different sources, compiled and analyzed in terms of morphology, productivity and semantic indications of the different processes of noun-formation in both languages. It is found that both English and MSA reveal a common linguistic phenomenon in noun-formation processes as well as their exploitation of the language by forming productive rules and patterns. The similarities are found in some general universals, such as affixation, compounding, blending, onomatopoeia, borrowing, diminutives, conversion and acronyms. Every language has regular rules for noun-formation, but some irregular forms may also exist in both of them.**

***Index Terms*— word-formation, noun-formation, contrastive linguistics, morphology**

I. Introduction

Noun-formation as a sub-process of word-formation is a complex area of research in both Standard English (Indo-European language, henceforth referred to as English) and Modern Standard Arabic (Semitic language, henceforth referred to as MSA). Noun-formation in English has the same problem of word-formation. Bauer declares that "Unfortunately, there is little agreement on the methodology or basic theoretical background for the study of word-formation that the field is currently a confused one" (Bauer 1983: 01). Thus, there is no single theory of noun-formation in English, and consequently no definite procedure for compiling the data to be gathered.

The present study is an attempt in contrastive analysis aimed at identifying, analyzing, and contrasting the process of noun-formation and its potential productivity. The study also aims at revealing the possible universals of the two languages in the field of noun-formation, and to determine as much as possible the similarities and differences between them.

II. Review of Literature on Contrastive Analysis

It is worth mentioning here, that CA is still in use and of use in language teaching in spite of all the criticisms made against it. There have been many CA-based studies where their predictions have been confirmed by empirical results (George 1972: 27). The research estimates that nearly one-third of all errors made by the L2 learners are due to interference from the Mother Tongue (MT).

Hamid (1997) has conducted CA on Apposition in English and Arabic. He conducted a composition test on first-year university students and found out that a large number of the errors were committed as a result of MT interference. Mahmoud (1995), who also conducted CA on concord in both English and Arabic; he did not conduct a test, but made some predictions relying on the strong version of the CA hypothesis. He found that the MT interference causes many errors.

Thus, many of these studies maintain that MT interference is one of the strongest variables that influence FL learning and consequently CA still seems to have place in foreign language teaching methodology.

III. Noun-formation in English

Noun-formation is a sub-field of word-formation, which is a branch of lexical morphology, defined as "The study of morphological relations among lexemes" (Matthews, 1991: 37). Noun-formation has not been tackled separately as a subject in itself, but only within the broader subject of 'word-formation, and there is no separate methodology to be followed. "There is no one body of accepted doctrine of the subject to be followed, so that researchers are largely having to make up their own theory and procedures as they go along" (Bauer, 1983: 6).

Noun-formation is not an exception to the word-formation process; it follows the same morphological rules. In noun-formation classification, there are compounding, the resultant combination of two (or more) morphemes. The meaning of compounds cannot be predicated from the meaning of their individual morphemes. There is also affixation or derivation, which forms nouns with derivational affixes. Conversion is a functional shift of a word; if it is a verb, it may act as a noun without any change of its morpheme. Then there is the process of unpredictable noun-formation; the first of this type is clipping, where the word is made smaller without any change of its meaning or class form. Acronyms, on the other hand, are nouns derived from the initial letters of several words, as in NASA. Blending is similar to compounds, but usually combines shortened forms of two or more morphemes or words. The final type of unpredictable processes is word-manufacture, which refers to the process of arbitrarily selecting any acceptable sequence of sounds and using it as the name of an object, as in ‘Kodak’. Borrowing is the most prolific source of additions to the vocabulary of English and it is of two types-to borrow the word as it is or for that to be translated (calque). The final process in noun-formation is reduplication by repeating an item with a change in the initial consonant or with a change in the middle vowel. Onomatopoeia is one of the oldest methods of word formation in English. Multiple-formation is a result of applying two processes of formation each one of them is compulsory for forming the word.

These processes of noun-formation in English may also appear in other languages like Arabic, as it well be seen in the next chapter.

IV. Noun-formation in Modern Standard Arabic

Word-formation in the Arabic language depends on the consonants, which represent the root of the words formed. Most of the Arabic words have a tri-consonantal root, but the addition of consonants and vowels gives many morphological patterns as well as many morphological categories. These derivatives constitute the large body of the language and all the derivatives of the same root have semantic relationships that are potentially founded in their root. However, there are many controversies among the grammarians about which are derived from which. All these controversies among the old and contemporary Arabic grammarians show that the Arabic language is a derivational language. Noun-formation in Arabic has the lion’s share in the lexicon; actually, this is attributed to the Kufa School, which claims that the verb is the origin of all the derivatives.

The traditional grammarians classified derivation into four classes:

- The small derivation
- The big derivation
- The bigger derivation
- The biggest derivation

The small derivation has the prime role in increasing the vocabulary among all types of noun-formation and it has many kinds of sub-derivative, which play many interrelated functions. The big derivation depends on the shift and substitution of the three letters in six different ways to give six words or nouns, which have a semantic relationship. But the third type, bigger derivation, depends on replacing a sound or a letter in the place of the other in the same noun word to give the same meaning as in [hadi:l] and [hadi:r]. The fourth one is the biggest derivation, which is called by many grammarians ‘blending’. It is not a very prolific way of producing new words in Arabic, but nowadays there is this tendency in translating the modern terms.

The other type of noun-formation is the compound nouns, the resultant of compounding two or more morphemes to form one to indicate another or additional meaning. Compound nouns in Arabic are of three types: genitive, predicative and synthetic compounds.

Borrowing is a universal phenomenon and Arabic language is not an exception. Arabic borrowed a vast body of vocabulary from the neighboring nations then and is still borrowing, especially the terms of modern civilization. Borrowing is dealt with in three classes or types according to linguistic norms in Arabic. These types are: the Arabized, the postclassical and the slang, which is used by the common people. Arabic language is also a good exporter of words to nearly all the languages of the world. The diminutive is also considered a type of derivation and it has a sub-type called diminutive elision, which is used mostly for courtship and poetic necessities. Imitation (Onomatopoeia) is the oldest process of noun-formation; it represents sounds.

V. The Morphological Pattern

Two traditional schools of grammar established most of MSA linguistic literature. One of them is the Kufa School and the other is the Basra school. The former believed that the verb is the origin of derivatives, simply because the human being apprehends the action before the abstract noun; therefore the ‘abstract noun’ is a derivative but they do not deny the existence of some derivatives from proper nouns. On the other hand, the Basra school believes that the abstract noun is the origin and the verb is a derivative, simply because the abstract noun indicates the action without any reference to the time of the action.

Both of the two schools in agreement that most of the Arabic lexis have a trilateral root (f 9 l) (see figure 1 and 2), which indicate the potential action of all its derivatives. The root (f 9 l) was used by Alkaleel- Bin-Ahmed as a standard norm or criterion for rhyming in poetry. The morphologists used this norm as a morphological scale to distinguish the different processes that the word form may undergo, in other words, what affixes are added, inflexions, tiers, and what letters of the root are shifted or deleted. Accordingly, every change that happens in the word form must be adjusted in the morphological pattern.

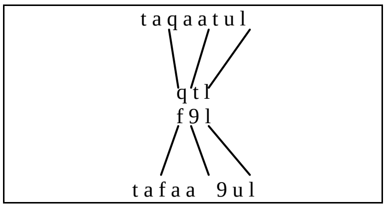

Figure 1

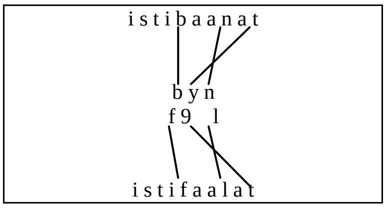

Figure 2

As it is obvious, (taqaatul) shows neither deletion nor shifting in the triliteral root. (istibaanah) shows both processes: deletion and replacive shifting, the [ya] of the verb (bayan) is deleted, consequently the [9] of the morphological scale is deleted also and accordingly a suppletive morph (t) is added at the end of the noun.

The application of MSA morphological pattern rules is not difficult. In this respect Hudson (1985: 86-7) states that the traditional Semitic grammarians have satisfied themselves with a few examples to show the manner of derivation, but naturally enough the examples are quite effective, the patterns are quite clear, and there is no evidence that root and pattern morphologies are difficult to learn. However (Hudson) on the same topic applies the derivational rule on the root [k t b] and he gave many examples which do not really exist in Arabic and it is not reasonable to apply the rule to produce many stems without regarding the restrictions of MSA root productivity. For example, the derived [takattab] and [tuku:tib] which do not exist in MSA, but [takabtab] is used instead of them. In addition, he uses CC cluster at the beginning of MSA words, like [ktatab] for [inkatab]. But he is mistaken no Arabic word begins with such a cluster, but it can permit VCC or CVC initially.

VI. Contrastive Analysis

A. Method of Comparison

Having discussed and explained the processes of noun-formation in the two languages (English and MSA), we will discuss with the similarities and differences in the processes of noun-formation in both English and MSA, without going into the details of the rules, which have already been discussed earlier. Tables will be drawn when it is appropriate for the contrastive study, or when it serves the purpose well, and a brief explanation will be given for the aspects of similarities and differences. To show the similarities or differences between the two languages, the one-to-one correspondence method is followed.

B. Derivation (Affixation)

English (as an Indo-European language) and Arabic (as a Semitic language) are completely different in their linguistic forms, but they share the same universals of language. In the following section, these universals of languages will be discussed to explain their similarities and their differences to serve the aims of the study.

1. Similarities

English and MSA share the same universals of language, for example, similarities of affixation terms.

TABLE 6.1
CLASS-MAINTAINING PREFIXES

English	MSA
All prefixes in	ma mi

Thus, all prefixes of nouns in English and MSA are class maintaining. The function of a prefix in both languages is to change the meaning of the base to which it is added.

TABLE 6.2
CLASS –MAINTAINING SUFFIXES

In English	In Arabic
Suffixes forming abstract nouns	Iyyah
	t

Although this Table shows the similarities according to the universals of language, it is not very precise, because a process of overlapping happens according to the differences between the two systems. Whatever the case, the above suffixes are similar in forming abstract nouns in both the languages.

Affixes can be classified with reference to the word-class that is produced when they are added to a base; alternatively, they can be classified according to the grammatical class of the base to which they are added. The following tables summarize these ideas.

TABLE 6.3
AFFIXES FORMING ABSTRACT NOUNS

English		MSA
-age	mileage	All the verbal noun affixes (s,?,t,m,n,y,h,a,l,w) The prefix [iyyah] in the abstract nouns as in (insaaniyyah
-ery	machinery	
-dom	freedom	
-hood	brotherhood	
-ism	humanism	
-ship	friendship	

The suffix -ism in English usually matches the suffix [iyyah] in Arabic, but -dom, and -ery sometimes match the same suffix, as in kingdom and slavery (but this is restricted to Arabic sense).

TABLE 6.4
AFFIXES FORMING CONCRETE NOUNS

English		Arabic
-age	orphanage	All the small derivation sub-types affixes (m, w, y, a, t) which materialized in 5
-eer	engineer	
-er	villager	
-ess	lioness	
-ette	leatherette	
-let	streamlet	
-ling	nursling	

The [m] always functions as a prefix, but the [t] functions as a suffix and the others are all infixes.

TABLE 6.5
NOUN AFFIXES HAVING A DEVERBAL FUNCTION

English		MSA
-al	arrival	Verbal noun [wusu:l]
-ant	assistant	Agentive noun [musaa9id]
-ation	generation	Verbal noun [tawli:d]
-ee	kissee	Patient noun [muqabbal]
-er	killer	Agentive noun [qaatil]
-or	actor	Agentive noun. [mumaθθil]
-ment	movement	Verbal noun [harakah]
-ure	closure	Verbal noun [nihaayah]

We can conclude that the similarities of affixation function in English and Arabic give a certain semantic indication if they are class-maintaining affixes or class-changing, or if they form concrete nouns or the ones which have a deverbal function. Moreover, all the derivational affixes occur closer to the root than the inflexional affixes.

2. Differences

The main differences between English and Arabic in Affixation are:

There are no infixes at all in English, while the Arabic language depends mainly on infixes to make new derivative lexemes. Suffixes in Arabic are restricted in their use to certain situations, such as the feminine marker [t] or the suffix [iyyah] which forms abstract nouns from verbal or concrete nouns, while the English language tends to use suffixes in a productive manner to generate a huge corpus of nouns. Prefixes, on the other hand, in Arabic seem to be limited; they are just six (a, t,?, in, ist, ma/ mu), while the English prefixes are numerous and varied. The affixes in Arabic may often be realized orthographically with one letter, but the English affixes are often realized with more than one letter.

C. Compound Nouns

TABLE 6.6
COMPOUND NOUN PATTERNS

English compound patterns	Examples	MSA compound patterns	Examples
N. + N.	Beehive	Genitive and predicative compound	Abdullah Alxayru-Nazil
N. + N.	Breakfast	Predicative compound	Fataha-Allah
N. + V.	Sunshine		
V. + V.	Make-believe		
Adj. + N.	Software		
Particle + N.	Overseas		
V. + particle	Drop-out		
Phrase Compound	Son –in –law		
Special group of compound	Telephone	synthetic compound	Hadramawt

1. Similarities

Table 6.6 shows all the English types of compound noun and their equivalents in MSA. Apparently, as it is seen in the table 6.6, there are three types in English and three in MSA, but the predicative type plays the role twice; this is because it has two sub-types. The similarity is only on the surface structure; noun + noun, verb + noun, and a special group of compounds like synthetic compound in MSA. The only aspect of similarity is that all types of compounds can be exocentric according to the semantic criterion.

2. Differences

The differences are obvious from Table 6.6, especially for those English types, which have no equivalents in MSA. The other differences are implied in the different semantic criteria for every type in both languages.

3. Semantic Criteria

All the MSA compound nouns are exocentric (bahuvrihi), since the compounds are hyponyms of some unexpressed semantic heads. The compounds in this case are considered metaphorical or synecdochic. But, for the genitive compound, the semantics is very complicated, whereas the English compound can follow all the semantic criteria, as in these examples:

N + N = armchair endocentric
N + N = maidservant appositional
N + N = Alsace-Lorraine copulative

4. Productivity

Compounding in English is a very productive process. If we compare it with the compounding process in Arabic, we find that English language depends mainly on this process to enlarge and increase its vocabulary, whereas this process in Arabic does not do so to the same extent.

D. Conversion

Conversion, as a change in the function of a word from a grammatical class to another, is well known to English grammarians and most of their grammar books do not neglect this phenomenon. But, for the Arabic grammarians, conversion has no place in their writings, because conversion in Arabic language is not regular and not productive.

The very few examples in MSA, which may show similarities between the two languages, are those examples of verbs that are used as proper nouns like [Ta9iz and Yanbu9] names of cities, [Ya9rub and Yaʃd3ub] are names of persons, or the superior comparison noun [a f 9 a l] and the adjunct noun [a f 9 a l]. Also Arabic does as English in converting common noun to proper noun, e.g., Osama the proper noun, was once a common noun for the lion.

E. Unpredictable Formation

According to Bauer's classification (see 4), this process has four types: clipping, acronyms, blending, and word-manufacture. Are all these processes realized in Arabic?

1. Clipping

It is a process whereby a lexeme (simple or complex) is shortened. The MSA does not have this process at all. Therefore, the non-existence of this process in Arabic is proof of Aronoff's claim (1976: 20), "that this process depends upon orthography to greater or lesser degree, and thus cannot be universal, since it is not a prerequisite to linguistic behavior."

2. Acronyms

It is the process of using the initial letters of a phrase as one word .This process of forming nouns saves time and space. The MSA did not use this process before, but lately tends to use it, either by verbatim translation (Arabization) or by creating a new word from a longer word or phrase, as in [mud3] for [mud3allad], [hamaas] and [mawd3] acronyms for political parties in Yemen and Palestine.

There is no difference in this process between the two languages. Since it is practical and seems to be productive, a number of acronyms will soon be found in MSA.

3. Blending

The biggest derivation is a synonym of blending, and it is well known in both English and Arabic.

a. Similarities

Both languages use the blend word to refer to a pair or group of words realizing their features.

Blending in both languages has the purpose of giving additional meaning. Blending in both languages seems to be confuses with affixation or compounding. In both languages, blending is an unpredictable process.

The Arab linguists classify the blend words into four types; although the English ones do not do the same, but the English language matches the Arabic classification (see Table 6.7).

TABLE 6.7.
BLENDING REALIZATION

Type of blending		Examples in Arabic	Examples in English
1	verbal	basmalah	Guesstimating
2	descriptive	dibtir	Balloonatic
3	denominative	d3almu:d	Slanguage
4	attributive	tabraxzi:	Oxbridger

Here the verb is used as a noun to fit the study of noun-formation.

b. Differences

The main difference between the two languages is that in English the process of blending is very productive, but in Arabic it seems to be limited to a few examples, if we do not take into account Ibnu-Faris' efforts in this field.

4. Word Manufacture

There are no differences in the use of this process in both English and MSA. But this process has no place in the Arabic grammar books, simply because this process of noun-formation did not originally exist in Arabic language. Even those nouns which we find in English and which are considered to be examples of manufacture have been domesticated in Arabic with their original sounds. For example Teflon, macron, Orlon and even Kodak are found in Arabic with the same pronunciation, with very slight modification according to the Arabic accent.

F. Borrowing

Borrowing is a universal phenomenon; therefore, all languages tend to use it as a way of increasing its vocabulary. Languages influence each other for many reasons, but the response is actually different in the case of Arabic and English. The following table shows the similarities and differences in the response for borrowed words.

TABLE 6.8
BORROWING CLASSIFICATIONS

<table>
<tr><th>English</th><th>MSA</th></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="2">Loan-word</td><td>Arabized</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="2">Almuwallad</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="2">Calque</td></tr>
<tr><td>The slang</td></tr>
</table>

The above table shows two types of borrowing in English vis-à-vis their counterparts in MSA. Although, apparently, they do not seem to be equal, they are equal irrespective of the different terms used.

(1) What is called Loan-word in English matches with all of the three types in MSA? That is because each of the Arabized, Almuwallad, or the slang can realize what is termed in English by 'Loan-word', the process of borrowing a foreign word as it is pronounced in its original language, but with slight modification to fit the morphophonological rules of the borrowing language.

(2) What is called calques can match 'Almuwallad' in MSA. One may ask why 'Almuwallad' matches the two English types of borrowing. This is simply because some Arab linguists define it as: "…a word of Arabic origin given a new meaning by derivation, metaphor, or by semantic shift..." (Khaleel, 1978: 219). This definition stands by or serves the translation process that matches what is called calque in English. For example 'skyscraper' is an example for calques, and [naatihatu-s-sihaab] an Arabic word which gives the same meaning exemplifies what is called 'Almuwallad'.

Thus, according to the different definitions of Arab linguists, 'Almuwallad' as a term can serve to match the two English terms. Irrespective of the ambiguity of the Arab linguists' definition of 'Almuwallad' no differences in this process exist between them, except that Arabic tends very much to derive from these borrowed words.

G. Reduplication

This process of noun-formation, which is found in English, is not found in Arabic at all. But some of the juxtaposition compounds in Arabic can show some similarity with this English type. For example as, in [bayta-bayt] for the neighbouring houses, or [ʃaðara-maðara] for helter-skelter (MSA uses it as a noun and English uses it as an adverb).

H. Multiple Functions

This process of noun-formation in English is a result of applying two processes, first clipping and then adding the diminutive suffix 'y'. Multiple function as a noun-formation process is found in Arabic, but in a different way. This process in English matches the diminutive elision in MSA. The diminutive elision undergoes the same process of multiple function, first contraction and then insertion of the diminutive infix 'ay'.

I. *Onomatopoeia*

This process depends on the attempt to imitate some characteristic sound of a creature or an object, which is being referred to. This process of noun-formation is the oldest process and it has generated numerous nouns in both languages, English and MSA. Both languages share the same phenomenon, but they have subjected the nouns they formed to their respective phonological rules.

VII. CONCLUSION

Noun-formation is a complex process in both languages, which requires adequate mastery of the rule to control and apply the process of formation. English and MSA show similarities as well as differences, according to one process or another. However, both languages have some shared general universals. This is clear in their attitude towards the classification of noun-formation, especially in affixation, compounding, blending, onomatopoeia and borrowing (see table 7.1). Acronyms and word manufacture appear in MSA, and the influence of foreign language and the output of both processes should be considered as a result of borrowing.

The general similarities that appear in both languages in affixation manifest similar taxonomic types, such as the agentive nominalization, patient noun, instrument nominalization and the superior comparison. Both languages use prefixes and suffixes in noun-formation. There are no infixes in English, but MSA depends on them more than the prefixes and suffixes in forming a large corpus of words. Table 7.1 shows the realization of each process in both languages.

TABLE 7.1
PROCESSES OF NOUN-FORMATION

NAME OF PROCESS	ENGLISH	MSA
Compound-noun	√	√
affixation	√	√
blending	√	√
acronyms	√	√
clipping	√	x
word-manufacture	√	√
borrowing	√	√
reduplication	√	X
conversion	√	√
back formation	√	X
multiple-formation	√	√
Onomatopoeia	√	√
big derivation	X	√
bigger derivation	X	√

English depends mainly on compound nouns to increase its vocabulary, while MSA depends on derivation (affixation). Arabic distinguishes eight types of derivative to utilize the process of derivation fairly well. These eight types of derivatives represent a high percentage of nouns in MSA. Some of these types of derivatives are not found in English, such as the so-called the hyperbole nouns; this may suggest the Arabs' tendency towards exaggeration. English uses the affixes, which are considered to be foreign words to give new meanings, while MSA depends on intercalation of the letters to accomplish the same purpose.

In Arabic, compounding is not as important as it is in English, and this is clear in the corpus of its vocabulary. But MSA replaces this process with what are known as 'subject and complement', and also the descriptive compound. All compounds in MSA are semantically exocentric, while English offers four types of semantic in compounds.

Compounding in English is a very productive process in contrast with its counterpart in MSA. The written form of the compound noun in MSA has two forms: as one word or two (or more) separate words, while English has three ways of writing compounds: as one word, two (or more) separate words without a hyphen, or with a hyphen.

Conversion is an extremely productive way of producing new words in English. There do not appear to be morphological restrictions on the form that can undergo conversion, so that compounds, acronyms, blends, and derivatives can undergo this process, while MSA seems to be very conservative towards this process, and also few examples are found in MSA because of morphological restrictions.

The unpredictable formations in English: clipping, acronyms, blending and word-manufacture, are not found in classical Arabic or the early period of MSA, except for blending which was known in classical Arabic in a few words. Acronyms and word manufacture are now known in MSA with borrowing, but clipping (as in English) is an unknown process. Although blending was not productive in the classical period, during the Islamic period many words have been generated from longer ones. Nowadays, MSA takes to blending to meet the need for new terms for technology and science.

Borrowing as an international phenomenon is found in both languages almost in the same way: by borrowing the word as it is with a slight modification to fit the rules of the language, or by translating the meaning of the borrowed word.

Finally, it can be said that both English (an Indo-European language) and MSA (Semitic language) reveal a common linguistic phenomenon in their classification of noun-formation processes as well as their attitude towards their utilization in the language by forming productive rules and patterns. This shows that every language has rules for forming its nouns, although some irregular forms may exist.

A. Critique

It is found that all noun-formation processes are generally rule-governed, but these rules are sometimes very complicated and some processes overlap and interpenetrate each other. The following examples will illustrate this notion.

In English, for example, the suffix 'er' as we have seen always denotes the agentive nominalization in the normal sense:

kill + er → killer
drink +er → drinker
drive +er → driver

But in the following examples it denotes an instrument, as in:

curle + er → curler
open + er → opener
point + er → pointer

We can also find in 'lover' denoting an experience or patient. We may ask whether this suffix is the only one in forming the agentive noun. The answer is actually 'no', because there are other suffixes or forms which denote this semantic trend.

These examples show different suffixes for the 'agentive noun':

return + ee → returnee
Arab + ist → Arabist
solicit + ant → solicitant

This explains that the English classification which depends on affixation to define and nominate a certain process of noun-formation is not very clear. It is better to define it according to semantic criteria, as we have seen in the MSA classification for the same process.

In the MSA classification for what is called 'agentive noun' and the 'adjunct noun', the demarcation between them is sometimes not clear, because both of them hold or share the same semantic features, especially the hyperbole patterns in the 'agentive noun' and some patterns in the adjunct noun, as in the following examples:

fa9i:l → hami:d
fa9u:l → sabu:r
fa9il → haoir
fa99aal → hammaad

These examples illustrate the duality of usage in both processes. Here also there is no need to use separate classification, although there are semantic correlations as well as patterns.

Compounds in both English and MSA have roughly the same concept, but if we take the MSA compound nouns, we will find that the overlapping is obvious with the blending process. We believe that in the compounding process the parts of the compound have to be present without omitting any letter, but some Arab linguists use it as a blending, as in the word [habqar] from [hab + qar] (see Abdu-t-Tawab,1994: 302). There is a question concerning English compounds: what rule governs the orthography of compounds, by hyphen, without it, or by making space between the parts?

The Arab grammarians (philologists) classified derivation into four classes: small, big, bigger and biggest. The last one is blending, but 'big' and 'bigger', which depend on a consequent replacement of the letter of the word and on metathesis, in the my opinion, add nothing to the vocabulary, because these words which are subjected to the treatment of generation are already found in the language. But what is called 'small' derivation is the most productive process and it is the most prevailing feature in MSA. It is an irony to call it 'small' derivation; it should be called biggest, largest, or even general derivation-this 'general derivation' was once a field for controversies for the Kufa and Basra grammarian school, as we mentioned previously. For me, the Kufa School is reasonable, because the verb is more flexible to lead the process of noun-formation, as we have seen above.

Some of the affixes in English transform to words, as in,-ism and -ist (Thakur, 1997:30). In compound nouns, every part of them is considered as an independent word. The question is "how can we define a word like racism, as a compound or as the result of affixation?" The demarcation between derivation and compound-formation needs more explanation.

Even though English and MSA share some linguistic universals, still the processes of noun-formation are not sometimes clear. It has been suggested, as Bauer (1983: 292) claimed, that "the only realistic way of gaining a proper understanding of the way in which word-formation works is by ignoring lexicalized forms and concentrating on productive processes".

B. Practical Implications

This contrastive study, no doubt, reveals the linguistic universals between the two languages, English and MSA.

Although this study is essentially theoretical, it is valuable in the field of education. It shows the similarities and differences between the two languages, therefore it can predict the potential learning problems and difficulties that the learners of either language may encounter in the process of learning.

It is assumed that aspects of similarity will facilitate learning the foreign language, especially cognate words, or if a rule in L1 is identical to a rule in L2. Actually, in this respect English and MSA are not cognate languages and each has different noun-formation processes.

There are some words in common usage in MSA which do not create any problems or difficulties in learning English, such as telephone, thermometer, computer, UNESCO, etc., but these words are exceptions and we do not rely much on them, because these words represent the process of borrowing. But we rely mainly on the difficulties which the students may face while they learn English and they do not have the advantage of cognate features or similarities in noun-formation rules. Therefore, the following difficulties and errors are predicted:

a) In affixation

The MSA students are familiar with their noun-formation system in classifying the derivatives according to morphological patterns, and these patterns work as a matrix for forming new lexemes, but the case in English is different. For example, the following errors are possible:

1- Misapplication of the suffix ‘er’ which form agentive nouns:

cook → cooker
guide → guider
assist → assister

2- Misapplication of the suffix ‘dom’ which forms abstract nouns:

kinship → kindom
militancy → militandom
manhood → mandom

These are just expected examples of misapplication of the rule of affixation. The MSA student may transfer his language rules to the target language, as in the latter examples, or he may generalize the rule as in the former examples.

Thus, what errors the learner has committed in suffixes may also occur in prefixes, especially prefixes of negation.

b) In compounds

According to the different patterns of word order in both English and MSA, the following examples of errors are possible:

Housewife → wifehouse
Space laboratory → laboratory space

c) In semantic relationships

The MSA student may use the superlative form longest instead of tallest as in:

Ali is the longest of the class (tallest).

This happens because MSA uses one word for both human beings and non-human things.

d) Wrong formation

Wrong formation may appear as in:

machine + er → machineer (mechanic)

This example may refer to overgeneralization.

Likewise, the English learner of MSA may commit many errors in noun-formation when he wants to apply the rules. For example, if he wants to apply the rule of the [af9al] from a trilateral verb, he may form it as:

Ali is more intelligent than Salih.

9li aðka ak θ ar min Salih.

This refers to the interference of language systems.

Many examples of errors and difficulties are expected, attributable to the differences between the two languages and their classification of noun-formation. The following brief points can indicate the difficulties the learners of both languages are expected to face:

- The misapplication of the rules in both languages.
- False analogy as in the former examples.
- Confusion between compounding and blending.

The MSA speaker who learns English will expect to make errors in conversion process as well as clipping, back formation, because they are unknown processes in his MT. The English learner who learns MSA may find it difficult to form the instrument noun, the patient noun, the adjunct noun, the locale and time nouns, simply because he is not familiar with them and therefore many errors are expected to be committed during the process of noun-formation.

The English speaker may also face a difficulty in comprehending the adjective as a noun in MSA, because he is used to forming it as an adjective not as a noun.

Finally, we can say that many of the errors could be attributed to two major sources, known in linguistics as interlingual (MT interference), and intralingual (overgeneralization of L2 rules; incomplete application of rules, etc.), besides other non-linguistic sources, such as methods of teaching, unqualified / untrained teachers and ineffective syllabus.

Although the Arab and English linguists have compiled and codified the rules for noun-formation processes, some rules seem to be unclear or ambiguous and some processes do not seem to be rule-governed. The process of noun-formation is an effective aid to word-formation and consequently to increasing the corpus of the vocabulary of the language.

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The Representation of Culture in Iran Language Institute Advanced Level Textbooks

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***Abstract*—This study was interested in screening the cultural references in the content of the instructional materials of Iran Language Institute at Advanced levels. This research was done on the vocabulary and reading sections as the kernel parts of these books. To achieve the objective, Ramirez and Hall's (1990) categorization was used. In this model there were eight categories to consider passages and four categories to consider vocabulary. All passages and new words of these books were evaluated based on this model. Results indicated that a) in advanced book One and Two the focus was on sentences with culture specific references and in Three and Four the focus was on sentences with no reference to culture specific background. Half of the texts were general texts related to science, biographies. The rest of the passages related to the culture of English speaking countries and Islamic culture. b) Half of the texts were general texts related to science, biographies. Nineteen per cent of the texts were about English speaking countries and another nineteen per cent were passages whose identity and reference had been left out and seven per cent of the texts were about Islam and Islamic culture. c) According to Ramirez and Hall (1990), there are eight categories to consider passages and five out of eight categories were in advanced books, so there was a good variety in these texts.**

***Index Terms*— culture, materials, instructional, category, reading, categorization, reference.**

I. INTRODUCTION

Culture has been defined in a number of ways. Linton (1945) defines culture as "a configuration of learned behaviors whose component elements are shared and transmitted by the members of a particular society" (p.32).Thompson (1990) defines culture as the pattern of meanings embodied in symbolic forms, including actions, utterances and meaningful objects of various kinds, by which individuals communicate with one another and share their experiences, conceptions and beliefs. (p.132)

Culture is related to language. The relationship between language and culture is so great that they are referred to as the sides of the same coin.

Culture and ELT are two key concepts the present study intended to focus on. The relationship between these two has been examined by different researchers. Cheng (2003) examined authentic conversations between Hong Kong Chinese and their friends or colleagues who are native speakers of English. She makes a number of prior assumptions about the cultural differences between Hong Kong Chinese and native English speakers, and investigates the extent to which these differences are reflected in her intercultural conversation data. However, she argues that study goes well beyond simple confirmation of such assumptions. She provides thorough analyses of authentic intercultural conversations, arguing that they will enhance our understanding of the conversational process and behavior of the individual participants, and expressing the hope that this cultural understanding will be beneficial. It sounds ambitious, especially with EIL, since the number of the encountering culture is numerous. It is likely to be imprecise because many teachers may not possess a thorough knowledge of the target culture. What an ELT teacher can do is raising the students' consciousness to basic rules and makes them ready for appreciating the differences. According to Kramsch (1993) since culture is always changing, it is not really possible to teach it to students. She, then, says" what language learners have to acquire is less understanding of one other national group than an understanding of difference per se"(p.350).

To explore the socio-cultural context of ESL from the teacher's perspective, Gougeon (1993) interviewed 27 senior high school teachers and concluded that in spite of official statements to the contrary, school systems are fundamentally ethnocentric, supporting the "English language Anglo-Saxon culture" and they are uncommitted to providing equal service to ESL students.

Kramsch (1993:355) reports on a small-scale experiment involving 12 teachers, from three different language and cultural backgrounds, who were participating in a three-day training seminar in France. The purpose of this seminar was for teachers to explore the complexity of culture, culture teaching, and culture learning. The teachers perceived their greatest difficulty to be doing justice to the diversity of perspectives and values that exist among natives within the same national culture. Kramsch points out that not one single national group was able to achieve consensus on what version of American, French or German culture should be taught abroad. This inescapable diversity of perspectives in turn made teachers “realize their own, subjective perspective in their choice of pedagogical materials.” the second pedagogical challenge was making the target culture” attractive enough to be worthwhile studying, yet casting enough of a critical eye on it to make believable.” among the insights gained during the seminar, the participant mentioned (1) the notion of cultural relativity;(2) a heightened linguistic vigilance and distrust of lexical equivalences; and, (3) an awareness of the importance of personal contact and dialog when trying to understand another culture. Kramsch calls this last insight an “essential reality check against stereotypical visions of the other.” She concludes with a 4-stage model for the process of cross-cultural understanding which would include an initial misunderstanding of intent, a subsequent misunderstanding of the source of misunderstanding, attempts to explain the problem with one’s own frame of reference, and finally, a (necessary) switch to the other person’s frame of reference. According to Kramsch, for the development of language pedagogy, two implications follow from such a model. First, it presents authentic documents together with their contexts of production and reception, i.e., the different readings given to these texts by various native and non-native readers from a variety of cultural backgrounds. Second, learners and teachers must be given the opportunity to reflect upon the “cultural fault lines” that underline their classroom discourse. From her own classroom observations, Kramsch (1993) concludes that the reflective component is most sorely missing as “too many opportunities for cross-cultural reflection are brushed aside in the name of communicative practice”(p.537) Her statement underscores once more the urgent need for classroom–based research that would help identify the ways in which cross-cultural reflection can be encouraged.

The integral relationship between language and culture has led to numerous debates on the role and impact of English language teaching in general and of the English language programs in Iran in particular. Ranging from English linguistic imperialism and cultural invasion to cultural neutrality, the interpretations of the state of ELT in Iran is still controversial. In particular two extreme evaluations of ELT appear in the agenda. On the one hand, English, as a school subject, is seen as representing and introducing western culture to Iranian students. On the other hand, there are voices postulating that English as it is presently taught in Iran is nothing but a representation of the Persian or Islamic ideology. This unresolved controversy prompted the present investigation into the cultural content of ELT in Iran. It is not clear how culture is addressed in ILI textbooks, so this study considers the place of culture in these books

At present the dominant trend in Iran is toward more English language teaching. As a required course from the second grade of junior high school, English is taught three to four hours in a week. There is an extensive and still growing private sector of education in the country, a distinctive feature of which is introducing English at primary school and even pre-school levels. In almost all private schools functioning within the three levels of general education in Iran, namely primary, junior and high schools, English receives striking attention and probably extra hours of practice. English is so crucial a factor that the quality of the English program and the skill of the teacher or teachers working in each school may determine the families’ choice to send their children to one school or another. Private language schools or institutes have attracted an increasing number of interested learners from young children to adults. The multiple variations observed in the programs delivered signify a great tendency to learn English in Iran, on the one hand, and a notable endeavor to fulfill the learners’ communicative needs, on the other.

So far, as Talebinejhad and Aliakbari (2001) stated, English seems to have found its way smoothly right to the heart of Iranian society, proving itself to be a necessity, rather than a mere school subject. Just as with the outer world, English is the dominant language of foreign trade, international conferences, for air traffic in international airports, and in sea navigation. Iran's relation with the world is mainly through English. Though native-like pronunciation, which is not contradictory to EIL assumptions, is aimed at in classrooms, native English speakers do not make up the sole possible interactions for Iranian English learners. In fact, English is often used for non-native interactions. English dailies, weeklies, journals and other English periodicals directed by Iranian nationals are issued and available throughout the country. The government’s policy for promoting the export of non-oil products made companies and exporters take advantage of this medium to introduce their goods and products to the world market. The Iranian national TV has started broadcasting authentic foreign programs, especially English ones. The Internet, the use of which requires a substantial English proficiency level and through which people enjoy world relationships, has gained national recognition. Iran’s cooperation with the UN, Islamic Conference Organization, ECO, OPEC and other regional and world organizations makes English a practical necessity for the involved nationals. International book fairs and trade exhibitions held annually in the capital demonstrate the country’s readiness and its dependable capacity to maintain its world relationships in English (Aliakbari 2002).

There is a serious absence of studies that examine the quality and the types of materials used in teaching culture in Iran Language Institute especially at advanced level at which the students are supposed to be proficient enough. Therefore, the major purpose motivating this study is to find out, on the one hand, whether the available English materials especially in this institute provide sufficient content for students' cultural understanding and make them ready for intercultural communication; or, on the other, whether the 'culture' taught merely familiarizes students with their native culture. More specifically, this study was interested in screening the cultural references in the content of the instructional materials of Iran Language Institute at Advanced levels according to Ramirez and Hall’s 1990 model. In Iran, Aliakbari (2002) did the same research on high school textbooks based on this model. He found that ELT textbooks currently in use in Iranian high schools are in adequate in their portrayal of the target culture or other cultures. The same approach was done in elementary level textbooks “Success-Communicating in English” (walker 1999) which is set in the United States and marketed worldwide. This study showed the multicultural nature of American society which was portrayed in these books.

II. Objective of the Study

There is a serious absence of studies that examine the quality and the types of materials used in teaching culture in Iran Language Institute especially at advanced level at which the students are supposed to be proficient enough. Therefore, the major purpose motivating this study is to find out, on the one hand, whether the available English materials especially in this institute provide sufficient content for students' cultural understanding and make them ready for intercultural communication; or, on the other, whether the 'culture' taught merely familiarizes students with their native culture. More specifically, this study was interested in screening the cultural references in the content of the instructional materials of Iran Language Institute at Advanced levels.

To achieve the objectives of this study answers to the following questions are sought:

Research Questions

1. Whose cultures are represented in the cultural content of the ILI Advanced Iranian English textbooks?
2. To what extent that specific culture is represented?
3. Do the textbooks have enough variety in presenting culture?

The major intent in the analysis of the textbooks in this study was an investigation of their contribution to the exposure of students to intercultural environment. The results of the textbooks analysis seem to confirm such a quality to some extent.

This is of course very important for such a successful institute to examine the cultural content of its advanced books. After graduating from this institute the students are supposed to be proficient in English language. This institute once changed its books in 1382 because the books and their appearance seemed boring to the students.

This study is thought to be helpful for ILI English material designers, developers of policy and curriculum, to encourage them to consider texts that are culturally effective and also language teachers who are sometimes suspended between the tendency towards their native culture and the foreign culture.

III. Method

A. Materials

There are eighteen levels in adult section of Iran language institute, Basic 1, Basic 2, Elementary 1 (El1) , EL2, EL3, Pre_ intermediate1(Pre1), Pre2, Pre3, Intermediate1(Inter1), Inter2, Inter3, High 1, High 2, High 3, Advanced 1(Ad 1), Ad 2, Ad 3, Ad 4.

The ILI English series has four books at advanced level, planned, published and revised by the Research and Planning department. These are designed based on a similar pattern and structure. Advanced one and two have the same design. Each lesson starts with section one (listening one) in which some new words are introduced. Section two is reading in which most of the new words are introduced.

The next is section three which is a grammar part. The next is section four which is the second listening in which some new words are introduced. The last section is section five which is a section to practice writing. Advanced three and four have the same design. Each lesson starts with section one which is a listening part in which some new words are introduced. The second section of these books is a Reading which usually aims to present a grammar point in real life situations and most of the new words are introduced in this part. Grammar is the next section. There is also a section to practice writing.

A close examination of the textbooks made it clear that the vocabulary and reading sections of the textbooks are the kernel sections of the books. They are to provide new vocabularies and new information. Other sections are to help students internalize the information obtained in these two sections. Accordingly, the present study aimed at the analysis of these two sections of the textbooks.

In the New Words section of the textbooks, each new word is used in listening or reading. This is done to contextualize one of the meanings of the word. Throughout the study each single exemplification or illustration for the meanings of words was considered a unit of study because each statement conveyed a particular meaning independent of the preceding or the succeeding sentences.

B. Coding Scheme

Several ways of manipulating texts are common in content analysis. For Weber (1990), they include word frequency counts, key-word-in-context (KWIC) listing, concordances, classification of words into content categories, content category counts, and retrievals based on content categories and co-occurrences. Which way suits a particular study is not an easy question. Thus, Weber (1990) notes, "by the way there is no simple right way to do content analysis. Instead, investigators must judge what methods are most appropriate for their substantive problem"(p. 13).

The process of creating and applying a coding scheme consists of several basic steps. One of the most fundamental and important decisions concerns the definition of the basic unit of text to be classified. Word, word sense, sentence, theme, paragraph and whole text are six commonly used options (ibid.).

Throughout this study, two different coding schemes were tried for the sections under investigation. With reference to the nature and the quality of each section decision was made. The quality and the justification of the choices are given in the following sections. In the following section two coding schemes for both reading passages and new words are presented.

C. Coding Scheme for Reading Passages

Observing Ramirez and Halls' (1990) study of content analysis and the above classifications, two sections of advanced ILI textbooks were put under investigation. The total number of units in either section of the textbooks was examined and their respective references to different countries or groups were tabulated. Indirect references were also taken into account. If the name of a country or group was not specified, the names of the interlocutors or any other indirect identity, if provided, were taken as clues for determining the related countries or groups.

To get close to the central idea of the passage, which is considered the major objective of reading comprehension, the whole text or excerpt was taken as the unit of study for the Reading' passages. Based on the findings of the pilot study, after examining all the reading passages, a coding scheme with eight categories was established. These categories included reference to English speaking countries (H), reference to non-English speaking western countries (I), reference to eastern countries (L), Cross-national comparison (M), reference to Iran (N) and, reference to Islam or Islamic traditions (O). Two other categories were established for a different reason. Category (J) was to embody general texts such as those related to science, biographies, historical events and life stories which did not concentrate on the life style but on the introduction of a scientist, a world figure or a man of will. Six categories were meant to embody references to culture as life style, locations, tradition and customs, special events or occasions among different targets. Although these texts might occasionally include references to certain personalities or places, due to their general and worldwide recognition classified as general texts with no particular cultural reference. The pilot study showed that references in some texts were probably intentionally dropped. They seemed to be adopted from known sources but were presented to students anonymously. Expressions like "one university research and "in one country.... an unusual experiment was done recently" are not rare. Accordingly, category (K) was decided to embrace 'Reading' passages whose identity had been left out.

D. Coding Scheme for 'New Words'

In the New Words` section of the textbooks, each new word is followed by one sentence, which is to contextualize the meanings of the word. Throughout the study each single exemplification or illustration for the meanings of words was considered a unit of study because each statement conveyed a particular meaning independent of the preceding or the succeeding sentences.

In a closer examination, these sentences were classified into four categories. A large number of sentences had no reference to a target group in any way. It was not clear when, where and by whom they were produced. They did not include names of people or places either. Such sentences, general enough to be used by people in any country or culture, were classified as No Reference, Culture Free Statements (NRCFS). They usually started with or included unclear, generic pronouns such as he, she, they and I. Some of them would refer to general categories such as, students, the children, doctors, people and the like such as the following sentence.

1) Children love their fathers and mothers.

A second category of sentences was labeled No Reference, Culture Specific Statements (NRCSS). These sentences often had no indicator of their referents. However, compared with the previous category, they were considered special or peculiar to an unspecified target group, culture or country. For instance:

2) People always talked about war. You know this was a topic for conversation a few years ago.

Another type of sentences included proper names of people, places or objects that indirectly specified the source group, culture or country. These sentences were then subdivided into two classes. A vast majority of them were classified as Sentences with Culture General Reference (SCGR). Apart from their references to particular people, places or objects, people from different culture backgrounds could potentially use these sentences.

3) He spoke English so well that I never realized he was a German.

4) If you accept the job, it will involve living in Bandar Abbas.

A fourth group of sentences included particular references. Such sentences were labeled Sentences with Culture Specific References (SCSR). For example, there were frequent references to the imposed war in Iran or particular occasions such as:

5) The 15th of Sha ʿban is a religious celebration.

6) During the imposed war many people were killed in air raids.

Eventually, four coding schemes for the analysis of the 'New Words' were established. No Reference, Culture Free Statements (NRCFS) did not express a particular culture; at least they were considered neutral or thought to be potentially used by speakers of different cultures. No Reference, Culture Specific Statements (NRCSS) bore special cultural references but their references remained hidden to the students. Sentences with Culture General References

(SCGR) included certain names and references but their usage were not merely peculiar or limited to those references. Sentences with Culture Specific References (SCSR) dealt with known groups and normally specified cultural reference about their references.

In order to make the classification and the discussions easier, the categories were labeled as A (NRCFS), B (NRCSS), C (SCGR) and D (SCSR).

IV. Results and Discussion

A. New Words

The New Words were contextualized by about 1749 sentences. As the data show, about twenty nine percent of sentences were found to be statements with *culture specific reference*. About nine percent was related to sentences with *culture general reference*. So, about forty percent was culturally loaded. Six hundred seventy three sentences were found to have *no reference, culture specific statements (NRCSS)*. So, most of the sentences refer to the second category *(NRCSS).* About twenty four percent were sentences with *no reference culture free statements.*

It is completely different from what Falsgraf (1994) found that metacultural and metalinguistic instruction is not necessary at the early age since teaching through language provides sufficient input for the acquisition of implicit culture, but you observe that in Book One there is the highest percentage of culturally loaded sentences.

Data collected and represented through tables showed that in Advanced one and two the focus was on sentences with *culture specific references.* In the third and fourth books the focus was on sentences with *no reference culture specific* background. The fewest sentences referred to the third category or sentences with *culture general references*.

Figure C-1 to C-5 Representation of the type of sentences in 'New words' section Of Advanced Books.

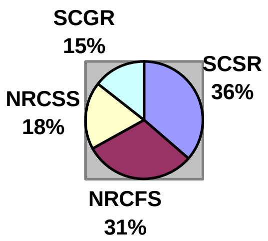

Figure C. 1.New words in Book one

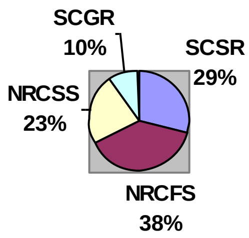

Figure C. 2.New words in Book Two

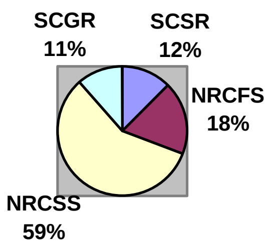

Figure C. 3.New words in Book Three

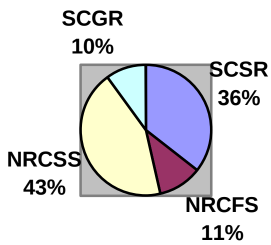

Figure C. 4.New words in Book four

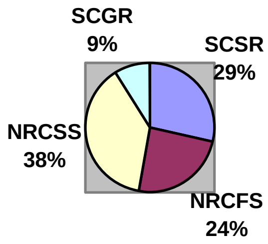

Figure C. 5. New words in all four Books

The results show that in Advanced One and Two most of the sentences are *no reference culture free statements*. But in Advanced Three and Four most of the sentences are *no reference culture specific statements*. There are 1749 sentences in all these books, 420 sentences are *no references culture free statements*, 673 sentences are *no reference culture specific statements*, 155 sentences have *culture general references*, 501 sentences have *culture specific references*.

B. Reading

The results of analysis of reading passages of ILI advanced textbooks are shown in Table 4.3.

TABLE 4.2.1
RESULTS OF 'READING' ANALYSIS

Lessons	Title	Reference							
		H	I	J	K	L	M	N	O
Lesson1	*Clothing and image*	■							
Lesson2	*Names and signs*						■		
Lesson3	*Friendship*			■					
Lesson4	*Jobs*	■							
Lesson5	*Superstitions*						■		
Lesson6	*Schooling*				■				
Lesson7	*Man and animal*			■					
Lesson8	*Shopping*	■							
Lessons	*Book2*	H	I	J	K	L	M	N	O
Lesson1	*Personal traits*			■					
Lesson2	*Man and adaptation*			■					
Lesson3	*Stress*			■					
Lesson4	*Different kids*			■					
Lesson5	*Cultural misunderstandings*						■		
Lesson6	*Stay tuned up*	■							
Lesson7	*Keep your distance*						■		
Lesson8	*TV and children*	■							
Lessons	*Book3*	H	I	J	K	L	M	N	O
Lesson1	*Calm down*			■					
Lesson2	*Cultural differences*						■		
Lesson3	*Overcoming shyness*			■					
Lesson4	*Watch what you eat*			■					
Lesson5	*Poor animals*			■					
Lesson6	*From one world to another*				■				
Lesson7	*Family*			■					
Lesson8	*Caring parents*				■				
Lessons	*Book4*	H	I	J	K	L	M	N	O
Lesson1	*Maintaining cultural identity*								■
Lesson2	*In the nick of time*						■		
Lesson3	*Managers and employees*			■					
Lesson4	*A matter of life and death*			■					
Lesson5	*Intelligence*			■					
Lesson6	*Making a difference*	■							
Lesson7	*For god `s sake*								■
lesson8	*Appreciating life*			■					

In this table, the title of passages and related categories are shown by filled cells. For example, the title of *lesson one reading* in *advanced one* is *clothing and image* and this passage was about *English speaking countries* (category H in Ramirez and Hall's categorization).

There were 32 reading passages in the four textbooks. Based on the coding scheme explained each lesson has been classified into one of the eight categories. About forty seven percent (15) of the passages referred to general texts such as science, biographies, historical events, and life stories with focus on the introduction of a scientist, a world figure or a man of will. About nineteen percent (6) of the text were passages with reference to cross-national comparison. And again 19 percent (6) referred to English speaking countries. Nine percent (3) referred to passages whose identity had been left out. Six percent (2) referred to passages with reference to Islam and Islamic countries. The following chart shows the variety of text more clearly.

The results of this research are different from those of Aliakbari (2002) in which he could not find more than two main categories. So, these books did not show a good variety(two out of eight) and the results of Ramirez and Hall's study on high school books were not so significant, but these books showed a good variety (five out of eight categories).There was no passage with reference to non-English countries, with reference to eastern countries or with reference to Iran.

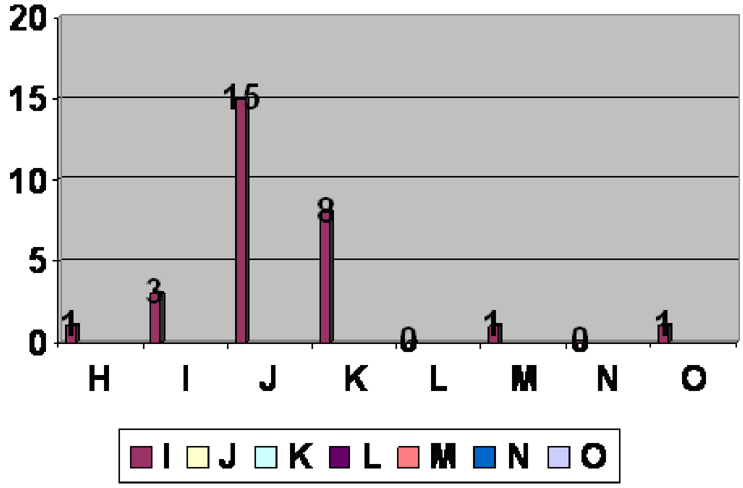

Figure C. 6. Representation of the cultural references in reading sections of ILI textbooks.

The data collected for the categorization of the ‘Reading’ passages were represented in figure C-6. The height of the bars signified the frequency of the text in each category.

In sum, the result of these analyses is as follows:

1. The results of the study signify that Advanced textbooks in use in Iran Language Institute proved helpful in developing intercultural understanding. There was no evidence that the books deliberately distract attention from culture or cultural points. The data showed that the cultural content in both the 'New Words' and 'Reading' comprehension sections are available.

2. Another major finding with the Advanced textbooks was a large number of topics (about47 percent) on science and the related fields. The instructional goals of the text were not found deliberately focused and narrow. There were almost a few texts with reference to other fields such as literature or art.

3. Reading passages with omitted identity were not so much to consider them as another disadvantage of the textbooks.

4. In these books passages with reference to English speaking countries, cross-national comparison, Islam or Islamic traditions, and general texts could be found.

5. The study found that the texts were good enough not only in the depth of cultural information but also in the range of the cultures depicted. Of course, it doesn’t mean that they were perfect. More than forty four per cent of passages were about English countries.

V. Conclusion

This study examined the place of culture at Advanced levels of ILI textbooks. In particular, two kernel parts of these books were examined. According to the results the answers to research questions are available:

1-Whose cultures are represented in ILI Advanced textbooks?

a) In Advanced one and two the focus was on sentences with culture specific references and in Advanced three and four the focus was on sentences with no reference culture specific background. Half of the texts are general texts related to science, biographies. The rest of the texts are related to the culture of English speaking countries and Islamic culture.

2-To what that specific culture is represented?

b) Half of the texts is general texts related to science, biographies. Nineteen per cent is related to passages whose identity had been left out; seven per cent of the texts is related to Islam and Islamic culture.

3-Do the textbooks have enough variety in presenting culture?

c) According to Ramirez and Hall (1990), there were eight categories to consider passages and there were five out of eight in Advanced books; so, there was a good variety in these texts.

Texts could be much better if there were more culturally loaded texts for example: texts with reference to non-English speaking western countries, or eastern countries especially Iran. The study found that texts were good enough not only in depth of cultural information but also in the range of cultures depicted.

The results also showed that in Advanced One and Two most of the sentences were *no reference culture free statements*. But in Advanced Three and Four most of the sentences were *no reference culture specific statements*. There were 1749 sentences in all these books, 420 sentences were *no references culture*.

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An Analysis of the Factors Affecting Huck's Growth

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***Abstract*—*Huckleberry Finn* is one of Mark Twain's outstanding masterpieces. Superficially, it tells a story about a 13 or 14 year old boy's adventures with Negro Jim on the Mississippi river. In fact, it reflects the growth process of Huck through adventures. His growth is embodied by his choice on independence, his change of attitude towards Jim, his moral growth, and the different social roles he plays. Huck's growth is influenced by the inner and outer factors. On the one hand, friendship, nature and society make up the outer environment for Huck's growth. They have great effect on the development of his growth. On the other hand, his own instinct and his sound heart finally decide the direction of his growth.**

***Index Terms*—growth, the influence of Jim, nature and society, instinct, sound heart**

I. INTRODUCTION

Mark Twain is a giant in American literature. He is a great realist and satirist in late 19th century. His delicate familiarity with children's psychology, his thorough understanding of Americans and American society, his great contribution to American English and his immense witty humor have won great respect and reputation among the people around the world.

Of all the works Mark Twain accomplished in his life, the Adventure of Huckleberry Finn is the most successful. This remarkable masterpiece brings the world prestige to him. It is the combination of simplicity and subtlety, directness and complexity that has given the novel its status as the American classic. Seemingly the novel is telling a story of a young boy and a runaway slave journeying on the Mississippi. However, it is of great moral passion. It deals with the virtue and depravity of man's heart, which can only be fully understood by adult readers.

While confronted with and dealing with the contradictions during the adventures, Huck is increasingly growing up. His growth is embodied in terms of the establishment of independent personality and moral progress. Growth of any adolescence will be influenced by outer and inner factors. Huck is no exception.

II. THE FACTORS INFLUENCING HUCK'S GROWTH

Huck's growth consists of the establishment of his independent personality, his moral growth and the different social roles he plays. During the process of Huck's growth, both the outer and inner factors play very important roles that are illustrated as the following.

A. Negro Jim

On the road of Huck's growth, his fellow Negro Jim plays a very important role. He is the guide of Huck's growth. That he can take on such a role is based on the following aspects.

Firstly, although Jim is not so clever and intelligent as Huck, he is sincere, trustworthy and honest, and he is always ready to help others. Such good qualities enable Jim to be a positive guide of Huck. He teaches Huck what a friend means and what loyalty is. Jim's sincerity is established in several ways. The most potent example is his joy at seeing Huck alive again after the fog separates them. Jim gets upset with Huck for tricking him into believing it was all a dream precisely because he had invested a great deal of emotional content into the adventure. It also starts to become obvious that Jim would be willing to sacrifice a great deal to make sure that Huck is safe. The problem at this juncture of the novel is that Huck does not reciprocate Jim's feelings about him. Huck is not yet willing to sacrifice part of his life to ensure Jim's safety and thus leads Jim from one adventure to another, be it on the wrecked steamboat or during the fog. This is important because it is Huck's loyalty to Jim that will be tested later. There is a distance between their ages, but they can get along well with each other. Jim appears at times as a substitute father for Huck. He takes care of Huck like both a father and a friend. In chapter 20, it is Huck's duty to be on watch, but he was pretty sleepy, so Jim said he could stand the first half of it for Huck. In Huck's eyes, he is always "mighty good". (188)

Secondly Jim loves his family and he makes Huck find a family. When Jim discusses his family, Huck comments that he is surprised to find that Jim is almost as concerned about his family as a white person. This prevailing attitude, which often is invoked, to justify breaking up slave families, is an attitude that Huck is overcoming. Jim's touching story about his daughter Elizabeth, in which he hits her for not obeying him, is a powerful indication to Huck that Jim is in fact more concerned about his children than Huck's father ever was about him.

Thirdly, Jim has strong self-esteem. Slave as he is, he never looks down upon himself before Huck. He regards himself to be equal to everyone. Once the fog separates Huck and Jim, Jim was so worried about Huck. However, when Huck comes back safely, he fools poor Jim. Jim isn't subject to Huck because he is a slave. On the position of a friend, Jim tells Huck his feelings. Jim's self-esteem gains the return of Huck's respect.

Lastly, his spirit of revolt arouses Huck's sense of justice. Jim is an image of rebellion. He is not subject to the control of his owner. He wants to get the independence and liberate his family members. Although, from the perspective of white people, it is illegal and unacceptable for Jim to escape, his love for his family and his pursuit of freedom and happiness get Huck to know that black people are also human beings, and they are equal to white people.

The above aspects apply for Jim's role as a guide. He not only acts as a surrogate father to Huck, but also provides Huck with the opportunity for moral growth. His good qualities have a positive effect on Huck. As a child, Huck's moral ideology is not completely sound. He tends to be influenced by the surroundings around him. The corrupted society pains him. Jim as a guide on the road of Huck's growth can lead him to the right way. He expresses his parental feeling for Huck, and makes Huck find a family. Through his sincerity and his loyalty, Jim clears up the discrimination in Huck's mind step by step. Huck's sense of morality comes from Jim. They establish intimate relationship, sometimes like friends, sometimes like father and son. The establishment of such relationship is on the equal basis. Although Jim is uneducated, the good qualities enable him to be the guide of Huck. He is like a pilot on the journey of Huck's growth and makes Huck drive in the right direction. The reader is left to believe that Huck has truly found a father in Jim, and realizes that color is no barrier in love and friendship.

B. Nature

Nature is another positive factor influencing Huck's growth. It provides a pure environment for the growth of Huck. Floating on the raft down the Mississippi river, the life is quite different from that on the bank. Nature clarifies and purifies Huck's mind. There is no greed, deceit, hypocrisy and cruelty. The life on the river makes a clear contrast with the life on the bank. The raft is the symbol of freedom, and it takes Huck and Jim to freedom. The life on the raft represents harmony, tranquility, friendship and freedom. Huck and Jim get along well with nature. Compared with the tedious life in the civilized society, Huck thinks that "there wasn't home like a raft, after all. Other places do seem so cramped up and smothery, but a raft doesn't. You feel mighty free and easy and comfortable on a raft." (128)

The raft is the home of Huck. He feels warmth and responsibility. This is the free life he pursues. What's more significant is that, when confronted with the dangers together With Jim, he makes friends with Jim and knows the real meaning of friendship. In pure nature, there is no slavery, no discrimination. Huck and Jim are equal to each other. They should cooperate with each other to deal with the hardship. Nature is presented as a thought-provoking environment. Therefore the great pure nature clarifies Huck's conscience, which has been ill trained by the deceitful civilized world. The return to nature arouses his instincts of integrity. When Huck and Jim encounter any trouble on the shores, they retreat to the river. The river not only serves as a linkage of adventure, but also symbolizes the freedom, equality and brotherhood that Huck and Jim are seeking. The river is a quiet and peaceful place where Huck can revert to examine any predicament he might find himself in. On the river, Huck is as free as a bird out of a tiny cage. The floating on the river provides Huck with a healthy environment for his psychological development, and it records his trace of growth. River is his destination, and only on river can he breathe the fresh air and enjoy freedom. The endlessly flowing river symbolizes a life journey. It brings up Huck, and his thought elevates. He began to grow into an independent youth from a naughty child. The uncivilized nature endows Huck with instinct of pursuing freedom and justice. It also trains his sound heart. As a homeless child, nature is Huck's beloved home, and it is like a mother caring for Huck. In the family of nature, Huck's sound heart comes into being and his psychology develops healthily.

C. Society

If Jim and nature teach Huck how to be a man from a positive perspective, society "educates" Huck how to tell good and evil from the negative aspect. Huck is born into nature, but is morally influenced by society. From chapter 16 to chapter 30, each chapter brings in new characters and adventures, which highlight particular prejudices or follies of the characters. People's greed, deceit, hypocrisy and cruelty in the civilized society are thoroughly exposed in the eyes of Huck. The evil phenomena, such as humanity's cruelty, cowardice, deceit and injustice, form a strong contrast with the tranquil picture of the Mississippi river. The strong contrast impacts Huck's heart. On the river, it is a world of brotherhood, equality and freedom; on shores, what one can see are the frauds murder and other vices of human society. The bars and shackles of civilization shut him in and bound him hand and foot. During the adventures, Huck is thrown out into a very hypocritical hostile world. He witnesses the wholesale slaughter of the Granger fords and the cold-blooded shooting of old Boggs. The casual violence is all pervasive. Such violence makes for a mood of general apathy, of complete indifference. Boggs's death focuses the reader's attention on a much more serious aspect of the society. Boggs is shot to death in front of his daughter and with a crowd of people watching. The disrespect shown to Colonel Sherburne hardly justifies killing a man directly in front of his own daughter. The lust of money cannot be resisted in the civilized society. Miss Watson could not resist the eight hundred corrupting dollars offered her by the nigger trader for Negro Jim. The ling and the duke perform their monstrous frauds for money alone and finally betray Jim for forty dollars. The adventures force Huck to play different roles as he tries to assimilate himself into each new situation. One adventure after another, Huck is more and more mature. He has acquired a profound and bitter knowledge of human depravity. He rejects the society full of evils. Huck's pure eyes expose the decadence of the society.

He sets his face against the conventions of civilized morality. The society shows him the evil side, which brings Huck to challenge the conventions and establishes his own standard of justice. Meanwhile Huck learns how to survive in the deceitful and cruel society. The people in the society have gotten involved in the old conventions, which also influence Huck's growth. The civilized society continuously assimilates Huck's pure and natural heart. However, the influence of the society is negative, which enhances Huck's rejection to the civilized society and the old conventions. At last, he gives up the social morality, and chooses to trust his natural morality again.

D. His Sound Heart or his Natural Instinct

The most significant factor affecting the growth of Huck is his own sound heart. In a notebook entry, Twain referred to *Huckleberry Finn* as "a book of mine where a sound heart and a deformed conscience come into collision and conscience suffers defeat." The sound heart makes Huck able to gain access to truth and defeat the "conscience" ill-trained by the civilized society. The course that sound heart beats the "conscience" is the process of Huck's growth. His conscience is influenced by the social conventions. He undergoes various tests and is confronted with complex conflict. Step by step he is growing up.

Huck is uneducated, coarse, naughty and untamed, but meanwhile, he is upright, kind and realistic. The social conventions leave few traces on him. He chooses to stay with Jim because as a young boy he still lacks the prejudices of the older folks in his town. Therefore he has the thought of equality and sense of justice, and he is brave to reject the traditional conception. Naturally, his growth is not accomplished in one step, but develops gradually.

As a white boy, brought up in a countryside where slaveholding system is a matter of course. Huck is influenced by the public view of racial prejudice and discrimination. Like the rest of society that surrounds him, he always derides, teases and deceives the blacks. He does not see black people as equals and he refers to Jim as merely a piece of property. In the very beginning, Huck tricks on Jim and makes fun of Jim. He considers Jim inferior in status. When a snake bit Jim due to his prank, Huck did not express concerns for Jim's safety; he was more concerned with being caught. This opinion does not cease to exist until the time when the two of them meet again after the fog. The fog separates Huck and Jim. Jim is so worried about Huck and he seeks for Huck desperately on the raft. However, Huck hoaxes him into believing that he only had a dream. When Jim knows the truth, he criticizes Huck severely. Huck is educated by Jim's reaction, and he realizes that Jim is a man with strong self-esteem. He brings himself to make an apology to Jim. He humbles himself to a nigger, and is not "sorry for it afterwards, never". (89) This is the turning point of his attitude towards slaves, and it is also the first step that he gets away with conventions and prejudice. When the raft approaches the city of Cairo, Huck feels more and more upset. For Jim, Cairo symbolizes freedom; for Huck, the prison of moral conflict. Raising his deformed conscience to decision, Huck takes off in a canoe to go and give Jim up. However, when a passing raft comes alongside Huck's canoe, his sound heart triumphs and he saves Jim by lying. This is the second step for Huck to separate with the power of traditional conventions.

In chapter 31, Huck's contradictory thoughts come to climax, knowing Jim was sold by the "King", Huck is afraid of being known that he has once helped a nigger to get his freedom. He thinks that he has done a low-down thing. Then he writes to Miss Watson, reporting whereabouts of Jim. However, thinking about those days and nights he has spent with Jim and considering how kind Jim has been to him, Huck is caught in a dilemma. He recalls the raft journey, which is full of happiness and love. Huck is forced to finally decide between right and wrong concerning slavery, and as such must solidify his own morality. He finishes by deciding to follow his sound heart and free Jim. He studies the letter and holds his breath, and finally decides, "all right, then, I'll go to hell", (156) and tears up the paper. The fact that Huck is willing to sacrifice his own soul to hell for Jim's sake shows the tremendous amount of personal growth that Huck has undergone. In the earlier chapters Huck would never have considered making such a sacrifice. This scene indicates how his relationship with Jim has changed over the course of the journey downriver, from companion to respected friend to being the only family that Huck will acknowledge. Huck makes his decision after remembering all the times that Jim protected him and cared for him, something that no one else has ever done for Huck. Up until this point he has followed the authority of those around him, such as Pa, the Widow, Miss Watson, Judge Thatcher, the King, and the Duke. He breaks free of this authority the moment that he decides to free Jim. For the first time Huck is actually acting on his convictions and morals, rather than on his desires and wants. It is now that Huck accomplishes his decisive step. This moment is life-altering for Huck because it forces him to reflect everything that civilization has taught him; he makes the decision to free Jim based on his own experiences and not based on what he has been taught from books. Huck's decision to steal Jim symbolizes the victory of his sound heart over deformed conscience.

The raft journey towards freedom is Huck's growing process. During the process, Huck is tortured by the conflicts between the individual and the society, between the sound heart and the deformed conscience. As an individual, Huck pursues the freedom; he is not going to subject to the conventions and restrains. As for the issue of slavery, he sympathizes with Jim and he is brave to break the established law. Standing alone against the society is both challenging and painful. People have the tendency to be in the mainstream, following blindly what they are taught to believe in. However, child as Huck is, when his ideas conflict with the social conventions he dares to make his own decision. On the deeper level, the conflict between the individual and the society reflects the contradiction between sound heart and deformed conscience. From the time when Huck meets the fleeing Negro Jim, the friction has tortured him between his sound heart and the deformed conscience. He wrestles with his conscience. His “conscience” tells him that he is doing wrong and that he is to blame. He makes great efforts to persuade himself to follow social training, yet he succumbs to his sound heart. He is obviously maturing in his views, as evidenced by his belief that black and white people are not so different. He is also changing from a boy who lacks firm morals to a man with a commitment to values. Thus his commentary is no longer merely descriptive, but is becoming more and more evaluative as he goes along. It is becoming obvious that Huck will not be content to stand aside and let things slide past him, as the metaphor of gliding down the river suggests. Instead, Huck is about to take a stand and assert himself as an individual and a person. Thus his attitudes will eventually bear fruit in his actions, which is the final step in Huck’s journey towards mature individuality. Through self-education, Huck gets a further and better understanding of the society and human beings.

III. Conclusion

The Adventures of Huckleberry Finn tells the story about the process of an adolescent’s growth. Huck, like other adolescents, is confronted with various conflicts and puzzles. When he steps into the society, into adults’ world, he witnesses the lust, deceit, violence and old conventions. In the complexity of good and evil, he sometimes feels at a loss, even loses his way to growth. Due to his innocence, he is apt to be influenced by the outer factors, such as people and the environment around him. Meanwhile, as an individual, he is very independent. He begins to have his own thinking. To think independently is the significant sign for one’s growth and maturity. All the factors, outer or inner, influence Huck’s growth; however, his sound heart, as the inner factor, plays the decisive role in his growth.

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On Hourglass Model of Poetry Teaching in College English Class in China

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***Abstract*—Inspired by the Input and Affective Hypothesis by Krashen, Interaction hypothesis by Long and Comprehensible Output hypothesis by Swain and absorbing the quintessence of Littlewood's teaching sequences principle and Adair-Hauck & Cumo-Johanssen's "top-down" language instruction principle, the paper relates to the reality of college English teaching in China and presents a model of poetry teaching in CE classes. This model combines organically input and output, including receptive and productive phases, namely, activate, study practice, study focus, study focus, study practice, activate. During the whole process of teaching, the focus is gradually shifting from meaning to form, and then form to meaning. Interaction happens between the teacher and students, students and students. Activities include listening, speaking, reading, writing, translating and discussing are scientifically and systematically arranged and thus make the input and output well-connected and mutually promoting. The learning style may develop from teacher-guided learning to students' autonomous learning.**

***Index Terms*—college English teaching, poetry in English, teaching model, hourglass**

I. Introduction

Literature is an art of language. Poetry is the most artistic genre of literature. To learn a foreign language well, one must learn literature in the language. Nothing other than poetry in a foreign language can offer a better way of expression or better about culture and thought. "Best thought best expressed". However, the teaching of poetry has not been paid much attention or practiced very well in College English class in many universities and colleges. The reasons may be various. However the poor teaching effects in most classes may shoulder the blame. The paper attempts to make a discussion about the hourglass pattern of the teaching of English Poetry in College English class in light of some second-language acquisition theories, especially Krashen's input hypothesis and Long's interaction theory.

II. Theoretical Background of Teaching of English Poetry in Foreign Language Class

Stephen Krashen and Tracy Terrel developed the Natural Approach (1983) based on Krashen's input hypothesis, which holds that language acquisition occurs in a classroom with abundant comprehensible input. This means if students can understand the poetry, then acquisition will happen. Now let's look at Krashen's Hypothesis:

1) The input hypothesis: Acquisition occurs only when learners receive optimal comprehensible input that is interesting, a little beyond their current level of competence (i+1), and not grammatically sequenced, but understandable through their background knowledge, their use of context, and other extra-linguistic cues such as gestures and intonation;

2)The affective filter hypothesis: Language learning must take place in an environment where learners are "off the defensive" and the affective filter (anxiety) is low in order for the input to be noticed and gain access to the learners' thinking (Krashen, 1982)

Here, I stress two of Krashen's hypotheses because being interesting and having low affective filter (anxiety) are the most charming features of poetry learning.

The themes of English poetry include love, friendship, nature, life, etc, which are interesting to college students. The beautiful way of saying things is extremely charming to foreign language learners. For example, "Beauty is truth, truth beauty" in Keats's *Ode on a Grecian Urn* and "If winter comes, can spring be far behind" in Shelley's *Ode to the West Wind* have impressed generations of college students in China.

Students can be totally "off the defensive" when they are appreciating a poem since poems offer various possibilities of meanings to different readers and they don't need to worry about keeping up with the usual "standard" answer to questions in class. Poetry discussion between teacher and students in class provide a superb opportunity for learners to develop linguistic, imagery and cultural thinking in a relatively low anxiety.

Additionally, Long's interaction theory may also be instructive for us to improve the teaching of poetry in English class. According to Long (1983), input can be made "comprehensible" in three ways:

1) by simplifying the input, i.e., using familiar structures and vocabulary;

2) by using linguistic and extra-linguistic features, i.e., familiar structures, background knowledge, gestures; and

3) by modifying the interactional structure of the conversation.

The first and second ways tells us how to make poetry teaching more effective in College English class. We should simplify the poem by introducing some literary methods and background knowledge, paraphrasing words and syntax in poems, using some gestures and playing some audio materials, etc.

The third way is the basis of Long's (1981) Interaction Hypothesis, which takes into account both input and learner production in promoting acquisition. Long (1983) maintains that speakers make changes in their language as they interact or "negotiate meaning" with each other. Negotiation of meaning has been characterized as "exchanges between learners and their interlocutors' as they attempt to resolve communication breakdown and to work toward mutual comprehension" (Pica, Holliday, Lewis, & Morgenthaler, 1989). Speakers negotiate meaning to avoid conversational trouble or to revise language when trouble occurs. Through negotiation of meaning, interactions are changed and redirected, leading to greater comprehensibility. In the classroom negotiation of meaning means that both parties in a teacher-student and student-student interaction must seek clarification, check comprehension, and request confirmation that they have understood or are being understood by the other. This process is often difficult to achieve in the classroom, given the traditional roles between teachers and students. Since students are often hesitant to question or counter-question the teacher, negotiation of meaning may not occur often. Although teachers often work to provide comprehensible input through a variety of techniques, this process does not occur, both interlocutors must have equal rights in asking for clarification and adjusting what they say. Thus Long's theory implies that learners can't simply listen to input, but that they must be active conversational participants who interact and negotiate the type of input they receive in order to acquire language.

In poetry class, there is no authority. Teachers are on the equal position with their students. *New criticism* believes that poetry is a self-sufficient object, to understand which no need should be done to learn anything beyond the text. Students and teachers are equal in front of a poem. Every possible understanding will be welcome.

III. Benefits of Teaching English Poetry in College English

Obviously teaching English poetry in College English class may bring various profits from many perspectives.

Firstly, from the perspective of language acquisition, it can improve language learners' depth of perception in the language, width and depth of vocabulary acquisition. Poetry is about the most delicate part of a nation's feeling. The usage of words is through careful and thorough weighing of poets. Many Chinese students find it difficult to express deep thought and feeling in English though they have a large vocabulary since the depth of acquisition is not enough. On the phonetic, lexical, syntactical and discourse layers, poetry demonstrate the richest possibilities for a language. Take the famous poem *When you are old* by W. B. Yeats as an example. First the teacher should analyze the meter of rhyme scheme. There is an iambic pentameter for each line and the rhyme scheme is *abba*. Students will sense the beauty of English as a language.

Secondly, poetry is a cultural composite. When a student is learning a language, he or she is also learning a culture. Culture behind a language is sometimes very complex and may pose a hindrance for students to communicate successfully with people speaking the language in the culture. When teachers are explaining a poem, it is quite helpful, though not necessarily according to New Criticism, to explain the background of the poet and the poem. For example, the Christian culture and the Greek culture often have a strong influence on English poetry. T. S. Eliot's poem *Waste Land* is a typical example to show the heavy load of cultural heritage in one single poem. By learning these poems, students are not only learning English as a foreign language but getting contact with a foreign culture. This may improve their international insight and cultural qualities. It can improve students' interest as well.

IV. Principles of Teaching English Poetry in College English Class

1) Equality: put students and the language on the same footing;

2) Diversity: various different versions of interpretations of the poems should be welcome from the students to stimulate their thinking in English and create a democratic atmosphere for them to practice their oral and written English.

3) Creativity; students should be encouraged to create on the basis of poetry-appreciation (reading, analyzing and listening), they may do imitative writing. For example, the following poem is written by one of my students after the discussion of the poem *Lake Isle of Innisfree* by Yeats.

I will arise and go now, go to a great library,
Rows of books will I have there, of great minds read;
I will read nothing but truth and beauty,
And write down lines as mighty as those by Bede.

I will have some peace there for peace comes slow,
Madding crowd far away, nothing but beauty stays;
Body may decay while eyes full of wisdom glow,
Everyone there speaks and thinks with grace.

I will arise and go now, for always night and day,
I have smelled the fragrance of printed sheets;
Whenever on the railway or in the busy subway,
I hear the self whisper there the soul it meets.

4) Autonomy: Poetry can open a door leading to the wonderland of English language, thought, history and culture. In recent years, students' autonomous learning is emphasized in China. But there are still problems. One reason is that students feel lost and puzzled in front of some much information and lose a sense of efficiency in English language learning. Poems are written by the greatest masters of the English language. To get the best in the shortest time, they are recommended to learn poems in English. Through the discussion in class, students will acquire the method and enjoy the happiness of reading poems in English. They may develop gradually autonomy in learning. And this is the ultimate aim of foreign language instruction.

V. Sequences of Activities in Second Language Class

Now the question is: how to teach poems in college English class.

Littlewood (1980) suggested that classroom practice activities be sequenced so that meaning increasingly receives more focus. In his model, activities progress through the following stages: 1) primary focus on form; 2) focus on form, plus meaning; 3) focus on meaning, plus form; and 4) primary focus on meaning (cf. Hadley, 1993).

A top-down or whole-language approach to language instruction resists reducing language to word lists, verb conjugations, discrete grammar points, or isolated linguistic elements (Adair-Hauck & Cumo-Johanssen, 1997). In a whole-language approach, learners are presented with a "whole" text (e.g., a story, poem, song, tape-recorded listening selection), are guided through comprehending its main ideas, explore these ideas through interaction with others, and then focus on specific details and/or linguistic structures (e.g., vocabulary, grammar).By means of activities such as negotiation of meaning and joint problem solving with the teacher and classmates, learners demonstrate performance before competence; that is, they participate in a more complex task than they are capable of completing without assistance (Rogoff, 1990).

By absorbing the advantages of the above theories and relating to the reality of college English teaching in China, I hereby suggest the following Sequences of activities of English poetry in College English class:

1) Listen to the poems read by the poet or experts (appreciation of the phonetic features)

The teacher first plays a tape or downloaded audio of the poem reading. I once played the audio of *Lake Isle of Innisfree* read by W B. Yeats himself on BBC in 1936. The beauty and sincerity of the poet's voice arrest students' high concentration immediately. This step is called "to activate" which is extremely important to arouse students' interest. It also challenges students listening capability. They can gain some global sense about the meaning and beautiful form (rhyme, meter, rhythm). Interest and curiosity are knocking the door! Then you are expected to go to next step for they want more and clearer understanding.

2) Reading by themselves

During reading, students gain an experience of its formal meaning and beauty. This will help them build an awareness of linguistic beauty in speaking and writing. College students can speak English but most are Chingish and prosy, poetry can elevate their expression to beautiful level. They will not only be able to speak and write, but speak and write beautifully.

3) Study of poetic features: phonetic, syntactic, typological;

In order to help students to gain "comprehensible input", teachers should simplify the language. Poetic language are pearls which can be analyzed under microscope. Now, both meaning and form should be paid attention to. Complete understanding of the form is the basis for the comprehension of the meaning. Here, sense and sound are perfect combined. Sound is the echo of sense.

4) Discussion: teacher-student and student-student interaction about the language, thought, culture, etc;

Teacher-student interaction should be on equal basis. Student-student interaction will be more interesting.

Interaction will create a democratic atmosphere in language learning. This low-anxiety atmosphere can best stimulate students output in a foreign language; in return, this output will motivate students to absorb more.

5) Imitative writing and speaking: productive output

It has long been researched how to transfer the declarative knowledge into procedural knowledge. Imitation method is a very good one to realize such transference. By imitation, students make some "comprehensible output". As Swain (1985) holds, this output will 1) make learners concentrate on the language, 2) promote learner to make hypothesis and verification towards the structure and meaning of the target language, 3) have metalanguage functions and 4) promote the automation of expression in the target language. During imitation, students can get a deeper sense of the rhyme scheme, meter arrangement, choice of diction and discourse arrangement. They will verify what they have learned in their writing and speaking and this will strengthen the acquisition of poetic devices. Ultimately, this will internalize a sense of rhyme, rhythm and meter in their writing and speaking.

6) Translation practice: This will train their translation ability and cultivate their interest in translation.

7) Comparative study: compare the poem with Chinese literary works. This may activate their literary imagination and cultural sense, contributing to a universal sense about humanity.

The following is a diagram of the sequences in the teaching of poetry in English in college English class:

Receptive	Activate (1)	Meaning
	Study Practice(2)	Meaning/Form
	Study Focus(3)	Form
	Study focus (4)	Meaning
Productive	Study practice(5)	Form/Meaning
	Activate(6,7)	Meaning/Fluency

Since the diagram is similar to an hourglass in shape, we may name it Hourglass model of teaching.

VI. CONCLUSION

The teaching of poetry in English has long been neglected in College English class in China. However, if we organize the sequences of teaching in a logically progressive way in respect of the acquisition procedure, it is possible for us to make the best use of poetry in English as an object in foreign language classes. Hourglass model of teaching absorbs the theoretical nutrition from Krashen's input hypothesis and affective hypothesis, Long's interaction hypothesis, Swain's comprehensible hypothesis, Littlewoods's gradual transfer of focus from form to meaning principle and Adair-Hauck & Cumo-Johanssen's top-down approach and relates to the reality in China. However, the model is mainly on hypothesis and practiced by myself in my own teaching. Whether it is universally effective in the teaching of poetry in College English class still needs wider evidence to support. A positive research on a nationwide basis is expected to provide sound and firm evidence and possibly some improvements or adjustments to the sequences.

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Techniques to Teach Communication Strategies

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***Abstract*—Second language learners encounter communication problems when they attempt to use the target language. One way to overcome the problems is using effective strategies. Thus, L2 learners can benefit from teaching communication strategies to use them effectively. However, teaching and teachability of CS is a controversial issue. In this paper, it is discussed that teaching CS is useful and feasible and that techniques can be introduced to teach them. It is claimed that the Bottom-Up Approach is the framework within which such techniques can be put to use and create an atmosphere of easy communication and learning.**

***Index Terms*—techniques, communication strategies, teachability of CS, the Bottom-up Approach, SLA**

I. Introduction

A communication strategy is defined as an individual's attempt to find a way to fill the gap between their communication effort and immediate available linguistic resources (Maleki, 2007). Although there are other definitions of communication strategies as well, the basic idea remains the same. For example, Faerch and Kasper (1983a) define CS as "potentially conscious plans" which are used by an individual to solve a problem in order to reach a specific communication goal. It is believed that communication strategies play an important role in the development of strategic competence (e. g. Faucette, 2001); therefore, one can define communication strategies within strategic competence framework. According to Canale and Swain (1980), strategic competence is "verbal and non-verbal communication strategies that may be called into action to compensate for breakdowns in communication due to performance variables or to insufficient competence" (30). Scattergood (2003) thinks that strategic competence is cultivated if teachers create a language classroom in which communication strategies are taught and practiced.

The issue of communication strategies has been and still is an important topic in SLA. Van Lier (1988) thinks that SLA takes place through L2 learners' active participation in speech events. Rabab'ah (2005) asserts that raising consciousness of CS is crucial for a number of reasons; one being that it leads to learning by "eliciting unknown language items from the interlocutor" (194). He continues to say that "… successful language learning is not only a matter of developing grammatical, sociolinguistic, and semantic competence, but also the strategic competence which involves the use of CSs …" (194). Also, Maleki (2007) believes that use of communication strategies is conductive to language learning and that "communication strategy training should be incorporated into school syllabuses …" (594). Other researchers such as Tarone (1984), Bialystok (1990), Dörnyei and Thurrel (1991), Dörnyei (1995), Oxford (2001), Littlemore (2001), and many more have all praised the positive role of communication strategies in teaching and learning a second language, specifically English.

II. Taxonomy of Communication Strategies

Since the 1970s communication strategies have been the center of attention in SLA research. At that time analysis was focused on interlanguage and foreign talk, both of which involved the interactional nature of human communication (Tarone, 1977, 417). These early studies focused on identifying, defining and classifying CS into taxonomies. Later studies, however, were centered on the relationship between communication strategies and language education, especially in EFL/ESL settings.

In general, there are two approaches to the analysis and classification of communication strategies: the linguistic approach (interactional approach) and the cognitive approach. Tarone (1977, 1980, 1983) was one who for the first time suggested the linguistic approach, which was later expanded by Faerch and Kasper (1983a, 1984). According to Tarone (1977), learners' linguistic inadequacy warrants CS use by interlocutors who try to convey a meaning in question to one another. In this interactional approach, Tarone (1980) elaborates more on the definition of CS by saying "… mutual attempts of two interlocutors to agree on meaning in situations where the requisite meaning structures do not seem to be shared" (419). According to her, "…meaning structures include both linguistic and socio-linguistic structure" (Tarone, 1980, 419). On the other hand, cognitive approach to CS is placed within psycholinguistic framework. Faerch and Kasper (1983a) explain that communication strategies are processes occurring within the L2 speakers themselves with a focus on speech perception and planning and execution in speech production whenever they encounter problems (212). Thus, their description of cognitive approach is more learner-centered and communicative strategies are viewed as means for resolving problems of self-expression. However, as Mali (2007) put it "The CS execution process may start off as cognitive and result in interaction" (41). Also, Poulisse (1993) argues that one and the same strategy type can have elements of both control and analysis (171). The latter is emphasized by Kellerman and Bialystok (1997) who consider communication strategies as manifestations of the development of cognitive processes of analysis and control (46).

The linguistic (interactional) and the cognitive approaches to the analysis of communication strategies can be used to develop typologies for the identified CS. Tarone (1977, 1980) and Bialystock (1990) provide the most widely cited taxonomy of communication strategies, which are further discussed below.

A typology of CS

Tarone (1980, 429) summarizes types of communication strategies under five main categories, along with their subcategories. The list goes as follows:

A. Paraphrase

Paraphrase includes three subcategories which are described below.

(a) Approximation: The use of a target language vocabulary item or structure, which the learner knows is not correct, but which shares semantic features with the desired item to satisfy the speaker (e. g. "pipe" for "water pipe")

(b) Word coinage: The learner's making up a new word in order to communicate a desired concept (e. g. "airball" for "balloon")

(c) Circumlocution: The learner's describing the characteristics or elements of an object or action instead of using the appropriate TL structure (e. g. "She is, uh, smoking something. I don't know what's its name. That's, uh, Persian, and we use in Turkey, a lot of")

B. Transfer

Transfer has two elements in it.

(a) Literal translation: The learner's translating word for word from the native language (e. g. "He invites him to drink" for "They toast one another")

(b) Language switch: The learner's using the NL (native language) term without bothering to translate (e. g. "balon" for "balloon" or "tirtil" for "turtle")

C. Appeal for Assistance

This refers to the learner's asking for the correct term or structure (e. g. "What is this?").

D. Mime

Mime refers to the learner's using non-verbal strategies in place of a meaning structure (e. g. clapping one's hands to illustrate applause).

E. Avoidance

Avoidance consists of two subcategories described below.

(a) Topic avoidance: The learner's by passing concepts for which the vocabulary or other meaning structures are not known to them

(b) Message abandonment: The learner's beginning to talk about a concept but being unable to continue due to lack of meaning structure, and stopping in mid-utterance.

A series of other strategies called "achievement strategies" were proposed. They were named as so because it was believed that learners use their language resources to convey meaning, whether what they say is grammatically or socially correct. Johnstone (1989, 71, cited in Mali, 2007, 48) lists achievement production strategies as follows:

- Code-switching and gesticulation
- Literal translation and foreignizing
- Word coinage
- Simplification
- Generalization
- Paraphrase
- Restarts and approximation
- Establish foreign identity
- Appeal for repair and confirmation

III. Teaching and Teachability of CS

According to Mali (2007) and other researchers (see Maleki, 2007; Dörnyei and Thurrell, 1991, 1994; Tarone and Yule, 1989; Willems, 1987; Faerk and Kasper, 1986), language is best learned and taught through interaction; hence, teaching CS is the recommended fulcrum by which strategic competence can be developed. Maleki (2007) in a study considers the possibility of teaching communication strategies and the feasibility of incorporating them into school syllabi. The findings of the study reveal that teaching communication strategies is pedagogically effective, that interactional strategies are more effectively and extensively used, that communication strategies are conducive to language learning, and that language teaching materials with communication strategies are more effective than those without them (583-594). Faerk and Kasper (1986) suggest three types of activities for CS training. These are communication games with visual support, without visual support, and monologues (179-193). Willems (1987) recommends a number of CS instructional activities for practicing paraphrase and approximation. He insists that teachers should make learners able to achieve communication strategy ability and not seek perfection. According to him, learners' making errors is inevitable and that they can reasonably be made up for by skillfulness in the use of CS in interaction (351-364). Brooks (1992) rejects interview-type activities in favour of CS teaching through the use of jigsaw tasks, specially circumlocution and appeal for assistance (59-71). Also, Salomone and Marshal (1997) think that teaching CS can significantly improve learners' use of circumlocution. In a study, Dörnyei (1995) found that CS training might help L2 development. In the same vein, Rabab'ah (2005) believes that there are three reasons for CS training. First, CS use can lead to learning by eliciting unknown language items from the interlocutor, specially appeal for assistance. Second, it is the means by which conversation continues. Third, CS use helps learners solve their communication problems and achieve their communicative goals (194).

Despite the fact that many SLA researchers lend support to CS training, some opposition to it has been expressed. Bialystok (1990) and Kellerman (1991) argue that one should teach the language itself rather than the strategies. Schmidt (1983) believes that L2 learners develop their strategic competence at the expense of their linguistic competence. According to Skehan (1998), using CS by skilled learners may hinder the development of their interlanguage knowledge resources. Others such as Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005) argue that CS teaching does not contribute to the development of linguistic competence, and that the role of communication strategy in SLA is considerably vague (172). Finally, Oxford (2001) asserts, "positive results about strategy instruction are pleasing; however, we might not have the complete picture because educational studies reporting ineffective treatments are rarely published"(170).

IV. The Bottom-up Approach

The Bottom-Up Approach is a new approach to teaching English as a foreign language (see Maleki, 2005) in which the traditional ad hoc top-to-bottom listening-speaking-reading-writing order of teaching has been reversed. As techniques for teaching CS introduced in the current paper is based on this new approach, it is necessary to review it briefly.

The Bottom-Up Approach is based on motivation theory second language learning. Dörnyei (2001) notes that teaching effectiveness depends on teacher skills in motivating learners. Experience has proved that fear of speaking in public in a foreign language and lack of privacy eliminates motivation of language learning (116). Unlike other methods, the Bottom-Up Approach attempts to develop, maintain, and increase the motivation needed in language classrooms (Maleki, 2005, 5).

The Bottom-Up Approach gives prominence to writing; however, it views language as a total entity. As Maleki (2005) states, writing provides privacy and self-negotiation for learners, and becomes a channel through which learners overcome their fear and anxiety, achieve some degree of autonomy, and kill causes of demotivation (7). The actual method starts with the teacher specifying a type. A type includes the things that surround learners from without and within, from every day life chores to emotional changes, merry-making and qualms. For the type to be specifically targeted, learners need certain specialized and general vocabulary. It is the job of the teacher to supply the necessary words. The words are presented in written form on the blackboard or an overhead projector may be used. Then, they ask learners to have a pen and paper handy. Learners should write either the answers to certain questions, or should follow orders in writing. Once all the questions and answers are complete, and all the orders are followed and done in writing, the teacher calls on learners to sit back and think for a while. The purpose is to allow learners to negotiate with the self and arrange the answers and orders in the form of a well-organized and well-thought passage. Next, come checks and balances. The teacher asks learners to exchange their compositions with their neighbours. Again, the teacher calls for learners' silence. They sit back and check out their neighbour's work very carefully. Once finished with the latter, they ask students to read their neighbours' compositions loudly. While they read, the teacher corrects them for their pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary, and style errors. Immediately after smoke is cleared, learners should present their own compositions orally with other students listening attentively. At this stage, students are asked to take notes. From the notes taken from a read composition of their own choice, they may form questions, and the student in point may answer them (Maleki, 2005, 8).

V. Techniques for Teaching CS

Techniques introduced here will be used to teach paraphrase, transfer, appeal for assistance, and mime. The Bottom-Up Approach is the framework within which the techniques are put to use.

A. Paraphrase

1. The teacher follows procedures below to teach approximation strategy:

(a) Divide the class into teams of four or five students

(b) Ask students to have pen and paper handy

(c) List target language vocabulary on the blackboard which share semantic features with the main items to be taught during the session

(d) Write examples of vocabulary items identified with their approximations

(e) Ask students to identify main items according to their approximations listed on the blackboard

(f) Ask members of each team to compare their identified items with those of other team members and to resolve their differences on discussion

(g) Ask a member of each team to read out the identified items agreed upon within the team

(h) Have the class discuss, compare, and prepare the final list of the main items

(i) write the final list on the blackboard for all class to see

(j) Have each team write two sentences one with the main item and the other with its approximation

(k) Have teams read their written sentences and correct them

Commentary

The technique introduced to teach approximation strategy helps learners to find replacement for the vocabulary they either don't know or they have them in their passive reserve but are not able to retrieve them. This, in turn, will help students learn to hold their ground and do not stop the conversation. Engaged in approximation strategy practice within the Bottom-Up Approach, learners feel free to negotiate with the self and negotiate meaning with the team-mates and others by taking their time and eliminating their fear and anxiety, two major obstacles to foreign language learning.

2. The teacher follows procedures below to teach word coinage strategy:

(a) Ask the class to sit back and watch you drawing on the blackboard with pen and paper ready

(b) Draw sketches of ten objects on the blackboard, e. g. a safety pin, a straight pin, a clothes pin, a bobby pin, a needle, a paper clip, etc.

(c) Ask students to write names of the objects drawn on the blackboard

(d) Allow them time to think

(e) Have learners exchange papers

(f) Allow them to correct each other's definitions

(g) Have them discuss the corrected definitions in pairs

(h) Get each of them read out their definitions with others listening attentively

(i) Choose definitions closest in meaning to the main names

(j) Have students write the definitions for later use

(k) Dub the practice word coinage for the students to learn how they can overcome problems with object names

Commentary

Most language learners have problems with communicating new concepts. Word coinage is an important strategy to bypass the barriers they face. The proposed technique is very effective in forcing the learners to think and invent definitions for the objects or concepts for which they have no name or word in long memory. The Bottom-Up Approach putting emphasis on writing removes learners' stress and anxiety and provides them with enough time to think and invent new structures. It seems Dörnyei (2001) is right in saying that teachers should help learners maintain and increase self-confidence by fostering the belief that competence is a changeable aspect of SLA development and that favourable self-conception of L2 competence can be promoted by providing regular experiences of success. That a learner is able to give names to objects and concepts is a great success in developing their strategic competence.

3. The teacher follows procedures below to teach circumlocution strategy:

(a) Ask the class to think of a number of objects and concepts whose names and definitions are unknown to them

(b) Ask students to write the names and definitions of the objects and concepts in their native language

(c) Have the students describe in writing the characteristics or elements of the objects and concepts in English

(d) Give them enough time to perform stage (c)

(e) Ask them to read their descriptions loudly while others listening

(f) Ask them to identify the objects or concepts in their native language

(g) Write the names or definitions of the objects or concepts in English on the blackboard

(h) Ask students to write the objects or concepts in English in their notebooks with original descriptions opposite to them

(i) Repeat the process for each student

Commentary

Teaching circumlocution strategy within the Bottom-Up Approach has many benefits. First, students learn to describe objects and concepts. Second, they practice writing in English. Third, they learn new words and structures during circumlocution drill. Fourth, they learn to keep their ground in communication even if they face objects or concepts for which they have no known names or definitions.

B. Transfer

1. The teacher follows procedures below to teach literal translation strategy:

(a) Divide the class into teams of 5

(b) Write 5 idiomatic expressions or expressions little known to the students in the form of sentences on the blackboard

(c) Give the meanings of the expressions in the students' native language or explain them in a way that they can understand their meaning

(d) Ask the teams to translate the sentences on the blackboard literally according to your explanation

(e) Give them enough time to write their translations

(f) Ask a member of each team to read out their translated sentences

(g) Listen and correct them orally

(h) Choose the best of the translated sentences and write them on the blackboard

(i) Ask the students to take notes of them and use them in communication whenever needed

(j) Repeat the process using five new expressions

Commentary

Transfer strategy is inevitable in the course of second language learning. If used wrongly, the transferred items might get fossilized. Such fossilized structures will be hard to eliminate later. Therefore, teaching students to use transfer strategy in communication is of utmost importance.

2. The teacher follows procedures below to teach language switch strategy:

(a) Collect as many borrowed words as you can from the target language found in the students' native tongue

(b) Determine the phonological changes in the words

(c) Transcribe the words according to the phonological changes in the students' native language

(d) List the words in three columns: target language phonology, native language phonology, transcriptions of native language phonological forms

(e) Make copies of the list and distribute them among the students

(f) Practice pronunciation and the meaning content of the words, as some words may even have changed their meanings in the native language

(g) Ask students to be on their guard in using such words in communication

Commentary

Language switch is, in fact, a negative transfer which may hinder rather than facilitate language learning; therefore, it must be pre-empted. The technique introduced can help language switch problem to solve.

C. Appeal for Assistance

The teacher follows procedures below to teach appeal for assistance strategy:

(a) Divide the class into four or five teams

(b) Use identifying games for each team to practice questions like "What's this/that?; What are these/those?; Who's this/that?; How do you say … in English?; etc."

(c) Have the students in each team hold up or touch or point to objects or other students to ask the questions

(d) Get students in other teams answer the questions in writing

(e) Ask representatives of each team read out their answers

(f) Have those who answer correctly ask a similar question in return

(g) Use other types of games such as guessing games, unfinished drawings, and wrapped objects to reinforce appeal for assistance strategy

Commentary

Appeal for assistance is probably the most common communication strategy used by learners and found in textbooks (see Maleki 2007; Faucette, 2001). Faucette (2001) thinks that appeal for assistance strategy is useful for lower-proficiency second language learners which allows them to immediately participate in conversation. The technique introduced here will help speakers hold the floor and find correct answers for the questions they face.

D. Mime

The teacher follows procedures below to teach mime strategy:

(a) Divide the class into teams of four

(b) Give each team a list of scrambled words

(c) Give them time to rearrange each scrambled word into at least one correct word

(d) Ask members of each team to mime each rearranged word while members of other teams guess the word

(e) Ask the latter to write the guessed words

(f) Have them read out their guessed words

(g) Get them compare the words with the original mime and correct them

(h) Repeat the round with other rearranged words

Commentary

It is true that mime is universal. If learners learn to mime when they come to crossroads, they will be able to continue the conversation and will not be deterred by fear of paucity of linguistic competence. The latter is a major demotivating factor which sometimes terminates plans to learn a second or a foreign language.

E. Avoidance

Avoidance strategy is defined as an alternative to giving up. Therefore, it is not recommended as a useful strategy which will lead to learning (Faerch and Kasper, 1983a). Language teachers must be on their guard and be ready to help learners whenever they feel students try to avoid or abandon a topic or a massage. Avoidance is due to poor linguistic competence or weak strategic competence. If allowed to take root, avoidance strategy will kill innovative thinking of the learner. Teaching within the Bottom-Up Approach is a way to help learners avoid avoidance strategy and learn to come to terms with second language learning problems.

VI. CONCLUSION

Teaching communication strategies is controversial in two ways: whether to teach them or not; if yes, how? In what was discussed in the previous sections, it was argued that teaching CS is not only useful, but also feasible. As communication strategies are conducive to language learning, techniques were introduced to teach them. Most of the techniques presented here are pinned down on the Bottom-Up Approach, which is a new approach to teaching English as a foreign/second language.

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Cultural Awareness in Dealing with the Color "Red"—With Reference to the Translation of *Hong Lou Meng*[*]

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***Abstract*—Through gathering, analyzing and evaluating some cases of the Chinese 红's translations from the translation of Hong Lou Meng by Hawkes , this paper aims to bring the issue of the significance of the cultural awareness to the forefront.**

***Index Terms*—"red" in translation, cultural awareness, translation loss**

I. Introduction

As pointed out by Bhabha's (2004:326), "Translation is the performative nature of cultural communication". "What is studied is the text embedded in its network of both source and target cultural signs …"(Bassnett, 2001:123) Actually, their insightful observations lead us to a greater awareness of what could be covered by translation studies. It is well justified in the announcement made by Gentzler (2003:194): "Translation studies scholarship over the last three decades has built up a critical mass of scholarship, date that any cultural studies scholars investigating intercultural movement should consult".

Based on this understanding, we attempt in this paper to "return to culture itself" in the light of translation. We shall establish a contrastive analysis of different versions of the color "red" in a Chinese classic work, Hong Lou Meng written by Cao Xue-qin, and its translated version the Story of the Stone by Hawkes. We are seeking the cultural effects underlying the translated texts, which results from the translator's cultural background.

II. Difference of the Attitude Toward the Color "Red"

People living in China and the West have totally different view on the color "red". As the representative color of China, Chinese people like "red" best, which is used to be in a positive sense. They connected the color of red with anything happy, lucky and prosperous. In the English culture, however, though Red's positive connotations include: love (red roses and red hearts), festivity (Christmas, Santa' Claus), the red color is not always associated with something joyful. The positive use of "red" in English is very limited. Instead, it is often used in a negative sense. According to Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English (2003), "red" has the following meaning:

adj. having the color or blood

n. the color of blood

Also, similar definitions are provided by some other authorative dictionaries.

n. a color whose hue resembles that of blood or of the ruby or is that of the long-wave extreme of the visible spectrum (Merriam-Webster's 11th Collegiate Dictionary, 2003)

adj. Something that is red is the colour of blood or fire.(Collins Cobuild Lexicon , 2001)

adj. having or being of the color red or any of its hues

n. a primary color, or any of a spread of colors at the lower end of the visible spectrum, varying in hue from that of blood to pale rose or pink (Webster's New World Dictionary & Thesaurus, 1997)

Obviously, the connotations of the color "red" do not correspond across Chinese and English. In Chinese, the color "red" have a positive connotation while in English it has a clear indication of blood and connected with "sanguineness", "danger" and "violence" in the minds of native speakers of English.

Culturally, owing to the influence of Christianity, native speakers of English are not worshippers of the sun, which represents the color of red, as the Chinese, because God has been the only Lord for them to worship. "According to Bible, when Adam and Eve, the alleged ancestors of human beings, committed the original sin, God said to Eve:" I will greatly increase your pains in childbearing; in pain you shall bring forth children." The great pain that a woman suffers in giving birth to a child is bleeding freely, and that may be the reason why "red" has the meaning of danger and warning for English-speaking people."

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The difference of the attitude towards the color "red" is illustrated by Hawkes (1973-1986) in the preface of the translated the Story of the Stone:

One bit of imagery which Stone-enthusiasts will miss in my translation is the pervading redness of the Chinese novel. One of its Chinese titles is red, to begin with, and red as a symbol--sometimes of spring, sometimes of youth, sometimes of good fortune of prosperity--recurs again and again throughout it. Unfortunately--apart from the rosy cheeks and vermeil lip of youth--redness has no such connotations in English and I have found that the Chinese reds have tended to turn into English golds or greens ('spring the green spring' and 'golden girls and boys' and so forth). I am aware that there is some sort of loss here, but have lacked the ingenuity to avert it.

III. Translation Loss

As Fairclough points out: "Language is a socially and historically situated mode of action in a dialectical relationship with other facets of the social"(1995:54), "the wider social and cultural contextual matrix must be attended to because it shape discourse practices in important ways and is itself cumulatively shaped by them" (1995:50). Hervey and Higgins explain that:

This is due to the fact that the backgrounds, shared knowledge, cultural assumptions and learnt responses of monolingual TT speakers are inevitably culture-bound. Given this fact, SL speakers' responses to the SL are never likely to be replicated exactly by effects on members of a different culture. Even a small cultural distance between the ST audience and the TT audience is bound to produce a fundamental dissimilarity between the effects of the ST and those of the TT-such effects can at best be similar in a global and limited sense; they can never be 'the same'. (1992:23)

Hence, translation loss is an unavoidable fact which many people find that they have to deal with when seeking strategies for their translation practices. As Hervey and Higgins points out:

The transfer of meaning from ST to TT necessarily involves a certain degree of translation loss; that is, a TT will always lack certain culturally relevant features that are present in the ST. An important corollary of this concept of translation loss is that it embraces any failure to replicate a ST exactly, whether this involves losing features in the TT or adding them. Translation loss is inevitable, even when the ST gains in, say, economy, vividness, or avoidance of ambiguity. (1992:24-25)

IV. Red in Translation

When Hawkes encounter the Chinese "红", or "red' in translating Hong Lou Meng, he employs communication strategies to compensate for TT readers' lack of cultural knowledge about the Chinese "红" and to expand their resources to arrive at a communicative goal. The strategies include abandonment and avoidance of the use of "red" and paraphrase or use of a synonym. He makes every effort to bridge the cultural gap by restructuring the message the Chinese "红" conveys.

Let us try to analyze the translation of the Chinese "红", or "red' in the following utterances excerpted from Hong Lou Meng.

A. Use of a Synonym

Example 1

薛姨妈道："我的儿，你们女孩儿家那里知道?自古道：'千里姻缘一线牵'。管姻缘的有一位月下老儿，预先注定，暗里只用一根红丝，把这两个人的脚绊住。凭你两家那怕隔着海呢，若有姻缘的，终久有机会作成了夫妇。这一件事，都是出人意料之外。(第五十七回)

Hawkes: 'My child,' said Aunt Xue, 'you are too young to understand these things. Old folk talk about "the unseen thread that binds". They say that marriages are decided by an Old Man Under the Moon who joins future couples together by tying them round the ankles with a scarlet thread, and once he's done that, it doesn't matter how far apart they are, even if there are oceans between them, sooner or later something will happen to bring them together and they will end up husband and wife. These things are quite unpredictable.

Here, Hawkes uses "a scarlet thread" to translate "红丝" instead of "a red thread" since in English "red" has a clear indication of blood while its synonym "scarlet" represents something bright red, which approximates what the Chinese "红".

Example 2

说着，便伸手掣出一双男子的绵袜并一双缎鞋，又有一个小包袱。打开看时，里面是一个同心如意，并一个字帖儿。一总递给凤姐。凤姐因理家久了，每每看帖看帐，也颇识得几个字了。那帖是大红双喜笺，便看上面写道：(第七十四回)

Hawkes: She stretched her own hand out as she said this and, diving into the trunk, fetched out, successively, a pair of men's padded socks, a pair of men's satin slippers, and a packet containing a little loving Couple ornament and a letter. All these things she handed over to Xi-feng. From handling so many bills, invoices and accounts during her years as a household manager, Xi-feng had learned to recognize quite a large number of characters and was able to make out the whole of the crude missive, written on pink Double Happiness notepaper, that Zhou Rui's wife had just thrust into her hand.

Similarly, here Hawkes change the Chinese “红” into “pink’ since pink refers to a pale red color not the bleeding color, which corresponds with the actual color of the Chinese Double Happiness notepaper.

Example 3

岂道红绡帐里，公子情深；始信黄土陇中，女儿命薄! (第七十八回)

Hawkes: At such times must the young man in his crimson-curtained bed seem most cruelly afflicted; at such times must the maiden beneath the yellow earth seem most cruelly ill-fated.

Here, to avoid the connotation of blood, Hawkes translate “红绡帐” into“crimson-curtained bed” with “crimson” replacing “red”, because it is “crimson” that has the meaning of “something deep red in color”

B. Use of Other Color

Example 4

那宝玉一心裁夺盘算，痴痴的回至怡红院中，正值黛玉和袭人坐着说话儿呢。(第三十六回)

Hawkes: It was a reflective, self-critical Bao-yu who made his way back to Green Delights, so bemused that he scarcely noticed where he was going. When he arrived, Dai-yu and Aroma were sitting in conversation together.

And,

李纨道：“怡红公子是压尾，你服不服？”（第三十七回）

Hawkes: “At all events,” said Li Wan, ‘Green Boy’s is bottom. Do you accept that judgment, Green Boy?

In the above sentences, the word “红” in “怡红院”and “怡红公子” are both changed into “green”, since in English the connotation of “green” has the similar images as the Chinese “红” as referring to “spring” in “怡红院”and “youth” in “怡红公子”.

Example 5

奈何天，
伤怀日，寂寥时，
试遣愚衷。
因此上,
演出这悲金悼玉的《红楼梦》。(第五回)

Hawkes:

Now woebegone
And quite cast down
In low estate
I would my foolish hear expose
And so perform
This Dream of Golden Days, And all my grief for my lost loves disclose.

In this poem, Hawkes turns “红” into “Golden”because in English, “golden girls” has the similar connotation as in Chinese referring to beautiful girls in their youth.

C. Use of Paraphrases

Example 6

警幻道：“此茶出在放春山遣香洞，又以仙花灵叶上所带的宿露烹了，名曰‘千红一窟’。” (第五回)

Hawkes: ‘The leaves are picked in the Paradise of the Full-blown Flower on the Mountain of Spring Awakening, ’ Disenchantment informed him. ‘It is infused in water collected from the dew that lies on fairy flowers and leaves. The name is “Maiden’s Tears’’.

Here, “红” implies all the ladies of this book, which has nothing to do with blood, and “窟” is a word play of crying. So Hawkes explicitly translated “千红一窟” into “Maiden’s Tears’’.

Example 7

可叹这, 青灯古殿人将老，辜负了，红粉朱楼春色阑。(第五回)

Hawkes: Sad it seemed that your life should in dim-lit shrines be wasted, All the sweets of spring untasted.

Here, since “红粉朱楼” refers to the prosperity of spring, the phrase containing “红” is paraphrased into “all the sweets of spring”

Example 8

王夫人因向王善保家的道：“你们进去，好生防他几日，不许他在宝玉屋里睡觉，等我回过老太太，再处治他。” 喝声：“出去!站在这里，我看不上这浪样儿! 谁许你这么花红柳绿的妆扮！” (第七十四回)

Hawkes: She turned to the Wang Shan-bao’s wife. ‘When you and the others go into the Garden, I want you to take particular care that this girl is kept well away from Bao-yu. Make sure that she doesn’t sleep in the same room. I shall be dealing with her in a few days’ time, when I had a chance of speaking about her to Her Old Ladyship.’ As she turned again momentarily towards Skybright, her voice rose almost into a shout. ‘Get out of here! The sight of you standing there like a young trollop offends my eyes! Who gave you permission anyway to dress yourself up in that garish fashion?'

Here，the color "红"is used to suggest the color of the clothes and is interpreted as "dress yourself up in that garish fashion?"

D. Use of Omission

Example 9

眼前不见尘沙起，将军俏影红灯里。(第七十八回)

Hawkes: As he watched them drill, he scarcely saw the clouds of dust arise; 'Twas the lovely Colonel's lamplit face that swam before his eyes.

And

众人不解，袭人等忙拾起来。众人看时，上面一枝杏花，那红字写着"瑶池仙品"四字。(第六十三回)

Hawkes: The others were puzzled, until Aroma picked the card up and held it out for them to see. The picture was of a spray of almond blossom with the caption 'Spirit of the Afterglow'

And

贾蓉接过禀帖和账目，忙展开捧着，贾珍倒背着两手，向贾蓉手内看去。那红禀上写着：……(第五十三回)

Hawkes: Jia Rong took the greetings-card and schedule from the servant, and opening up the card, held it out for his father to read. Cousin Zhen folded his hand behind his back and bent over to read the inscription: …

Here, the word "红"are all omitted in the three sentences, the omissions take place because the information the Chinese "红" convey is nothing but the color without any implied connotation, which is considered unimportant for the target English readers by Hawkes.

V. CONCLUSION

From the above examples, we will see that, due to the cultural differences, the Chinese color word "红" or "red" tends towards great derogatory connotation, namely, the ugly image of blood connected with "sanguineness", "danger" and "violence" in the minds of native speakers of English. People have to make judgments in translating this word for its relevant context using various strategies, sometimes at the expenses of somewhat translation loss, otherwise, misunderstandings and mistakes will occur. In all, cultural awareness is of crucial importance while dealing with translation.

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A Case Study of Teacher’s Politeness in EFL Class

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***Abstract*—Politeness is an important factor in human interaction. In the past two decades or so, much has been written and different theories have emerged about politeness. This is a case study of a Chinese EFL teacher’s linguistic politeness in classroom based on observation, recorded data and interview with both the teacher and the students. Then a conclusion is drawn that politeness does exist in EFL classroom and it does contribute to both teaching and learning.**

***Index Terms*—politeness, politeness principle, politeness strategy, speech acts**

I. Introduction

Politeness appears to be a prevalent concept and an important factor in human interaction. As regards its definition, it is often considered socioculturally appropriate behavior and is characterized as a matter of abiding by the expectations of society. According to *Routledge Dictionary of Language and Linguistics*, politeness is a term for a combination of interpersonal considerations and linguistic choices affecting the form and function of linguistic interactions. In different cultures and different contexts, politeness refers to quite different things. This study focuses on the teachers’ politeness in an EFL class, in which both the teacher and learners are Chinese with Chinese culture. Politeness can be expressed verbally and non-verbally, but in this study, only linguistic politeness is discussed; that is, the ways the teacher expresses politeness verbally through her use of language. To do the research, an EFL class (two periods, i.e. two hours), an intensive reading class of non-English majors in a university is observed and recorded, and then an interview with the students helps to confirm the findings.

II. Related Theories

In the past two decades or so, much has been written and different theories have emerged about “politeness”. In this paper, Leech’s politeness principle, Brown and levinson’s face theory and politeness strategy, Austin and Searle’s speech act theory are mainly employed in analyzing the teacher’s politeness this English class.

A. Politeness Principle

In “Principle of Pragmatics”(1983a), British linguist Geoffrey N. Leech explains the important function of politeness to linguistic communication and regards politeness principal and cooperative principal proposed by H. P. Grice as the two basic principles on which communication should be based. Leech first introduces the Politeness Principle as a necessary supplement for Grice’s Cooperative Principle. He regards what he calls the “politeness principle” as one of the fundamental pragmatic principles that one usually observes when one communicates in language. He proposed six maxims of the politeness principle: the tact maxim(The speaker minimizes the cost and correspondingly maximizes the benefit to the listener), the generosity maxim(The speaker minimizes the benefit and correspondingly maximizes the cost to self), the approbation maxim(The speaker minimizes dispraise and correspondingly maximizes praise of the listener), the modesty maxim(The speaker minimizes praise and correspondingly maximizes dispraise of self), the agreement maxim(The speaker minimizes disagreement and correspondingly maximizes agreement between himself and the listener), and the sympathy maxim(The speaker minimizes antipathy and correspondingly maximizes sympathy between himself and the listener).

B. Face Theory and Politeness Strategy

P. Brown and S. levinson’s work “Universals in Language Usage: Politeness Phenomena” (1978) gives a very detailed analysis of politeness phenomena and proposes a universal theory of cross-cultural politeness phenomena whose core concept is “face”. According to Brown and Levinson, politeness strategies are developed in order to save the hearers' "face". Face refers to the respect that an individual has for him or herself, and is for maintaining that "self-esteem" in public or in private situations. An individual's face consists of two desires: the desire to be approved of by others (termed “positive face”) and the desire to be unimpeded by others in one's actions (termed “negative face”). Either or both of them can be threatened by certain FTAs such as ordering, advising, or offering. Face Threatening Acts (FTA's) are acts that infringe on the hearers' need to maintain his/her self-esteem, and to be respected. Politeness strategies are developed for the main purpose of dealing with these FTA's. There are four types of politeness strategies, described by Brown and Levinson, that sum up human "politeness" behavior: Bald On Record, Positive Politeness, Negative Politeness, and Off-Record.

C. *Speech Act Theory*

Speech act theory is built on the foundation laid by Wittgenstein and Austin. John Searle is most often associated with the theory. Ludwig Wittgenstein thinks that the meaning of language depends on its actual use. According to Austin, to say something is to do something. In other words, saying is an act of utterance. His lecture series entitled “How to Do Things with Words”(1962) implies that we do things, not only say things, with words. Austin points out that there are at least three components in a speech act: Locutionary act, Illocutionary act, and Perlocutionary act. According to Searle, to understand language one must understand the speaker’s intention. Since language is intentional behavior, it should be treated like a form of action. Thus Searle refers to statements as speech acts. The speech act is the basic unit of language used to express meaning, an utterance that expresses an intention. When one speaks, one performs an act. Searle, while allowing that there is a myriad of language particular speech acts, proposed that all acts fall into five main types: representatives, directives, commissives, expressives, and declarations.

With six years’ teaching experiences, I find teachers have the following roles in class: instructional, motivational, evaluative, and managerial. All classroom speech acts can be categorized according to these functions. Traditionally, the teacher controls learning and behavior in the classroom with these kinds of speech acts. So here I refer to these acts as control speech acts of the teacher. This paper is about which politeness strategies and how they are employed in teachers’ control speech acts in EFL classrooms. Then an analysis will be made as to how much percent each strategy makes up and why it is so.

III. Findings of the Study

I transcribed the record to get the detailed data of the polite language that the teacher uses. In this study, any language that is to enhance the process of teaching and to benefit the interaction between teacher and students is classified as politeness. In the following part, the teacher’s politeness will be analyzed from the angles of the different classroom control speech acts mentioned above. Then tables will be given to show the distribution of different strategies, thereby studying the teacher’s politeness in this English class.

A. *Academic Instructions*

This refers to the teacher's academic presentation, answering students' academic questions, and supportive and corrective feedback. Look at the following sentences:

1) Let’s begin today’s class.
2) We will learn a moving story today, it’s about a widow.
3) I’d like you to read the new words after me, please.
4) So much for the new words, stop here, please.
5) Please find a word which means “satisfactory”.
6) Please tell me what the author tell us in paragraph two.
7) Shall we go on?
8) Who would like to come to the blackboard?
9) Can you show me the difference between the two words?
10) Turn to page 115, look at the first line.
11) Next time, we will study unit 9, preview it and hand in your homework as soon as possible.

These are the very sentences that are frequently used in teaching a new lesson. Every English teacher won’t feel unfamiliar with them. In these sentences, a number of politeness strategies are employed. The following is the analysis:

The first two sentences show a positive politeness strategy. Within in Brown and levinson’s theory, when you speak to someone, you may orient yourself towards that individual’s positive face, and employ positive politeness, which appeals to the hearer’s desire to be liked and approved of. Here, one of the positive strategies—in-group marker is used, that is, the teacher includes herself in the learning process, which will shorten the distance from the students.

Sentences 3-6 appear in the form of imperative sentences. This is a direct strategy of politeness. In such kind of strategy, the illocutionary act is expressed clearly through language forms. In forms, imperative sentences are often used, or other similar sentences like perfomatives (S4, 5), obligation statement(S6), want statement(S3), etc. And this can also be classified as one of the negative politeness strategies.

Sentences7-9 show another of the negative politeness strategies—conventionally indirectness. Negative politeness is oriented towards a hearer’s negative face, which appeals to the hearer’s desire not to be impeded or put upon, to be left free to act as they choose. In classroom, module verbs such as shall, would, can, etc are often used to maintain the students’ negative face.

Sentence 10 and 11 appear to be very common sentences, but actually they show another politeness strategy—bold on record. This type of strategy is commonly found with people who know each other very well, and are very comfortable in their environment, such as close friends and family. There are also occasions when external factors constrain a person to speak very directly, for example, there is an emergency of some sort, or where there is a major time constraint or where there is some form of channel limitation. Under such circumstances, the speaker is likely to focus on the propositional content of the message, and pay little attention to the interpersonal aspect of what is said. This strategy is employed often in the teaching process in the classroom. On one hand, teachers usually try to establish a harmonious relationship with the students, try to be “close” to students; on the other hand, time is limited in class, teachers have to finish the teaching task in prearranged time, and, especially before the class is over, students are eager to go and time for teachers to assign homework is limited, so this strategy is often employed in these circumstances. In this classroom, things are just the same.

B. Motivation

Motivation refers to various illocutionary acts aimed at activating students such as their participation, academic questions, and initiative feedback. The following are the Examples:

12) Hey, guys, what are you doing? Why are you so sleepy?
13) Wang Qun, you give us a presentation, ok?
14) Chen Shuo, tell us the story “The yellow ribbon around the old oak tree”, all right?
15) Just say it in your own words, I know you can, have a try, will you?
16) It’s quite necessary to request English learners to speak English. Don’t keep silent!
17) It’s not a good habit to memorize the new words from the word list. Get help from the text!

Sentence 12 is an expression of positive politeness. Because the teacher here is trying to minimize the distance between herself and the students by expressing friendliness(Hey, guys) and solid interest in the hearer's need to be respected (minimize the FTA). (Ask the students what they are doing, why they are so sleepy instead of scolding them for their distraction and their sleepiness)

In sentences 13-15, “ok”, “all right”, “will you” are used. Such words are called “filler”, one of the strategy of mitigation according to Fraser, who holds that politeness is closely related to mitigation, and it can be said that only when the speaker is polite, mitigation exists. This can also be a kind of positive politeness strategy which finds close parallel in Leech’s politeness principles: seek agreement, avoid disagreement (agreement principle), maximize praise of the listener (approbation principle) and give sympathy (sympathy principle).

Sentences 16 and 17 contain the bald-on record strategy mentioned above as in “Don’t keep silent”, “Get help from the text”. The other strategy employed in them is one of the negative politeness strategies—impersonalize speaker and hearer. Here, no specific student is mentioned, the teacher is activating all the students by maintaining the students’ negative face—don’t impede them.

C. Evaluation

Evaluation is indispensable in English class. It refers to teacher’s positive and negative feedback which is very important to students. It can encourage as well as discourage the students. Therefore, politeness in evaluation is particularly important to both learning and teaching.

18) Good! You are right!
19) Exactly!
20) Well done!
21) Perfect! Sit down please!
22) You are using a big word here. (hint to change a word)
23) How many Zhang Xiang do we have here? (hint to the other students not to speak)
24) She *tell* her husband? (hint at a grammar mistake)
25) I am afraid the focus of this article may be the love between the widow and her dead husband..
26) Well, I agree with you to a certain point. However…
27) Perhaps you can use another way to express yourself.
28) Maybe first you should read the directions carefully.
29) I am sorry, I mean translate this sentence into Chinese.
30) Maybe it’s my fault, I didn’t emphasize that in the previous class.

Sentences18-21 are praises often generously given by the teacher. It’s easily seen that in saying this the teacher is employing the positive politeness strategy, the approbation principle, agreement principle and sympathy principle to maintain the students’ positive face.

Another politeness strategy is employed in sentences22-26: off-record, a kind of indirect politeness strategy. In this strategy, the speaker is removing himself from any imposition whatsoever. Usually, giving hints, using metaphor, being ambiguous or vague, using ellipsis are ways to carry out this strategy. In Senteces22-24, the teacher is not criticizing the student directly; instead, she uses the indirect way to hint at the mistake or the improper performance of the students, thus maintaining their face. While in Sentences25-26, the teacher is being ambiguous by using “I’m afraid”, “Well”, “to a certain point” to show indirectly that there’s something wrong with the student's answers. And here, the tact principle and agreement principle is reflected.

"Perhaps", "maybe" in sentences27 and 28 are markers of another negative politeness principle—hedge. The teacher maintains the student's negative face by using these words. The similar expressions are: I think, I hope, I suggest, etc. Of course, the strategy of hint is also reflected in them, which is often the case in many other examples: not only one strategy is employed. Here, the tact principle and sympathy principle are applied.

In sentences29 and 30, one of the negative politeness strategies— admit the impingement is employed. The teacher here is trying to admit her own fault in order to save the student's negative face. Besides, the tact principle, generosity principle, and modest principle are used here.

D. Classroom Management

This refers to discipline instructions, discipline directives (orders, requests, questions, and calls), procedural instructions, and procedural directives.

31) Be quite, please!
32) Stop talking, please!
33) Now talk with your partner about this problem.
34) Divide into groups, please.
35) Why don't you sit closer?
36) I'd be grateful if you answer this questionnaire for me.
37) Be quick, you have only five minutes.
38) Please stop here; we don't have enough time for you to remember all these new words in class.

In sentence 31 and 32, the teacher is using the bald-on-record strategy by ordering the students directly to maintain classroom order in the shortest possible time.

In sentences 33-35, the direct strategy is used once again. Sentences33 and 34 appear in imperative sentences and Sentence 35 use an interrogative sentence.

Sentence 36 reflects a negative politeness strategy: go on record as incurring a debt. In assigning this task, the teacher is using this strategy to be polite for this is a kind of help from the students.

In sentences 37 and 38, several politeness strategies are used together. First, imperative sentences of the direct politeness are used; then, one of the positive politeness strategies—in group identity marker is used; next, a kind of mitigation strategy is also used: supportive moves. "You have only five minutes", "we don't have enough time for you to remember all these new words in class" can be looked on as the supportive moves here which present the reasons for the central moves. The purpose of teacher's using this is to get the students' understanding and cooperation.

IV. Analysis and Discussion

The study can be clearly shown in the following two tables (As for those sentences which employ more than one strategies, only one major strategy is counted in the table.):

TABLE 1

strategy	Bald-on-record	positive	negative	Off-record	total
number	15	26	20	10	71
percentage	21.1%	36.6%	28.2%	14.1%	100%

TABLE 2

Speech act / strategy	academic	motivation	evaluation	management	tatal
Bald-on-record	3 13.6%	3 25%	1 4.3%	8 57.2%	15
positive	8 36.4%	4 33.3%	11 47.8%	3 21.4%	26
negative	10 45.5%	4 33.3%	3 13.1%	3 21.4%	20
Off-record	1 4.5%	1 8.4%	8 34.8%	0 0%	10
total	22 100%	12 100%	23 100%	14 100%	71

A. Table 1

In the process of this English class, I altogether got 71 of teacher's sentences that have something to do with politeness. From Table1, it can be easily seen that in this English class, the teacher employs all the four strategies, with the positive strategy making up the greatest proportion: 36%, and next negative strategy 28.2%, then bald bald-on-record strategy 21% and lastly off-record only 14.1%. The numbers show that the teacher is quite concerned with the students' need to be liked or approved of, and she is trying not to hinder or obstruct the students' thought as well as their activities. That the off-record instead of bald-on-record is the least used strategy is a little bit surprising. I had thought the bald-on-the record would be the least because this strategy is often used between friends or people who know each other well. In this class, the teacher is a young girl and she has quite harmonious relationship with the students. This can be easily seen through my interview with her and her students. So this is one reason why the bald-on-record strategy is used in her class more than I had thought. The second reason may be that the time when I did the research is near the end of the term. The teacher is hurrying to finish the prearranged teaching task, so off-record strategy such as hint, vagueness, metaphor, etc is used less while bald-on-record which is direct is used more.

B. Table 2

I also found it was interesting to analyze the distribution of the different strategies in the different speech acts. From Table2, we can see in academic instruction, negative strategy occupies the most part: 45.5%. This shows that in teaching, the teacher is trying to give the students the most possible freedom to act as they choose in class. She doesn't want to impede them by her acts. Positive strategy occupies 36.4% in this speech act, which means the teacher is trying to take the student's desire to be liked or approved of into full consideration in her teaching process. Off-record is used the least in this speech act because the teaching method in this class can hardly be called "student-centered", so it is the teacher who speaks the most in class. She needn't use much hint or metaphor in carrying out her teaching.

As for the motivation act, positive and negative strategies have equal proportion and are the most employed strategies in this speech act. As is mentioned above, in activating the student, the teacher is also taking into account the students' desire to be approved and need to be unimpeded. Like in the academic instruction act, off-record strategy is used the least here because time is limited and the close relationship allows more bald-on-record strategy.

In the evaluation act, positive strategy still occupies the most proportion: 43%. This tells us the teacher is making great efforts to encourage the students: giving the most possible approval and agreement, which will contribute to the students' interested learning and active participation. Here, bald-on-record is used the least, because the teacher doesn't want to embarrass the students by her comment. So this strategy is only used occasionally with a proportion of 4.3%, while off-record strategy is more frequently used for the teacher is trying to point out the students' mistakes or shortcomings indirectly.

Contrary to this, in the management act, bald-on-record is used most with the proportion of 57.2%. The teacher doesn't want to spend much time in managing the class, so she uses the direct way to maintain the discipline and give procedure orders. In this act, positive and negative strategy again makes up the same proportion: 21.4% while no off-record is found maybe because there is no need to be so indirect in managing a class.

V. CONCLUSION

From the analysis above, also from my observation and interview with the teacher and the students, a conclusion can be drawn that politeness does exist in this EFL class; politeness does promote the mutual understanding and harmonious relationship between teacher and students; politeness does enhance teaching and benefit the students; politeness does contribute to the effective interaction and friendly, lively atmosphere in EFL classroom.

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A Critical Assessment of the Cultural Content of Two Primary English Textbooks Used in Nigeria

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***Abstract*—Culture (a people's ways of life) and literacy (the permanent possession of the skills of reading, writing and numeracy) are two sides of the same coin. The former prepares the individual through approved social roles, while latter ensures that the former is not only promoted and preserved, but also made more functional. Then the textbook is a powerful medium for cultural sustenance and literacy development. The language textbook in particular is vital to making culture relevant to intellectual development. One aim of language teaching-learning is to produce the learner who would not only be able to engage in the four language skills rewardingly, but also be culturally literate. Unfortunately, culture is not monolithic, just as different writers have different visions and styles for their art. Every nation also has what she wants education to do for her, which must include cultural revival and cultural integration. In this era of globalization, culture, especially if it lacks technological base, can be dangerously disadvantaged. This researcher sought to evaluate the cultural content of two basal textbooks used in teaching Primary school English in a Second context with a view to determining how the writers have reflected cultural context. Based on the findings from the study, recommendations were made to course book writers and relevant other stakeholders.**

***Index Terms*—cultural content, primary school English, literacy**

I. Introduction and Background

It is not possible to give a watertight definition of culture as it has been many things to many people. Kramsch (1998) views it as the membership of a discourse community that shares a common social space and history. They have common world views, beliefs and ways of assessing things, situations and events. In this regard, culture involves knowledge derived unconsciously and utilized as a social property. The knowledge dictates how the community socialise. Culture could inform their attitude to language. Miekley (2005) reports how major countries of South East Asia, seeing the international ascendancy being enjoyed by English, embarked on very intense programmes to entrench the language and how majority of the citizens had either not been able to use it appreciably or had refused outright the language. He gives a graphic insight into English language textbook situation in those countries involving massive production of instructional materials by native and non native experts. However, Miekley has not provided information concerning the cultural relevance of such materials. Akintunde (1993:391) suggests that the origin and design of language a textbook could influence its relevance and how successfully it may be used in the classroom. He identifies government polices, publishing infrastructure, intellectual and professional associations as the cultural matrices for book development. He is at one with Emenyonu (1993:402-404) who gives specific steps that could be taken in infusing relevant cultural experiences in a book. The steps the latter has proposed include:

1. reflecting the physical context of language learning.
2. considering the economic characteristics of the target readers.
3. examining the political aspects of the community.
4. defining the role of culture.
5. indicating the economic conditions of the people.

Any education situated in man's culture makes him not only well-developed and integrated but also enables him to appreciate other peoples' cultures. According to Courtney (1974:140):

Through his culture man learns to relate himself with the society and by storing up past knowledge in symbolic from, he can visualize future possibilities and consciously adapt himself through reason. Man emerged from primitive animism to being only vaguely aware of his separate existence.

Man's cultural experiences get him to a level at which he attains cosmic unity with the society and the world, by which he is not lonely and is better protected. The role man's cultural background plays in his fortune and misfortune has been attested to by Obafemi (1994:86) in his explanation of the source of drama: ''In spite of this elasticity in form and content of drama, certain adamants characterize the discipline'', including:

(i) imitation of human behaviour.
(ii) characters acting in situation and style, and
(iii) dramatic structure that involves time, place and action.

Indeed, as espoused by Holly (1990), language teaching carries cultural and ideological messages. The experiences shared in the classroom reflect a particular culture and promote specific socio - economic and political values; they also aim at advancing some spiritual inclinations. Such experiences - cultural contents - transmit more daily and effectively if they derive from textual materials which enjoy permanence.

The role that textbooks (especially language textbooks) play in behaviour modification has been well explained in the literature. Their vitality has made language educators and applied linguists suggest many criteria for assessing (critically pointing out the weaknesses and strengths of) such materials. For example, Kilickaya (2004) and Olajide (2004) are agreed that language textbooks should satisfy the cultural context in which they are going to be implemented. Kilickaya specifically suggests that the following criteria be applied in assessing the cultural component of the textbooks.

1. Does the book suggest how the cultural content may be handled?
2. What learner characteristics does the book address?
3. Does the book specify any role for the teacher using it?
4. Does the book reflect a variety of culture?
5. Is the content of the book realistic about the target culture?
6. What is the source of cultural information (author's view or empirically derived)?
7. Do the subjects of the book relate directly to the target culture, and are there topics not culturally suitable for the class?
8. What cultural and social categories of people does the content address?
9. Does the book contain cultural generalizations and specific inferences and insinuations?
10. Does it contain positive, negative or no comments about the cultural information it presents?
11. If illustrations are made in the textbook are they appropriate to the learners' native culture?
12. Are familiar activities presented to the learners?
13. Would the teacher need specialized training to be able to use the book?
14. Does the book encourage the learners to utilize the cultural experiences beyond the classroom?
15. What is your own opinion of the book?

The foregoing criteria by Kilickaya (2004) and those by Emenyonu (1993) are considered appropriate for the present study because of their cultural focus.

The English Language textbooks used at the primary school level (referred to as Primary English in this paper) are important. They are a part of the process of forming the impressionistic adolescents whose experiences at that stage would shape their lives thereafter. For example, in Nigeria, English occupies a critical place in education and is fast assuming the status of a Nigerian language (Olajide 2004 & 2009). The primary school teacher of English in the country in particular has a great role to play, because he/she is responsible for granting the platform where the young learner is encountering English probably for the first time and requires careful facilitation to be able to transit from his mother tongue base. The country expects English to take over after the first three years as the medium of instruction. Thus, the language influences the acquisition of litero-numeracy skills as from mid-primary level (Federal Republic of Nigeria, 2007). Incidentally, the textbook situation in Nigeria is hardly different from that of South East Asia as reported by Miekley (2005) and many other developing countries. There are many English language textbooks that the Nigerian primary school teacher needs to choose from, but not all of the textbooks would do teaching-learning much good. Hence, there is need to assess the books before selecting from them.

II. Statement of the Problem and Purpose

Language and culture are intertwined and teaching the former in the second or foreign situation requires the teacher to be sensitive to the latter Kramsch (1998). Second or Foreign language situation poses unique challenges in that the learners come to the classrooms with different cultural and linguistic backgrounds. It becomes necessary for the materials implemented in the classroom to reflect the culture of the learner. Different scholars (Holly 1990, Akintunde 1993, Emenyonu, 1993, Holly 1990, Olajide 1995 & 2004, and Kilickaya, 2004) have justified the assessment of language textbooks. And there have been unending outcries about poor pupil performance in English at the primary school level in Nigeria. It is not certain how much the content of the English textbooks implemented at that level reflects the pupils' cultural backgrounds. It is also a problem that available literature has not shown quantitatively if the cultural contents of the books cut across international boundaries as recommend by Kilickaya (2004) Olajide (2004) and Miekley (2005).

Thus, the general purpose of this study was to ascertain if each of two English textbooks popularly used in Nigeria primary schools have adequate cultural contents. Specifically, the study sought to provide answers to the following questions motivated from available literature.

1. Does each of the books reflect physical features?
2. Does each of the books include socio-economic characteristic?
3. Does each of the books relate to political activities?
4. Does each of the books portray living condition?
5. If each involves living conditions, do such living conditions reflect rural urban- dichotomy?
6. Does each book suggest how the cultural content may be used in, and beyond the classroom?

7. What learner characteristics does each of the books contain?
8. Does each book reflect a variety of cultures?
9. How realistic is each of the books about the culture it aims at portraying?
10. Is the culture aimed in each book based on author’s opinion?
11. Is the culture contained in each book derived empirically?
12. Do the topics in each book directly refer to target culture?
13. Are there cultural items in the books not relevant to the users’ culture?
14. What cultural and social categories does each of the books address?
15. Does each of the books contain cultural generalizations that ought not to be made?
16. Does the book contain positive comments about the cultural information passed?
17. Does the book contain negative comments on the cultural content presented?
18. How appropriate are the cultural illustrations made, if any, in each of the books?
19. Are familiar activities presented in each of the books?
20. Does each of the books encourage the learner to utilize the cultural experiences beyond the classroom?

III. Methodology

This study involved two textbooks – “Nigeria Primary School English Pupils’ Book 1’’ and the “Longman Advantage Primary English Pupils’ Book 1, the former having been published by Longman and the latter by Pearson and Longman. (The former will henceforth be referred to as PSEB1 and the latter as ADVE1.) The choice of both books by the same publishers was informed by the international experience of the publishers and the fact that this investigator once evaluated a series of Longman’s publications for secondary schools (Olajide 2004) and wished to see if Longman is consistent in its attitude to learners’ culture. More important is that this investigator considered the primary school level as being crucial to the formation of language habits and building of literacy and numeracy skills. The investigation involved careful isolation of the cultural content available within each text. The tabulation of the content was done in line with the 20 specific purposes already stated which derived from Emenyonu (1993) and Kilichaya (2005). The specific purposes may be viewed as equivalents of, and alternatives to, research questions this investigator could have posed separately. Frequency count and percentage were used to analyse the cultural data observed in the books.

IV. Data Analysis

In this section, the relevant cultural content of each book is identified, analysed and discussed in Table 1.

V. Summary and Discussion of Findings

From the analysis in table 1, above, the following summary of findings can be made:

1. Both books contain familiar physical features, although to differing degrees (8% in PSEB1 and 23% in ADVE1).
2. They also contain relevant economic activities differently (12% in PSEB1 and 22.6% in ADVE1).
3. While only 1% of PSEB1 relates to political activities, ADVE1pays no clear attention to such activities.
4. However, the books address living conditions of people (12% in PSEB1 and 5.3% in ADVE1)

Also, they reflect the urban-rural dichotomy in living condition (10% in PSEB1 and 4.3% in ADVE1)

5. Both books pay attention to how their cultural content may be handled by both pupils and teachers.
6. Nevertheless, the books fairly reflect the characteristics of learners in the cultural activities they contain (15% in PSEB1 and 13.1% in ADVE1)
7. They also reflect a variety of cultures (09% in PSEB1 and 2.7% in ADVE1)
8. They are somewhat realistic in the culture they portray (3% in PSEB1 and 2.7% in ADVE1)
9. In both books, authors express no personal opinions.
10. More of the cultural content of PSEB1 (6%) is empirically derived than that of ADVE1 (2.7%)
11. Neither of the books directly refers to a target culture.
12. Neither of the books contains cultural content irrelevant to the learners.
13. The books are weak regarding the categorization of socio-cultural elements (only 4% of PSEB1 relates to such categorization, while only 2.7% of ADVE1 does).
14. While 2% of ADVE1 contains unexpected cultural generalizations, PSEB1 has not made any of such generalizations.
15. Both books contain neither negative nor positive comments on their cultural contents.
16. The books make equally considerable illustrations of the cultural contents involved (24% each)
17. PSEB1 contains more (24%) of familiar activities than ADVE1 that has only 8% of such activities
18. While PSEB1 does not encourage the learners to use the cultural information provided in the classroom, 3.4% of ADVE1 does.

TABLE 1:
PRESENTATION OF THE CULTURAL CONTENTS OF THE TWO BOOKS.

S/NO	CULTURE RELATED QUESTIONS	PSEB 1					ADVE 1				
		Y	N	PAGES FOUND	F	%	Y	N	PAGES FOUND	F	%
1	Does the book reflect familiar physical features?	√		1,2,15,16,26,57,75,83.	08	8	√		1,2,7,9,12,17,21 ,24,32,33,36,39, 41,42,45,49,60, 63,66,84,92,94, 97.	23	24
2	Does the book contain socio-economic activities relevant to the environment?	√		28,29.	02	28	√		9,17,21,24,28,3 2,36,39,42,45,4 9,52,59,63,66,7 1,74,77,84,85,1 00,104	22	23
3	Does the book relate to political activities?	√		73.	01	1		√	Nil	Nil	Nil
4	Does the book project living conditions?	√		30,32,33,55,58,61,68, 71,74,77.	10	10	√		28,32,36,52,54, 56.	05	5.3
5	Does the living condition projected reflect rural-urban dichotomy?	√		16,17,30,58,61,71.	07	7	√		32,36,56,104.	04	4.3
6	Does the book suggest how its cultural content may be handled?		√	Nil	Nil	Nil		√	Nil	Nil	Nil
7	What learner characteristics reflected in the book?	√		1,2,11,12,31,57,58,59, 61, 68, 71, 79,83,84,85.	15	15	√		1,2,5,7,9,11,17, 21,28,61,67,81, 88.	13	13.
8	Does the book reflect a variety of culture?	√		11,12,35,58,75,76,77, 78,83.	09	9	√		81,104	02	2.7
9	Is the book realistic about the culture[s] it portrays?	√		75,76,77.	03	3	√		81,104	02	2.7
10	Is the culture aimed in the book based on the author's opinion?		√	No authorial intervention.	Nil	Nil		√	Nil	Nil	Nil
11	Is the culture the book contains derived empirically?	√		15,58,70,75,78,83.	06	6	√		81,104	02	2.7
12	Do the topics in the book directly refer to target culture?		√	Nil: cultural references are made pictorially	Nil	Nil		√	Nil	Nil	Nil
13	Are there cultural items in the book not relevant to the users' culture?		√	Nil	Nil	Nil		√	Nil	Nil	Nil
14	Are there socio-cultural categories in the book?	√		1,75,76,77.	04	4	√		81,104	02	2.7
15	The book contains cultural generalizations not expected?		√	Nil	Nil	Nil	√		81,104	02	2.7
16	Does the book contains positive comments on the cultural information passed?		√	Nil	Nil	Nil		√		Nil	Nil
17	The book contains negative comments on the cultural information it passes?		√	Nil	Nil	Nil				Nil	Nil
18	Are appropriate illustrations made in the book?	√		11,12,13,14,15,16,17, 18,19,20,58,61,74,75, 76,77,78,79,80,81,82, 83,84,85.	24	24	√		2,4,11,17,24,32, 42,45,49,59,63, 66,71,74,75,77, 81,84,88,91,92, 95,100,104.	24	24
19	Are familiar activities presented in the book?	√		11,12,13,14,15,16,7,1 8,19,20,21,22,23,35,3 6,71,73,76'	21	21	√		9,39,45,52,88,9 7,100,104	08	8.
20	Does the book encourage the learners to use the cultural information?		√		Nil	Nil			9,17,19	03	3.4

KEY:
Y: Yes
N: No
F: Frequency of occurrence.
PSEB1: Primary English Book1 (see References.
ADVE1: Advantage English Book1 (see References.)

The attention paid to the physical environment in the books may be viewed as appropriate, since young learners require familiarity with their environment in forming their worldviews as advocated by Akintunde (1993), Emenyonu (1993), Kramsch (1998) and Kilichaya (2004). Also, the use of familiar activities by the authors of both books can make the learning of English easy for the pupils. However, the authors' neglect of political cultures would seem not quite appropriate, because learners need to be sensitized to democratic values right from their formative years. The slim attention paid to living condition in both books is also not good enough, because exposing the young learners to such conditions could develop in them the sympathy, appreciation and empathy which human community need to be able to live in peace and harmony and make excellent progress. By not providing information on how the cultural content of the books may be used, the authors have not helped creativity, whereas the world can best be preserved and promoted through creative intellect (Courtney 1974, Emenyonu 1993, Obafemi, 1994, Kilichaya 2004). Also, as suggested by Kramsch (1998) and Olajide, 2004, increased creativity through language learning could lead to appropriate language attitude, and vice versa. Both books should have utilized the considerable insights they offer into learner characteristics in promoting creativity. The variety of culture the books provide is, however, adequate. It will be prepare learners for living across geographical boundaries, which is in line with globalisation. Akintunde (1993) and Olajide (2004) are agreed that effective language textbooks should prepare learners for international living.

By being realistic and empirical about the cultural experiences they offer the learners, the authors made the books usable, memorable and apt. That the authors have not included their personal opinions in the books is also instructive: they seem not willing to force ideas into the young and impressionistic learners! Also, the children cannot be engaged in long and intellectually demanding discourse because of their limited experiences and weak language base. The illustrations made in the two books are also useful devices; they aid and stimulate the learners by appealing to their senses of sight, smell, touch, taste, movement and hearing. The use of familiar activities can also increase the sense of identity among the children as advocated by Akintunde (1993) and make education a productive enterprise for them. Education for creativity is what the world encourages greatly today. However, such productivity would seem to have been lacking in Nigeria education, which has resulted in the un-employability of graduates!

The books seem to rate low for not providing information about how their cultural contents may be used. They should have used appropriate evaluation modes to cause the learners to use the cultural contents. The exercises provided by the authors have mainly targeted the development of language skills rather than situating such skills in cultural, creative and productive contexts.

VI. Concluding Remarks

The two books under investigation have shown considerable but differing sensitivity to cultural content. They have paid attention to the psychological age of the learners and reflected Nigeria's desire for education that can globalize the learners, apart from sensitizing them to their immediate environment. However, the authors will need to build in evaluation modes that can ensure that learners actually utilize the cultural contents provided. Such cultural contents may also be improved upon by being further categorized, to include the traditional elements.

The present study is itself not exhaustive. It has not gone beyond two Primary One textbooks produced by the same publishers, whereas there are hundreds of reputable publishers in Nigeria who have also produced basal materials. Even textbooks by one publisher may vary the ways they address cultural content across the different classes of the Primary School, up to the Junior Secondary School which is now regarded as the Upper Basic Level (Federal Republic of Nigeria, 2007). Thus, further investigation is needed to redress these and other lapses of the study.

Appendix: Texts Investigated

Macauley, J., B. Oderinde, F. Badaki, B. Somoye, N Hawkes & D. Dallas (2007).Nigeria.
Primary English: Pupils' Book 1 (UBE Edition). Longman Nigeria PLC.
Ekpa, A., F. Vanessa, C. Minkley, F. Moh, D. Utsalo & G. Ikpeme (2008) Advantage.
English: Pupils' Book 1. Essex, England: Pearson Education Limited.

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Stylistic Analysis of *The Great Gatsby* from Lexical and Grammatical Category

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***Abstract*— The thesis tries to adopt the method used by Leech and Short in their book *Style in Fiction* to make a relatively overall and objective analysis of the novel's language from lexical and grammatical Category. As far as the lexical features are concerned, the author employs special lexical items and lexical clusters. The lexical deviation and word connotations are mainly used for characterization and theme revelation. In terms of the syntactical aspects, narrative sentence type and the contrast of registers are employed, and the author's sentence endings with elaborate appositions and prepositional phrases provide an effective way to describe the surroundings and evoke moods, serving to generate suspense as well as to create interest and expectation on the part of the reader.**

***Index Terms*—lexical category, adjective, lexical cluster, grammatical category, sentence structure, appositional phrase, prepositional phrase**

Stylistic analysis is an attempt to find the artistic principles underlying a writer's choice of language. However, as all texts have their individual qualities, the linguistic features which recommend themselves to the attention in one text will not necessarily be important in another text by the same or a different author. Therefore, Leech and Short (2000: 74-82) propose a useful checklist of linguistic and stylistic categories which are placed under four general headings: lexical categories, grammatical categories, figures of speech, and cohesion and context, each containing several subcategories, and inevitably with some overlapping. Lexical categories are used to find out how choice of words involves various types of meaning. They may contain a general description of vocabulary choice, and examinations of nouns, adjectives, verbs, adverbs, etc. Grammatical categories, on the other hand, probe into such branches as sentence types, sentence complexity, clause types, clause structure, noun or verb phrases, word classes, and so on and so forth. This chapter is devoted to a general analysis of the stylistic features in Fitzgerald's *The Great Gatsby* from the lexical and grammatical category.

I. Lexical Category

A. Adjectives

One of the simplest yet most profound reasons *The Great Gatsby* is considered as an American classic is its use of language. Fitzgerald's language is figurative, which is full of images -- concrete verbal pictures appealing to the senses, by the employment of adjectives. Fitzgerald frequently uses adjectives to create romantic sensation and visualize the scene and hence heightens the theme.

Her face was sad and lovely with bright things in it, bright eyes and a bright passionate mouth -- but there was an excitement in her voice that men who had cared for her found difficult to forget: a singing compulsion, a whispered "Listen", a promise that she had done gay, exciting things just a while since and that there were gay, exciting things hovering in the next hour. (p. 13)

This sentence is densely sparked with adjectives. It is interesting that Fitzgerald often links adjectives that seem contradictory, e.g. sad and lovely. But this technique visualizes the character Daisy, and the repetition of the next adjective "bright" seems to imply that Daisy is bright. However, the word "sad" denies this by its meaning; thus the description gives us a suspicious impression. With Fitzgerald's employment of adjectives and participles used as attributives, Daisy's voice is sensate and hence, paves the way for Gatsby's comment: "Her voice is full of money."

The extensive use of adjectives in sentences like the above ones helps to convey the author's interpretation of the scene and is typical of Fitzgerald's use of subjective description. Here is another example:

But his heart was in a constant, turbulent riot. The most grotesque and fantastic conceits haunted him in his bed at night. A universe of ineffable gaudiness spun itself out in his brain while the clock ticked on the wash-stand and the moon soaked wet light his tangled clothes upon the floor. Each night he added to the pattern of his fancies until drowsiness closed down upon some vivid scene with an oblivious embrace. (p. 132)

There are altogether nine adjectives (constant, turbulent, grotesque, fantastic, ineffable, tangled, each, vivid, and oblivious) in the passage, more than 10% of the total number. These adjectives are all attributives and have nothing to do with physical attributes. The "constant, turbulent riot" is the background of his dream and the adjectives "grotesque, fantastic" modifying "conceits" drop a hint that the dream is inaccessible. A description such as "the moon soaked with wet light his tangled clothes" helps the reader to visualize the scene in the manner Fitzgerald intends. The adjective "vivid" make the scene more real but the adjective "oblivious" works in an opposite way. These adjectives combine together to form a dreamy world where reality and illusion begin to blur. "In the process of combining lyrical description with objective circumstance he mastered the connections between themes and narration." (Prigozy, 2001: 95)

The automobile, serving a function of showing wealth, has a very special meaning in *The Great Gatsby*. "Like all of Gatsby's possessions, it is far more than a material object; it is a sign of the pathetic mystique which serves Gatsby -- the representative of the American dream -- as he worships a kind of ultimate value that far transcends any material object at all." (Cooperman, 1996: 34) Gatsby's "gorgeous car" is described in details:

It was a rich cream color, bright with nickel, swollen here and there in its monstrous length with triumphant hat-boxes and supper-boxes and tool-boxes, and terraced with a labyrinth of wind-shields that mirrored a dozen suns. Sitting down behind many layers of glass in a sort of green leather conservatory we started to town. (p. 85)

Fitzgerald relies on the style to evoke a car appropriate for Gatsby. "The car itself is described with an interesting series of adjectives -- adjectives which communicate a sense not only of opulence, but of combined brittleness and softness, almost of decay." (Cooperman, 1996: 35) With the characteristic use of the surprising adjective in "triumphant hat-boxes", Fitzgerald actually implies that Gatsby takes pride in his automobile, as he does in all his possessions; he is "triumphant" financially and socially. However, the fact that this car kills Myrtle later on shadows its triumph and causes the death of Gatsby indirectly. Besides, Fitzgerald uses carefully selected details of description to convey through each automobile the character and vision of its owner.

Besides his extensive use of adjectives, another prominent characteristic of Fitzgerald's use of adjectives lies in his linkage of apparently incompatible nouns and adjectives to produce startling but thematically evocative effects and his pattern of linking adjectives that seem contradictory. For example, the "triumphant hat-boxes" of Gatsby's car and the "blue gardens" of his parties, both suggest the magnificent but unreality of his vision of self.

As theme is most dramatically expressed through character, Fitzgerald uses the people he created to convey his message to the reader. We can easily see how Fitzgerald uses such technique to depict the characters in the novel. When Nick arrives at the Buchanans for dinner, the three characters are described for the first time in terms that emphasize their physical presence. Here are Nick's descriptions:

It was a body capable of enormous leverage -- a cruel body. (p. 10)

It is interesting that the "body" is described as "cruel" here, for normally "cruel" is referred to a person and not to a body. Fitzgerald doesn't describe that Tom is cruel but that his body is cruel, suggesting a separation between his body and himself, as if Tom's cruel character may assert itself apart from his will.

The other girl, Daisy ... she laughed, an absurd, charming little laugh, and I laughed too and came forward into the room. (p. 12)

The adjective "absurd" with the meaning of "ridiculously incongruous or unreasonable" combines queerly with the adjective "charming" with the meaning "attracting". "Absurd" seems to imply that Daisy's life is aimless emptiness, it is even absurd when her laugh is charming. And the words "an absurd, charming little laugh" suits her habit, which we will come to know, of gushing overstatement: "I'm paralyzed with happiness." More or less, Nick hints that Daisy's manner may be crafty.

Her grey sun-strained eyes back at me with polite reciprocal curiosity out of a wan, charming discontented face. (p. 15)

"Charming discontented" is also an example of the surprising pattern of linking adjectives that seems contradictory. As we can see, when one is restlessly unhappy or discontented, how can his/her face be charming? But this is the case, as Miss Jordan Baker is seen in this story as a person, who dealt in universal skepticism and is very uncertain about her own thoughts, movements, and feelings.

Fitzgerald produces more elaborate writing with his use of adjectives, and the adjectives he used help present the illusionary aspect of Gatsby's world. In a sense, Fitzgerald is very imaginative.

B. Lexical Clusters and Depiction of Three Main Characters

At the very beginning of the novel, the narrator recalls the impression Gatsby makes on him, which sets the tone of the story:

Only Gatsby, the man who gives his name to this book, was exempt from my reaction -- Gatsby, who represented every thing for which I have an unaffected scorn. If personality is an unbroken series of successful gestures, then there was something gorgeous about him, some heightened sensitivity to the promises of life, as if he were related to one of those intricate machines that register earthquakes ten thousand miles away. This responsiveness had nothing to do with that flabby impressionability which is dignified under the name of the 'creative temperament' -- it was an extraordinary gift for hope, a romantic readiness such as I have never found in any other person and which it is not likely I shall ever find again. (p. 8)

Lexically speaking, there are not a few abstract nouns commenting on Gatsby in this passage, many of which are modified by multi-syllabic adjectives, such as "something gorgeous, heightened sensitivity, promises, responsiveness, impressionability, temperament, extraordinary gift for hope, romantic readiness". This lexical cluster, indicating personal quality and temperament rather than outward appearance of Gatsby, leads our attention to the speech and thought of the character, and his dreamy inner world, rather than on the local realistic world of the novel. The recurrence of a number of abstract nouns reveals Gatsby's idealistic aspect of personality, and sets up an illusive world, which he is eager to hold but in which there is nothing substantial. This seems to indicate that Gatsby's ideal is unattainable and his American Dream is doomed to corruption. Thus from the opening of the story, the narrator sets Gatsby's idealistic and tragic image.

Characterization in *The Great Gatsby* is not a straightforward business since it is frequently developed through nuance, through employment of suggestive words rather than revealed through objective description. See the following rare example that is used to describe Gatsby directly:

He smiled understandingly--much more than understandingly. It was one of those rare smiles with a quality of eternal reassurance in it, that you may come across four or five times in life. It face--or seemed to face--the whole eternal world for an instant, and then concentrated on you with an irresistible prejudice in your favor. (p. 49)

It is supposed to be a description of Gatsby's outward smile, but abstract words like "eternal reassurance, eternal world, and irresistible prejudice" are still related to Gatsby's personal temperament. "Eternal reassurance and irresistible prejudice" together with "concentrated" justify Gatsby's understanding smile that is to be taken seriously and apparently reflect the purposefulness in Gatsby's personality. Besides purposefulness and romantic idealism, Gatsby is also a personification of features like wealth, ostentation, selfishness, materialism and criminality, some of which overlap with those of other characters in the novel. (Cooperman, 1996: 60) But it is the polarization from others marked by words indicating romantic idealism that sets Gatsby apart from the other major characters in the novel and constitutes the constantly reiterated foundation of the narrator's approval of him. Thus the author's moral attitude is revealed through his use of lexical clusters.

In contrast to Gatsby's romantic idealism is the leisure class's emptiness, a case in point is the portrayal of Tom Buchanan, one of the major characters in the novel, who together with Daisy, his wife, is the prime representative of the upper society, symbolizing the corruption of the American Dream. And this is apparent in the lexical items used to characterize him.

Words that depict Tom include: restlessness, physical strength, virility, athleticism, dandyism, wealth, materialism, extravagance, vulgarity, possessiveness, jealously, untrustworthiness, selfishness, carelessness, cruelty, physical violence, aggression, arrogance, cynicism, contemptuousness, insolence, prejudice, shallowness. Many of these features are explicitly stated, or implied, in the two pages very early in the novel which introduce Tom into the story. For example, when Nick the narrator introduces the Buchanans, he first uses such words to introduce the reader to the kind of hedonistic lifestyle they lead: "drifted here and there unrestfully", (p. 11) "I felt that Tom would drift on forever seeking, a little wistfully, for the dramatic turbulence of some irrecoverable football game." (p. 12)

Their lives without purposes and the idea of the Buchanans' mental or moral as well as physical rootlessness are conveyed through the use of lexical items with the semantic meaning of restlessness.

The narrator's direct description of Tom is also focused on his unrestfulness. We all remember Fitzgerald's physical description of Buchanan -- "a great pack of muscle shifting when his shoulder moved under his thin coat" (p. 12). As the narrator arrives at his home, Tom talks to him on his porch, "his eyes flashing about restlessly" (p. 13). Later they go into the living room, where he is described as "hovering restlessly about the room" (p. 15). Incidents and phrases amplify and dramatize these semantic features as the novel progresses, picking up and highlighting what Nick sees as the crucial ones as he moves towards a judgment on Tom.

Some of the constituent features which define Tom occur in some other lexical clusters, so Tom overlaps with Daisy in other respects (handsomeness, selfishness, restlessness). They are all classified as purposeless, hopeless, and spiritually dead. Lexical items with overlapping semantic features appear so frequently that they become a clue to a fuller understanding of all that happens: they suggest the discontent and unfulfillment, the waste and frustration of energies, the lack of ideals, beliefs and goals which plagues everyone in the book.

Thus, lexical clusters with different semantic features, as a technique for the analysis of the character, serve as the basis for the categorization of characters.

II. Grammatical Category

A. Narrative Sentence Type

In English, degrees of formality are indicated by linguistic features at phonological, lexical and grammatical/syntactic levels. Fitzgerald's syntactic formality is greatly demonstrated through his relatively long narrative sentence type. As a consequence, readers are likely to feel that Fitzgerald's style of writing is rather more demanding and appears more formal. This formal and serious register, the complexity of which is vivid in describing inner feelings and emotional changes, helps to highlight the narrator's complex feelings towards his era: his lament over the corruption of the American Dream and the moral decadence, and his admiration for Gatsby's romanticism and idealism. (Cooperman, 1996: 96)

In spite of the comparatively high sentence-length average, sentences in *The Great Gatsby* are not particular complex in the sense that we do not find many examples of clauses embedded inside other clauses. There is some subordination, but it would appear that most of the complexity in the extract occurs at phrasal level, and the dominant pattern of clauses in this extract would appear to be a series of main clauses coordinated together. For more detailed analysis of this syntactic texture, look at the following example:

The groups change more swiftly, swell with new arrivals, dissolve and form in the same breath; already there are wanderers, confident girls who weave here and there among the stouter and more stable, become for a sharp, joyous moment the center of a group, and then, excited with triumph, glide on through the sea-change of faces and voices and color under the constantly changing light. (p. 42)

This is the longest sentence (74 words) in the description about Gatsby's oncoming party, thus comparatively complex. However even the longest sentence carries no loss of clarity: its first clause is composed of four coordinated verbs, and coordinated with it is a "there" construction accompanied by an apposition. The apposition "confident girls" is embedded with a defining clause, in which "weave", "become", and "glide", three verbs coordinate together. The syntactic analysis of the long sentence apparently shows the author's preference for coordination over subordination. As a consequence, the passage is reasonably easy to read, because it takes less mental effort for readers to unscramble clauses in coordination.

Different sentence structures take on different thematic values and literary significance. In the sentence examined above, the coordination of verbs in alliance with their simple, or non-progressive aspect, helps to make the description appear to move quickly from one group to the next rather than dwell on particular moments for a long time, hence highlighting the atmosphere of chaos and mindlessness.

B. Use of Appositional Phrases

On the level of plot, the sophisticated narrator seems to criticize the American Dream, its illusions and excesses -- he refers scornfully to Gatsby's "appalling sentimentality" (p. 107) and to the "foul dust" that "floated in the wake of his dreams" (p. 8). But syntactically, in some of the most beautifully written and memorable lines of the novel, Nick demonstrates not scorn but, rather, ready sympathy for Gatsby and for those ideological presuppositions that underlie Gatsby's ambitions. Nick tells Gatsby's story in a lyrical style. This lyricism is accomplished grammatically in the continuation of sentences seemingly reluctant to end. A representative of this syntactic feature is the appositional phrase, in which his sympathy for Gatsby's ideological presupposition as well as his condemnation to aimless pursuit and capitalist aspiration is clearly seen.

In Nick's narrative, the first part of the sentences, sometimes just an independent clause, does the work of plot development, moving the narrative forward in time and place and event, but the second part -- some drawn-out endings, often syntactically unnecessary -- can go on to evoke accumulations of romantic sensitivity -- feelings or indefinite excitements. These sentence endings frequently constructed with elaborate appositions cultivate heightened sensation, and reveal the romantic conceits and aspirations of these ambitious people.

Consider Nick's account of Gatsby's entry into his dream world:

For a while these reveries provided an outlet for his imagination; they were a satisfactory hint of the unreality of reality, a promise that the rock of the world was founded securely on a fairy's wing. (pp. 95-96)

This sentence begins with a time-adverbial, establishing duration and "reveries" as what is being talked about. Then through a second-start "they", it elaborates itself into apposition, which is syntactically unnecessary and surplus, but seemingly caused by sensitivity to words like "imagination" and "reverie". In the lush ending of the sentence occurs the "fairy's wing" that is connected directly to the embodiment of Gatsby's dreaming, Daisy Buchanan, whose maiden name is Fay. Nick hereby conveys a magical destiny to Gatsby's adventure.

Another example occurs when Nick describes Gatsby's romantic excitement as a young army officer when he first views Daisy's house:

There was a ripe mystery about it, a hint of bedrooms more beautiful and cool than other bedrooms, of gay and radiant activities taking place through its corridors, and of romances that were not musty and laid away already in lavender, but fresh and breathing and redolent of this year's shining motor-cars and of dances whose flowers were scarcely withered. (p. 141)

These sentence endings sketch over "beautiful bedrooms, radiant activities, romances laid away in lavender, shinning motor-cars and flowers scarcely withered", all of which make up a world of wealth and possessions. Everything contained in this appositive is suggestive, displaying the mystery as well as wealth that surround Daisy, thus depicting her as a golden girl beyond Gatsby's dream.

The sentence's surplus or even exorbitance can carry across the sentence boundary, producing a variant on the appositional structure -- the sentence fragment. In the novel, Nick reflects on Gatsby's statement of Daisy's voice:

It was full of money -- that was the inexhaustible charm that rose and fell in it, the jingle of it, the cymbals' song of it…. High in a white palace the king's daughter, the golden girl ….(p. 115)

The double appositional construction, "the jingle of it, the cymbals' song of it", is in apposition to "the inexhaustible charm that rose and fell in it". This construction seems inexhaustible itself, endlessly responding to itself: ellipses here seem to signify the sentence's resistance to closure, suggesting that the sentence has no conclusion just like dream, once this syntactic resource and these wordings of romance are in play. Then the abundance of this appositional surplus spills over the receding sentence boundary in a syntactic fragment, and finally sets sight on the transformative goal: "High in a white palace the king's daughter, the golden girl". All these appositional structures seem like an imitation of Gatsby's process of dream striving and attaining.

C. Use of Prepositional Phrases

Another excellent use of syntactical features lies in Fitzgerald's employment of prepositional phrases. Prepositional phrases usually function as adverbials and hence are grammatically extraneous -- in other words, they could be moved around the sentence or deleted altogether. But the fact that they are grammatically extraneous does not mean that they are semantically extraneous. On the contrary, the writer masterly uses prepositional phrases to convey much of the scene-setting and atmosphere of a text. Consider the following passage in the novel:

Already it was deep summer on roadhouse roofs and in front of wayside garages, where new red petrol-pumps sat out in pools of light and when I reached my estate at West Egg I ran the car under its shed and sat for a while on an abandoned grass roller in the yard. The wind had blown off, leaving a loud, bright night, with wings beating in the trees and a persistent organ sound as the full bellows of the earth blew the frogs full of life. The silhouette of a moving cat wavered across the moonlight, and, turning my head to watch it, I saw that I was not alone -- fifty feet away a figure had emerged from the shadow of my neighbor's mansion and was standing with his hand in his pockets regarding the silver pepper of the stars. Something in his leisurely movements and the secure position of his feet upon the lawn suggested that it was Mr. Gatsby himself, come out to determine what share was his of our local heavens. (p.25)

This passage consists of four sentences, each containing several prepositional phrases. As Lara Wright and Jonathan Hope (2000: 152) point out, prepositions have an orientating function, that is, they can function to anchor a text in time and space. This implies an awareness who is doing the orienting, and who is being oriented. Take the first sentence in the above extract for example. Without the prepositional phrases such as "a roadhouse roofs, in front of wayside garages, out in pools of light, at West Egg, under its shed, for a while, on an abandoned grass roller, and in the yard", the sentence still functions grammatically, and the action is conveyed, but we as readers do not know whereabouts the action happens, and therefore cannot infer why it happens. Thus the effect is weakened. Meanwhile, the plurality of the noun like "roofs, garages, petrol-pumps" gives clues from which we can infer that it was deep summer in all these places. However, the adjectives "house, wayside" serve to restrict the nouns, indicating that it is summer not on all roofs and in front of all garages, only "roadhouse roofs, and wayside garages with new red petrol-pumps outside". Therefore, what sounds like a broad statement about the season turns out to be a highly specific description of a particular location. This precision of location gives this sentence a slightly disturbing tension because later on in the novel, Myrtle Wilson is killed in an accident that has occurred just at such a wayside garage, that is, the author already predicts events to come in this description.

In this extract, all four sentences with prepositional phrases have the cumulative effect of withholding the new information till the last sentence: the introduction of Gatsby, thus creating suspense.

From this example, we can clearly see that prepositional phrases can produce the effect of locating a passage in time or space, thus providing a good way to describe the surroundings and evoke moods; it can also act as a delaying tactic, serving to generate suspense as well as to create interest and expectation.

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Main Influence of the Chinese Language on English Learners

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***Abstract*—This thesis focuses on how the Chinese language influences English learners, which will help English learners to recognize their difficulties in English learning and know how to break away interference from their native language.**

***Index Terms*—the English language, the Chinese language, discourse, syntax, lexicon**

I. Introduction

The L1 (Chinese) influence on l2 (English) learning catches great attention of language teaching expertise in China. Much of research has be done on how the Chinese language having an impact on English learners. Guo Cui (2001) generalizes the development of the studies of language transfer on the basis of Behaviorism, Universal Grammar and Cognitivism, makes an analysis of language transferability and characterization of language transfer and concludes by pointing out the implications of the studies of language transfer to English teaching. Guo Chunjie and Liu Fang (1997) offer a cognitive framework for explaining L1 (Chinese) influence on L2 (English) learner's thinking operations during L2 production. In the study, they apply Think Aloud (TA) to detect what is going on in the mind without significant interference from outside. In conclusion, they point out that: (1) L1 (Chinese) influence plays a more significant role in L2 (English) production than traditionally supposed; (2) L1 influence on L2 production is largely covert, it lies in the high-level cognitive operations in language production. Thus, Chinese influence on English learners is inevitable and primarily manifests itself on syntax and lexical usage, as the following will illustrate.

II. Main Influences on Discourse Patterns

Different thought patterns of English and Chinese inexorably cause the distinctions of their discourse structures. However, most Chinese students are not aware of it. They usually comply the discourse structures of their native language to develop English ones, which will bring about faults in discourse construction. The following test will provide a more or less support about it.

The test designed by E. O. Winter in 1976 is used to examine students' competence of English discourse construction. The test requires students to put 10 disrupted sentences into proper order.

A Comparison of Two National Approaches to the Problem of 1ce Roads:

(1) In English, however, the tungsten-tipped spikes would tear the thin tarmac surfaces of our roads to pieces as soon as the protective layer of snow or ice melted. (2) Road maintenance crews try to reduce the danger of skidding by scattering sand upon the road surfaces. (3) We therefore have to settle for the method described above as the lesser of two evils. (4) Their spikes grip the icy surfaces and enable the motorist to corner safely where non-spiked tyres would be disastrous. (5) Its main drawback is that if there are fresh snowfalls the whole process has to be preheated, and if the snowfalls continue, it becomes increasingly ineffective in providing some kind of grip for tyres. (6) These tyres prevent most skidding and are effective in the extreme weather conditions as long as the roads are regularly cleared of loose snow. (7) Such a measure is generally adequate for our very brief snowfalls. (8) Whenever there is snow in England, some of the country roads may have black ice. (9) In Norway, where there may be snow and ice for nearly seven months of the year, the law requires that all cars be fitted with special steel spiked tyres. (10) Motorists coming suddenly upon stretches of black ice may find themselves skidding off the road.

The students examined: 57 college students who major in international trade and law in their second years.

The standard examined: According to the evaluating standard of E. O. Winter, it is considered not to pass the test if there are four or more than four errors. In addition, if the first or last sentence is chosen incorrectly, it also is considered an error .The following is the statistics.

Table1.
Error rate for discourse construction

Students	Unpassing%	Error in the first sentence%	Error in the last sentence%
57	92.59	96.29	29.62

The statistic data displays that student's competence of discourse construction is poor. The cause might be that students are unfamiliar with the features of English discourse. This essay is the general-particular pattern which moves from a general statement about the subject to a detailed discussion that provides specific evidence, examples, and analysis to support or elaborate upon the general statement. So, developing this organizational pattern, the general statement should be put in the beginning. Having less knowledge on English general-particular pattern, most students don’t know which sentence is the embodiment of degree of generality and put sentence 9 by mistake in the beginning instead of sentence 8. As a result, most of them didn’t pass the test.

III. Main Influence on Syntax

Syntax refers to the rules of grammar, which can be used for ordering and connecting words in a sentence. The syntactic unit is one of the importances in any language structure, because at this level communication may be realized. The English sentence centers around the verb and it may be formulated as below.

S (sentence) = Nph (Noun Phrase) +Vph (Verb Phrase)

“Some of the modern Chinese grammarians, basing themselves on the analysis of the Chinese structure and the description of the Chinese sentences, hold that a Chinese sentence is based on two parts: THEME and RHYME. By ‘theme’, they mean the topic; and by ‘rhyme’, they mean the comment” (Xiao Liming, 2002:106). So comes the general formula:

S (sentence)=T (heme) + R (hyme)

English is a subject-prominent language, while Chinese is a topic-prominent language. But not all topics mean subjects. In *Longman Modern English Dictionary,* the definition of subject refers to a noun, noun phrase, or pronoun that comes before a main verb and represents the person or thing that performs the action of the verb or about which something is stated. So, in English, only noun, noun phrase and pronoun can be used as subject. In Chinese, almost every part of speech can be used as subject, including noun, verb, adjective, adverb, phrase, etc.

For example:

1.等待不能解决问题.（a verb as subject）

2.我这几天不休息没关系。 (A phrase of subject-predicted as subject)

3.开创新局面是我们的共同任务。 (A phrase of verb-object as subject)

4.太慢了不好，太急了也不好。(Adjective as subjects) (quoted in Xiao Liming, 2000:97)

The differences in syntactical structures of English and Chinese lead to difficulties for language learners to have a good mastery of the norms of English sentences. In speech and writing there are two types of errors especially likely to arise from differences in Chinese and English: (1) substitutions, (2) calques of structures. Substitutions involve a use of native language forms in the target language, for example the following sentences. Here, F stands for false English sentences written by our students; T stands for true English sentences.

F. In the college study is our dream. (A prepositional phrase as subject)

T. Studying in the college is our dream.

F. Too easy or too difficult is no good for us (Adjectives as subjects)

T. The books, which are too easy or too difficult, are no good for us.

Calques are errors that reflect very closely a native language structure. The following sentences are written by our students.

(1) I felt study of graduate is very busy.

我感到本科生的学习非常忙。

(2) I have a healthy body and clever head.

我有健康的身体和聪明的脑袋。

(3)His body looks well.

他的身体看上去很好。

A longer subject is one of taboos in English syntactical structure. In order to avoid it, a formal subject “it” is used to replace the real subject, which is the most difficult pattern for Chinese students to master and apply, because there doesn’t exist the phenomena in Chinese for example the following sentences. Here, F also stands for false English sentences written by students; T stands for true English sentences.

F. I know study is very hard.

T. I know it is a hard job to study.

F. The factory produces them isn’t a difficult thing.

T. It isn’t difficult for the factory to produce them.

Odlin (1989:37) indicates that if learners sense that particular structures in the target language are very different from counterparts in the native language, they may try to avoid using those structures. The attributive usage modes in English are a case in point. In *Longman Modern English Dictionary,* the definition of attributive is of an adjective, noun or phrase to describe and come before a noun. Generally speaking, there are three modes between the attributive modifiers and head terms, that is (a) the attributive modifier→the head word; (b) the attributive modifier→the head word ←the attributive modifier; (c) the head word←the attributive modifier. In the three modes, only mode (a) is an obvious correspondence between English and Chinese, for example, thunderous applause (雷鸣般的掌声), convincing remarks

(掷地有声的话语)，splendid opportunity (绝妙的机会), etc. But, to the later two modes, it is difficult for students to learn and apply them. It is estimated that more than 50 percent college students try to avoid using or to use fewer those modes.

IV. Main Influence on Lexical Usage

The English language is orthographic spelling; while the Chinese language is ideographic character. They are different in word formation, morphology and in lexical usage. The prominent characteristics of English lexicon are its inflectional change. For instance, the simple word "sign", means "a mark", now you add an affix to that word and you get signify, "to make a mark". Next you add another affix, and you arrive at significant "making a mark". Now you add a prefix for a change and you have insignificant, "making no mark". Finally you add another suffix, and you come out with insignificance, "the making of no mark". What did you do? You took a simple noun, and made it successively into a verb, an adjective, and another adjective and again a noun. It is the inflection that not only enriches the English terms but also transfers some concrete terms into abstract ones. For example, some adjectives and verbs are changed into abstract nouns such as happiness, humility, occupation, movement, etc. by adding affixes. These abstract nouns are extensively used in the English language. But, the Chinese lexicon has no inflectional change. Lian Shuneng indicates that in Chinese dictionary, it is difficult for us to seek for a precise Chinese word whose meaning can equate definitely to an abstract English noun which is transferred from an adjective or a verb (1993:501). So, English word "realization" can be translated into many concrete nouns and verbs in Chinese like "实现"，"认为"，"认清"，"了解"，"体会"，"领悟"，"变卖"，"换取"，etc. The difference in lexicons of English and Chinese frequently causes students' errors in translating. For example:

In handling the materials of history, each act of *selection* is also an act of *judgment.*

在处理历史资料时，每一次<u>选择</u>的行为都是一次<u>判断</u>。

In this case, students make mistakes because they don't know that in English, some abstract nouns imply the meanings of verbs, which usually should be translated into Chinese in verbs. So, the correct translation of this sentence is like this:

在处理历史资料时，每<u>选</u>一项资料就是<u>作出</u>一种判断。

V. Conclusion

Generally speaking, Chinese influence on English learners is inevitable. The cause might be that Chinese students know less the similarities and dissimilarities of the English language and the Chinese language. This has consequently. So, it is very imperative for English teachers to draw a detailed comparison on English and Chinese in their teaching, which will help learners to break away interference from their native language.

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Implication of Studies on Bilingualism for SLA

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***Abstract*—Cognitively speaking, bilingualism has witnessed so many challenges and developments in practical and theoretical parts. The aim of this article is to describe and study bilingualism from different perspectives of social, individual, cognitive, psychological and political issues. To this end, this article will go through the following stages: What is Bilingual and Bilingual Education and Cognitive Processing? There are several factors which indicate what kind of decision (selective or nonselective) might be made. These include L2 proficiency, language intermixing, task demands, and instruction. Language intermixing refers to whether an experiment contains exclusively items that belong to one language (block presentation) or items from two languages (mixed presentation). Therefore, (1) lexical codes from different languages are activated in parallel on the basis of an input string; (2) selection of the lexical candidate that is identified appears to take place rather late in the recognition process; and (3) several factors affect the ultimately arising result patterns, the most important of which are a participant's L2 proficiency level, the requirements of task, and the blocked or mixed presentation of items from different languages.**

***Index Terms*—bilingualism, bilingual education, cognitive processing**

I. Introduction

There has been a universal tendency to examine bilingualism from a dichotomous perspective; i.e., coordinate vs. compound bilingualism (Weinreich 1953 cited in Ellis, 1994), early vs. late bilingualism (Lambert 1981 cited in Cook, 2001), simultaneous vs. successive bilingualism (McLaughlin 1985 cited in Ellis, 1994), additive vs. subtractive bilingualism (Lambert 1974 cited in Ellis, 1994), elite vs. folk bilingualism (Skutnabb-Kangas 1981), integration vs. assimilation, and separation vs. marginalization bilingualism (Cook, 2001). Such distinctions are made in reference to certain aspects of either individuals or social groups. For example, Cook (2001, p. 152) described compound and coordinate bilinguals as those "who link the two languages in their minds, or keep them apart respectively." However, the dichotomous distinction between additive vs. subtractive bilingualism refers to the social aspect of language, whereas in additive the individual would like to add to his or her native language the cultural aspect of second language. In subtractive, learners feel that learning a new language threatens what they have already gained for themselves. Assimilation bilingualism refers to the eventual dying out of the first language, while integration refers to a multi-lingual state where the languages exist alongside each other in harmony. Also, separation bilingualism refers to the state that different languages are spoken in physically separate regions, while marginalization refers to the state where neither native nor target culture and language are valued.

No single definition of individual bilingualism is broad enough to cover all instances of individuals who are called "bilingual." The range can extend from native-like control of two or more languages, to possessing minimal communicative skills in a second or foreign language. The former will exclude most individuals and create a new definitional problem of what native-like control of a language means. Most experts in the field prefer the latter as the beginning point from which a variety of bilingual skills can develop, including biliteracy (Baker, 2002; Faltis, 2002). This is true for societal bilingualism: While socially and politically a person is called monolingual, linguistically and cognitively speaking the same person is called bilingual through the assimilation process, e.g., Kurdish language and Kurds in Iran.

Cognitively speaking, bilingualism has witnessed many challenges and developments practically and theoretically. For example, in the realm of word representation, comprehension, and production, literature has witnessed a dramatic change in its paradigms. At one time, development of the bilingual lexicon was delineated in the "word association model," later within the concept of mediation model and now is described and explained within the revised hierarchical model (Kroll, Michael, Tokowicz, and Dufour, 2006; Kroll and Dijkstra, 2002; Kroll and Tokowicz, 2001; Sunderman and Kroll, 2006). The aim of this article is to describe and study bilingualism from different perspectives of social, individual, cognitive, psychological and political issues. To this end, this article will go through the following stages:

What is Bilingual and Bilingual Education;
Cognitive Processing

II. What is Bilingual and Bilingual Education

Understanding bilingual education requires a series of multidisciplinary perspectives (Baker, 2002). This includes pedagogic, language planning, political, economic, public (opinion) (Krashen, 1999 cited in Baker, 2002), sociolinguistic (Mckay and Hornberger, 1996 cited in Baker, 2002), psychological (Baker, 1996, cited in Baker, 2002), historical (Kloss, 1998 cited in Baker, 2002), and national perspectives (Cummins and Corson, 1997). The complexity of bilingual education compounds when one notices the componentiality of pedagogy which can be divided into teaching methodology, learning strategies, curriculum resourcing, teacher training, and school organization.

The first perspective is the viewpoint of language planners. Language planning gained in it importance when issues such as language maintenance, revitalization, and reversal of language shift came into notice (Baker, 2002). According to Baker (2002), for a language to survive, it should be loved and lived. Therefore, a minority's language which is not used in the community in television, school, and radio would be in danger of dying. According to Baker (2002, p.230), there are four major priorities that are associated with the survival and strengthening of a minority language: "Language reproduction in the family"—when families do not use the minority language at home, language will decline; "Language production from preschool education through formal schooling to adult education"—most education is done through standard language; "using the minority language for economic purpose"—when there is no real value in the employment market for minority language; "social, cultural, and leisure participation through the minority language." As far as cultural and social aspects are concerned, minority language use is encouraged when it is culturally valued and when it is used enjoyably in cultural and leisure activities. Literacy is also an important matter in language survival; "any language without literacy in this century may be in grave danger of dying out" (Baker, 2002, p. 232). Elsewhere, Faltis (2002) argues that national as well as local views on the use of bilingualism or multilingualism have powerful effects on the ways the language or languages are distributed in educational and social contexts. Patriotism, for example, is considered a main reason to hinder the use of Multilanguage in the schools in the United States. As Faltis and Hudelson (1998 cited in Faltis, 2002) wrote, the purpose of education in the United States is "transitional" in the sense that it moves students from their native language to English as quickly as possible.

An alternative approach to bilingual education is "dual language bilingual education" (Lindholm and Molina, 2000 cited in Faltis, 2002) or "two-way immersion or maintenance bilingual programs" (Faltis and Hudelson, 1998 cited in Faltis, 2002). In this type of education, two different language groups are enrolled in a school to learn through each others' native language. The purposes of such an educational program are "(1) learn the language of the others, (2) achieve academically in both languages, and (3) come to appreciate each others' languages and cultures" (Faltis, 2002, p. 279). Although applauded as a valuable goal, non-dominant language even in such programs is less valued in schools. For example, although English speakers learning French in French immersion schools were praised for their efforts in learning French, they know that learning French for them was not a social goal but an instrumental one. Therefore, minority children in dual language programs are expected to acquire high levels of English, the language of power, business, and education.

There are three key limitations to the language planning perspective of bilingual education: (1) bilingual education for the sake of language not the child, (2) having a limited view of the functions and purposes of education, and (3) being overly optimistic in revitalizing a language minority. Although educationalists argue for bilingual education from different perspectives, they agree that bilingual education displays eight merits over monolingual education. These are: (1)developing more than one language proficiency, children would have more options in patterns of communication; (2)bilingual education develops a broader enculturation; (3)bilingual education can easily lead to bi-literacy or multi-literacy; (4)bilingual children can enjoy certain cognitive benefits; (5)bilingual children may enjoy high esteem; (6)curriculum achievement increases through bilingual education; (7)bilingual education has an important role in establishing the security of identity at a local, regional, and national level; and (8)bilingualism has an advantage in securing jobs.

Bilingual education, however, faces several limitations and disadvantages. First, according to Cummins (2000 cited in Baker, 2002), bilingual education may not guarantee effective schooling. Second, the type and use and register related issues in bilingual education are a problem. And third, language learning in bilingual education may stop at the school gates.

Politics also has played an important role in bilingual education research. Whenever bilingual education exists, politics is close by. Behind bilingual education there are always expressions of political ideology, tides of political change, and the political initiative. The existence of LEP (limited English proficiency) between 1978 and 2000 in California indicates the importance of the issue in political matter in the United States. Cummins (1999 cited in Baker, 2002) also believes that different theories in SLA, such as thresholds, interdependence, and conversational and academic language proficiency, are supported by research and answer a range of policy issues.

III. Community Forces as Context

How minority language and bilingual communities perceive and respond to their past and present treatment in schools constitutes what Ogbu (1983 as cited in Faltis, 2002) refers to as "community forces." The concept would indicate the extent to which bilingual children can succeed in school. Ogbu argues that language-minority groups who were originally conquered, colonized, or enslaved develop cultural models or belief systems to form their identities and guide their actions in society. Such systems work through folk theories, and intra-group social capital. Community members begin to form belief systems about the value of their ways of doing things, including language learning and use, as compared to the dominant ways of behaving. The degree to which language-minority communities trust the school and school staffs also contributes to community forces as a context for bilingualism development in schools.

IV. Pedagogical Orientations and Teacher Abilities as Context

Pedagogical orientations and teacher abilities in all levels of education both reflect societal and community forces, and create context in which bilingual children are prepared for society in school (Edelsky, 1991 cited in Faltis, 2002). This includes a variety of factors for administrators, school board members, and teachers as well as members of the dominant society. Administrators and teachers who see the language minority deviated from their native language and culture believe that providing students with too much exposure to their native language would be a waste of their time and energy. Therefore, learners in such an area will be minimally supported in their native language. This is called the assimilationist perspective. On the other hand, in a context where administrators and the school faculty advocate for cultural pluralism, the additive approach to bilingualism, the bilinguals will have the opportunity to develop into highly biliterate individuals.

Pedagogy defines how a teacher understands the nature of teaching and learning and his or her theoretical commitments to practices in the classroom. However, it might differ in orientation. Teachers are either transactional-oriented or transitional-oriented. Broadly speaking, transactional-oriented bilingual teachers rely on a holistic approach to teaching and learning. In their approach, teaching is a matter of moving students from literacy practices to multiple literacy practices including knowledge about how language works. From this point of view, language acquisition and learning takes place through participation in social activities in which learners use many forms and functions of language. Learners in such a context will develop into bilinguals who can manage to work with two systems effectively for multiple academic purposes. Therefore, learners might use their native language even if they are proficient in a second language. They are not pushed into using a second language at all. On the other hand, transmission-oriented bilingual teachers view teaching and learning as a matter of giving learners the language and knowledge they need to succeed on tests. In such a context, learners only pay attention to the knowledge and the content information which is broken into bits and pieces they need to master. These learners see learning as an activity on worksheets, homework, and standardized tests. Therefore, biliteracy is presented as a set of skills in two languages, but native language skills are valued only to the extent that they enable students to perform well on dominant-language standardized tests.

Another way of differentiating the contexts is related to teachers' pedagogical orientation. There are two different types of teachers in this respect. One group of teachers translate much of what they say and write from one language to the other to ensure that all learners understand and to move the lesson along. Although it seems that both languages are used in this context, learners would not pay attention to the dominant language (Wong Fillmore and Valadez, 1986 cited in Faltis, 2002). Another context is where teachers use both languages interchangeably. Such teachers are highly supportive of additive bilingualism. However, students in such contexts see their native language as a bridge to English.

V. Cognitive Processing

De Bot (2002) explains bilingual cognitive process through mechanisms of language "selection" and language "separation." He believed that such mechanisms are applicable both in full bilinguals and in incipient learners of second language. He stated that code-switching (henceforth CS) is a source of data through which to study these mechanisms. CS is a unique process in which various layers of processing more than one language are involved. One of the famous models in code-switching is Levelt's speaking model (1989 cited in De Bot, 2002). The model delineates the speaking process through different modules of (1) the conceptualizer, (2) the formulator, and (3) the articulator.

In the conceptualizer module, communicative intentions are translated into messages that can function as an input to the speech production system. According to Levelt (1989 cited in De Bot, 2002), there are two planning types in processing: macroplanning and microplanning. Levelt defined macroplanning as the planning of a speech act, the selection of information to be expressed, and the linearization of that information. Microplanning refers to propositionalization of the event to be expressed, the perspective taken, and certain language-specific decisions that have an effect on the form of the message to be conveyed. The output is a "preverbal" message that consists of all the information needed by the next module, the formulator, to convert the communicative intention into speech.

The formulator converts the preverbal message into a speech plan (phonetic plan) by the selection of lexical items and the application of grammatical and phonological rules. Lexical items are composed of two parts: a lemma and the morphophonological form, or lexeme. A lemma represents the lexical entry's meaning and syntax, while a lexeme represents its morphological and phonological properties. In production, lexical items are activated by matching the meaning part of the lemma with the semantic information in the preverbal message. Lexicon information is available in two stages: first semantic activation occurs, then form activation. The lemma information of a lexical item concerns both conceptual specifications of its use, such as pragmatic and stylistic information, and (morpho-) syntactic information such as syntactic category and grammatical functions as well as information on syntactical encoding (number, tense, aspect, mood, case, and pitch accent).

The next module is the articulator which converts the speech plan into actual speech. The output from the formulator is processed and temporarily stored in such a way that the phonetic plan can be fed back to the speech-comprehension system and the speech can be produced at normal speed. And the last module is a speech-comprehension system connected with an auditory system. This module plays a role in two ways: the phonetic plan and overt speech are passed on to the speech-comprehension system, where mistakes can be traced. Then speech understanding is modeled as the mirror image of language production, and the lexicon is assumed to be shared by the two systems.

The Levelt model was developed for monolingual language development. To apply this model to CS, one needs to clarify to what extent the present model is capable of handling bilingual speech. According to Poulisse (1997 cited in De Bot, 2002), there are two types of code switching: motivated switches and performance switches. Motivated switches refer to deliberately switching from L2 to L1 while performance switches refers to unintentionally switching from L2 to L1.

Psycho-linguistically, CS and keeping languages apart are different aspects of the same phenomenon. Paradis (1981 cited in De Bot, 2002, p.292) has proposed the subset hypothesis, according to which "words (but also syntactic rules or phonemes) from a given language form a subset of the total inventory." This subset can be activated independently, or overlapped in the form of cognates. According to the subset hypothesis, bilingual speakers have stores for lemmas, lexemes, syntactic rules, morphophonological rules and elements, and articulatory elements. Within each of these stores there are subsets for different languages, varieties, styles, and registers.

A lemma consists of three parts: semantic specification, syntactic information, and pointer to a particular lexeme. The semantic specification refers to a set of conceptual conditions under which the lemma can be appropriately used. The syntactic information refers to the syntactic category of a lemma and its grammatical functions. Finally, the third type of information in the lemma is a pointer to a lexeme. The pointer contains the phonological specifications of a lemma and the morphological makeup. Experimental data from tip-of-the-tongue research shows that as speakers were able to retrieve a lemma, such as phonological encoding, different types of information come together, prosodic metrical and segmental information, but the speakers could not find the lexeme connected with it.

The process of lexical access happens through different stages as mentioned earlier. One important point is that these steps are serial in the sense that accessing one module should be preceded by accessing another module. This means that there is no possibility of conveying information from the conceptualizer to the formulator other than through the preverbal message. In other words, all information about language choice has to be included in some form in the preverbal message.

Another point to be mentioned is the concept of access to lemmas and lexis. Sometimes the cue values for both languages are high, because both have to get about equal access to the output system. In some cases, language turns out to be a less important cue than other semantic cues. In fact, the language cues in the preverbal message define what the system aims at. According to Levelt (1989 cited in De Bot, 2002), in speaking, the number of words produced in a given period of time can be very high, a rate of two to five words per second. This is not the case in bilinguals; reportedly, they need more time to retrieve words from memory than monolinguals (Mack, 1986 cited in De Bot, 2002). Elsewhere, Levelt (1989 cited in De Bot, 2002) mentioned that the language selection happens in a hierarchical order in the sense that activation of a lemma leads to the activation of grammatical procedures. This happens in the form of building the syntactic environment around the major categories of lemma; N, V, A, and P changed into NP, VP, AP, and PP in categorical procedure, then S-procedure, and the like. This is called procedural packages (Kempen and Hoenkamp, 1987 cited in De Bot, 2002).

VI. Switching Sites

There are several "switching sites" during the production process. At all of these switching sites, elements from a particular language can be selected (De Bot, 2002). There are different levels at which code-switching might happen. However, the literature primarily supports the theory that CS occurs with syntactic and morphological constraints. These possible levels of CS are briefly described below:

1. Lemma selection: A mismatch at the conceptual level may lead to the selection of a word from another language

2. Syntactic structure activation: Nortier (1989 cited in De Bot, 2002) identified a rank order of CS sites. The rank orders show that CS most likely occurs between coordinated sentences and around adverbs, and is less likely between a subordinated and main sentence or inside prepositional phrases.

3. The selection of lexemes: Morphemes have to be combined. Sometimes a stem from one language and a bound morpheme from another language is combined.

4. The output of the phonological encoding into the metrical spell-out

5. The output of the prosody generator as input for the address frames: Lexemes from one language combine with affix-like elements from another language.

6. The transition from address frames to phonological words: Use sounds and elements from one language in a phonological structure from another language.

Elsewhere, Kroll, and Dijkstra (2002, p. 301) question whether "bilinguals represent words in each language in a single lexicon or in separate lexicons and whether access to the lexicon is selective or not." They mention that to answer these questions there are several assumptions that should be taken into account. The first assumption is related to the relationship between representation and the process. According to this assumption, the form and the manner of access are independent dimensions (VanHeuven, Dijkstra, and Grainger (1998 cited in Kroll, and Dijkstra 2002). The second assumption is related to the way the lexicon itself is operationalized.

VII. The Revised Hierarchical Model

The revised hierarchical model (RHM) (Kroll and Stewart, 1994 cited in Kroll and Dijkstra, 2002) captures the idea that the shift from lexical to conceptual processing will increase with increase in L2 proficiency. This means that early in acquisition, the reliance on lexical-level connections between words in the two languages provided a means for transfer (Kroll and Tokowicz, 2001; Sunderman and Kroll, 2006). As you can see in figure -1-, the connection between L2 to L1 transfer is stronger than L1 to L2 transfer during early acquisition; however, the connection between L1 and concepts is stronger than between L2 and the concept.

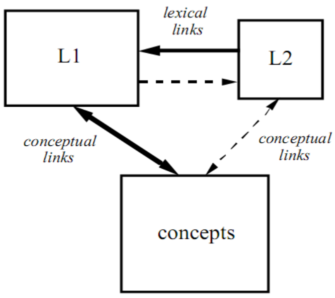

Figure 1

To test the model, Kroll and Stewart (1994 cited in Kroll and Dijkstra, 2002) examined translation performance in a group of highly fluent Dutch-English bilinguals. Two conditions were tested: Words to be translated were categorized semantically and randomly. Two types of translation were examined: forward and backward. The results suggest that forward translation from L1 to L2 was slower than backward translation from L2 to L1. The RHM assumed independent lexical representations for words in each language. There is another model which is called bilingual interactive activation model which is a computer simulation model which can account for both parallel access and asymmetrical access to words.

VIII. The Bilingual Interactive Activation Model(BIA)

This model is a computer model for bilingual visual word recognition that incorporates one possible proposal. It consists of a network of hierarchically organized representational units of different kinds: feature, letters, words, and language nodes. According to this model, presentation of an input letter string leads to parallel activation of several possible words (the neighborhood) irrespective of language. Later, competition takes place between items from the same and different languages though the mechanism of "lateral inhibition." The BIA model can explain the asymmetries observed in unbalanced bilinguals. Kroll, Michael, Tokowicz, and Dufour (2002) studied two groups of native English speakers, one more and one less fluent in French as their L2, as they performed word-naming and translation tasks. Learners were slower and more error-prone to name and to translate words into L2 than more fluent bilinguals. However, there was also an asymmetry in translation performance such that forward translation was slower than backward translation. Learners were also slower than fluent bilinguals to name words in English, the L1 of both groups. In another experiment, Kroll, Michael, Tokowicz, and Dufour (2002) compared the performance of native English speakers at early stages of learning French or Spanish to the performance of fluent bilinguals on the same tasks. The goal was to determine whether the apparent cost to L1 reading was a consequence of L2 learning or a reflection of differences in cognitive abilities between learners and bilinguals. Experiment 2 replicated the main features of Experiment 1 and showed that bilinguals scored higher than learners on a measure of L1 reading span, but that this difference did not account for the apparent cost to L1 naming. They consider the implications of these results for models of the developing lexicon.

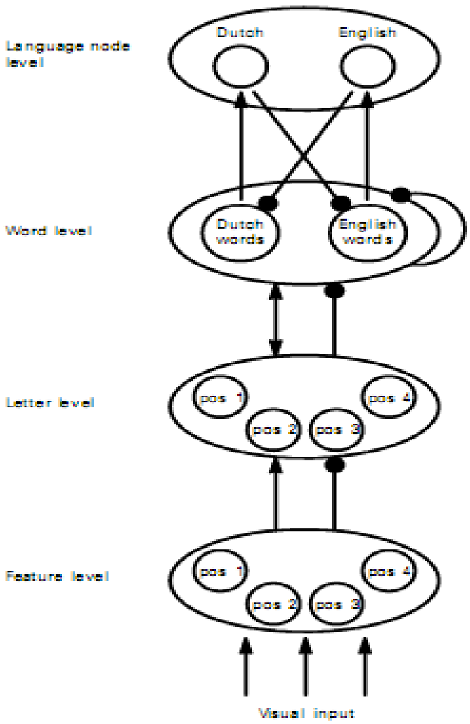

Figure 2

IX. COMPREHENSION VS. PRODUCTION IN BILINGUALS

Different bilingual models have tried to explain the processes and the result of comprehension and production. The fact that production is linear but comprehension might not be, causes scholars to differentiate between these two (Pienemann, 2003). One of the most frequently used tasks in monolingual and bilingual research is word recognition, in which the participants are to recognize the words orthographically, semantically, or phonologically (Kroll and Dijkstra, 2002; Kroll and Tokowicz, 2001; Sunderman and Kroll, 2006). There are different studies in this respect. For example, studies on ambiguous words suggest that different meanings of these words are initially activated during recognition. Other research includes studies on homographs, and homonyms. These studies show that homographs were read slower than homonyms and control words. The result of all these studies suggests two different access views: nonselective and language selective. According to the nonselective access view, it should not matter very much whether the co-activated lexical candidates belong to the same language or to another, i.e., interlingual activation of similar words during bilingual word recognition. In contrast, a language-selective access view refers to the idea that the presented word will activate the form and meaning representations only from the language that is currently selected. Different research indicates that lexical decisions were facilitated by cross-linguistic orthographic and semantic similarity relative to control words that belong only to English.

X. CONCLUSION

There are several factors which indicate what kind of decision (selective or nonselective) might be made. These include L2 proficiency, language intermixing, task demands, and instruction. Language intermixing refers to whether an experiment contains exclusively items that belong to one language (block presentation) or items from two languages (mixed presentation).

Therefore, (1) lexical codes from different languages are activated in parallel on the basis of an input string; (2) selection of the lexical candidate that is identified appears to take place rather late in the recognition process; and (3) several factors affect the ultimately arising result patterns, the most important of which are a participant's L2 proficiency level, the requirements of task, and the blocked or mixed presentation of items from different languages.

The most striking similarity between comprehension and production in bilinguals is the overwhelming evidence for nonselective access to words in both languages, regardless of whether the task logically permits the language of processing to be selected in advance. In both processes, the consequences of the lower L2 and L1 proficiency are in unbalanced bilinguals.

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Character-driven Theme Analysis in *Pride and Prejudice*

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***Abstract*—This paper aims to reveal Jane Austen's creative style of realism through an analysis of the major characters in Pride and Prejudice, which develops as the clue to the theme of a love story. Its essence as an entanglement of "rationality" and "emotionality" embodies the author's view of love and the voice of women's liberation.**

***Index Terms*—realism, major characters, pride, prejudice, love, theme**

I. An Introduction to the Novel and Jane Austen

Jane Austen was born at Steventon on December 16, 1775, the youngest of seven children. She received her education—scanty enough, by modern standards—at home. Besides the usual elementary subjects, she learned French and some Italian, sang a little, and became an expert needle-woman. Her reading extended little beyond the literature of the eighteenth century, and within that period she seems to have cared most for the novels of Richardson and Miss Burney, and the poems of Cowper and Crabbe. Dr. Johnson, too, she admired, and later was delighted with both the poetry and prose of Scott. The first twenty-five years of her life she spent at Steventon; in 1801 she moved with her family to Bath, then a great center of fashion; after the death of her father in 1805, she lived with her mother and sister, first at Southampton and then at Chawton; finally she took lodgings at Winchester to be near a doctor, and there she died on July 18, 1817, and was buried in the cathedral. Apart from a few visits to friends in London and elsewhere, and the vague report of a love affair with a gentleman who died suddenly, there is little else to chronicle in this quiet and uneventful life.

But quiet and uneventful though her life was, it yet supplied her with material for half a dozen novels as perfect of their kind as any in the language. While still a young girl she had experimented with various styles of writing, and when she completed "Pride and Prejudice" at the age of twenty-two, it was clear that she had found her appropriate form. This novel, which in many respects she never surpassed, was followed a year later by "Northanger Abbey," a satire on the "Gothic" romances then in vogue; and in 1809 she finished "Sense and Sensibility," begun a dozen years before. So far she had not succeeded in having any of her works printed; but in 1811 "Sense and Sensibility" appeared in London and won enough recognition to make easy the publication of the others. Success gave stimulus, and between 1811 and 1816, she completed "Mansfield Park," "Emma," and "Persuasion." The last of these and "Northanger Abbey" were published posthumously.

During Austen's life, however, only her immediate family knew of her authorship of these novels. At one point, she wrote behind a door that creaked when visitors approached; this warning allowed her to hide manuscripts before anyone could enter. Though publishing anonymously prevented her from acquiring an authorial reputation, it also enabled her to preserve her privacy at a time when English society associated a female's entrance into the public sphere with a reprehensible loss of femininity. Additionally, Austen may have sought anonymity because of the more general atmosphere of repression pervading her era. As the Napoleonic Wars (1800–1815) threatened the safety of monarchies throughout Europe, government censorship of literature proliferated. The social milieu of Austen's Regency England was particularly stratified, and class divisions were rooted in family connections and wealth. In her work, Austen is often critical of the assumptions and prejudices of upper-class England. She distinguishes between internal merit (goodness of person) and external merit (rank and possessions). Though she frequently satirizes snobs, she also pokes fun at the poor breeding and misbehavior of those lower on the social scale. Nevertheless, Austen was in many ways a realist, and the England she depicts is one in which social mobility is limited and class-consciousness is strong. Socially regimented ideas of appropriate behavior for each gender factored into Austen's work as well. While social advancement for young men lay in the military, church, or law, the chief method of self-improvement for women was the acquisition of wealth. Women could only accomplish this goal through successful marriage, which explains the ubiquity of matrimony as a goal and topic of conversation in Austen's writing. Though young women of Austen's day had more freedom to choose their husbands than in the early eighteenth century, practical considerations continued to limit their options. Even so, critics often accuse Austen of portraying a limited world. As a clergyman's daughter, Austen would have done parish work and was certainly aware of the poor around her. However, she wrote about her own world, not theirs. The critiques she makes of class structure seem to include only the middle class and upper class;

the lower classes, if they appear at all, are generally servants who seem perfectly pleased with their lot. This lack of interest in the lives of the poor may be a failure on Austen’s part, but it should be understood as a failure shared by almost all of English society at the time.

The most remarkable characteristic of Jane Austen as a novelist is her recognition of the limits of her knowledge of life and her determination never to go beyond these limits in her books. She describes her own class, in the part of the country with which she was acquainted; and both the types of character and the events are such as she knew from first-hand observation and experience. But to the portrayal of these she brought an extraordinary power of delicate and subtle delineation, a gift of lively dialogue, and a peculiar detachment. She abounds in humor, but it is always quiet and controlled; and though one feels that she sees through the affectations and petty hypocrisies of her circle, she seldom becomes openly satirical. The fineness of her workmanship, unexcelled in the English novel, makes possible the discrimination of characters who have outwardly little or nothing to distinguish them; and the analysis of the states of mind and feeling of ordinary people is done so faithfully and vividly as to compensate for the lack of passion and adventure. She herself speaks of the "little bit (two inches wide) of ivory on which I work," and, in contrast with the broad canvases of Fielding or Scott, her stories have the exquisiteness of a fine miniature.

The novel was published in 1813 but was completed in the 1797 and initially titled First Impressions. It is set primarily in the village of Longbourn 1 mile from Meryton in Hertfordshire in England.

In general, Austen occupies a curious position between the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. Her favorite writer, whom she often quotes in her novels, was Dr. Samuel Johnson, the great model of eighteenth-century classicism and reason. Her plots, which often feature characters forging their respective ways through an established and rigid social hierarchy, bear similarities to such works of Johnson’s contemporaries as Pamela, written by Samuel Richardson. Austen’s novels also display an ambiguity about emotion and an appreciation for intelligence and natural beauty that aligns them with Romanticism. In their awareness of the conditions of modernity and city life and the consequences for family structure and individual characters, they prefigure much Victorian literature (as does her usage of such elements as frequent formal social gatherings, sketchy characters, and scandal).

II. The Plot of the Novel

Perhaps the most famous opening lines from any nineteenth-century novel are the opening lines to Jane Austen's Pride and Prejudice: "It is a truth universally acknowledged, that a single man in possession of a good fortune, must be in want of a wife." These words are spoken by Mrs. Bennet to Mr. Bennet on the news that a gentleman of fortune has just moved to Netherfield Park, a nearby estate. The Bennets begin this story with a peculiar problem: they have five unmarried daughters and no sons. Their estate is entailed, or restricted in inheritance, to Mr. Collins, a family cousin. Upon Mr. Bennet's death, Mr. Collins will inherit the family lands, which will leave the Bennet daughters without a home or money. It becomes vital, therefore, that at least one of the daughters marries well in order to support and house their sisters (and mother if she is still alive) should they not be able to marry.

Pride and Prejudice is undoubtedly Jane Austen’s masterpiece, whose plots are about the four marriages, namely Jane and Bingley, Elizabeth and Darcy, Lydia and Wickham, and Lucas and Collins, of which the development of the love between Elizabeth and Darcy is the main focus. Elizabeth rejected Mr. Darcy’s first proposal based on her prejudice at Darcy’s first impression and his disinheriting Wickham as well as his admitted practice of separating her beloved sister Jane and his best friend Bingley. While Darcy mistakenly turned a proposal for marriage into the declaration of his proud feelings towards the inferior, he later wrote a letter in explanation to her about the two matters which Elizabeth accuses of him, which leads to her forgiveness. And her later being informed of Darcy’s significant role in saving the honor of her entire family in terms of making Wickham’s acceptance of marrying her sister Lydia come true after Lydia’s eloping with Wickham, as well as her being warmly accepted by Darcy with hospitality in his house Pemberley leads her to loving him. And when Lady Catherine de Bourgh’s sudden visit to demand her never to accept her nephew Darcy’s love becomes an insult to her, Elizabeth declares its impossibility and finally accepts Darcy’s love at his second proposal.

III. Analysis of Major Characters

Shortly after arriving alone, Bingley brings to Netherfield his two sisters, Miss Bingley and Mrs. Hurst; his brother-in-law, Mr. Hurst; and his friend, Mr. Darcy, who also happens to be wealthy and unmarried. Not wanting to miss a favorable introduction to their new neighbors, Mrs. Bennet pleads with Mr. Bennet to call on Bingley so that she can begin introducing her daughters to him. Initially Mr. Bennet refuses to play any part in matching any one of his daughters with Bingley. He tells his wife that if she is so intent on meeting the newcomers at Netherfield, she must visit Bingley herself. However, prudent manners forbade a woman to call on a strange man, making Mrs. Bennet powerless to begin the process which she hopes will lead to a marriage between one of her daughters and Bingley. Following the pronouncement that Mr. Bennet refuses to call on Bingley, Mrs. Bennet despairs that her daughters will never be able to meet with the eligible bachelor. Yet Mr. Bennet does call on Bingley, beginning the family's acquaintance with him. He takes ironic pleasure in surprising Mrs. Bennet with the news after letting her believe that he would not call on him.

The Bennet girls meet the Netherfield party for the first time at a small ball. Bingley proves to be personable and polite to the local folk, making him instantly well-liked. Darcy, while handsome and noble looking, appears proud and indifferent to participating in the activities of the evening or even socializing with the other guests. The eldest daughter, Jane, is instantly drawn to Bingley, and he seems equally attracted to her. Jane is portrayed as gentle, unselfish, and very mannerly. Elizabeth is also well mannered, but possess a very sharp wit and refuses to be intimidated by anyone. Inclined to be protective of Jane and her family, she nonetheless recognizes the faults of her parents and other sisters. At the assembly, because of a shortage of men who dance, Elizabeth is left sitting. She overhears Bingley encouraging Darcy to dance, suggesting that he ask Elizabeth. Darcy curtly replies that "she is tolerable; but not handsome enough to tempt me; and I am in no humour at present to give consequence to young ladies who are slighted by other men." Elizabeth, though insulted, refuses to give Darcy's comment any weight, instead telling the story to all her friends and ridiculing his pretentious behavior.

Jane and Bingley's relationship continues to deepen during family visits, balls, and dinners. His sisters pretend to like Jane, but are appalled by her mother's vulgarities, her younger sisters' wild, loose manners, and their lower economic position among the landed gentry. They find great amusement in making fun of the Bennets behind Jane's back. A particular point of hilarity stems from the way Kitty and Lydia chase after the young military officers stationed locally.

Elizabeth Bennet, the second daughter in the Bennet family, and the most intelligent and quick-witted, Elizabeth is the protagonist of Pride and Prejudice and one of the most well-known female characters in English literature. Her admirable qualities are numerous—she is lovely, clever, and, in a novel defined by dialogue, she converses as brilliantly as anyone. Her honesty, virtue, and lively wit enable her to rise above the nonsense and bad behavior that pervade her class-bound and often spiteful society. Nevertheless, her sharp tongue and tendency to make hasty judgments often lead her astray; Pride and Prejudice is essentially the story of how she (and her true love, Darcy) overcome all obstacles—including their own personal failings—to find romantic happiness. Elizabeth must not only cope with a hopeless mother, a distant father, two badly behaved younger siblings, and several snobbish, antagonizing females, she must also overcome her own mistaken impressions of Darcy, which initially lead her to reject his proposals of marriage. Her charms are sufficient to keep him interested, fortunately, while she navigates familial and social turmoil. As she gradually comes to recognize the nobility of Darcy’s character, she realizes the error of her initial prejudice against him.

Fitzwilliam Darcy, the son of a wealthy, well-established family and the master of the great estate of Pemberley, Darcy is Elizabeth’s male counterpart. The narrator relates Elizabeth’s point of view of events more often than Darcy’s, so Elizabeth often seems a more sympathetic figure. The reader eventually realizes, however, that Darcy is her ideal match. Intelligent and forthright, he too has a tendency to judge too hastily and harshly, and his high birth and wealth make him overly proud and overly conscious of his social status. Indeed, his haughtiness makes him initially bungle his courtship. When he proposes to her, for instance, he dwells more on how unsuitable a match she is than on her charms, beauty, or anything else complimentary. Her rejection of his advances builds a kind of humility in him. Darcy demonstrates his continued devotion to Elizabeth, in spite of his distaste for her low connections, when he rescues Lydia and the entire Bennet family from disgrace, and when he goes against the wishes of his haughty aunt, Lady Catherine de Bourgh, by continuing to pursue Elizabeth. Darcy proves himself worthy of Elizabeth, and she ends up repenting her earlier, overly harsh judgment of him.

Jane Bennet and Charles Bingley, one as Elizabeth’s beautiful elder sister and another Darcy’s wealthy best friend, Jane and Bingley engage in a courtship that occupies a central place in the novel. They first meet at the ball in Meryton and enjoy an immediate mutual attraction. They are spoken of as a potential couple throughout the book, long before anyone imagines that Darcy and Elizabeth might marry. Despite their centrality to the narrative, they are vague characters, sketched by Austen rather than carefully drawn. Indeed, they are so similar in nature and behavior that they can be described together: both are cheerful, friendly, and good-natured, always ready to think the best of others; they lack entirely the prickly egotism of Elizabeth and Darcy. Jane’s gentle spirit serves as a foil for her sister’s fiery, contentious nature, while Bingley’s eager friendliness contrasts with Darcy’s stiff pride. Their principal characteristics are goodwill and compatibility, and the contrast of their romance with that of Darcy and Elizabeth is remarkable. Jane and Bingley exhibit to the reader true love unhampered by either pride or prejudice, though in their simple goodness, they also demonstrate that such a love is mildly dull.

Mr. Bennet is the patriarch of the Bennet household—the husband of Mrs. Bennet and the father of Jane, Elizabeth, Lydia, Kitty, and Mary. He is a man driven to exasperation by his ridiculous wife and difficult daughters. He reacts by withdrawing from his family and assuming a detached attitude punctuated by bursts of sarcastic humor. He is closest to Elizabeth because they are the two most intelligent Bennets. Initially, his dry wit and self-possession in the face of his wife’s hysteria make him a sympathetic figure, but, though he remains likable throughout, the reader gradually loses respect for him as it becomes clear that the price of his detachment is considerable. Detached from his family, he is a weak father and, at critical moments, fails his family. In particular, his foolish indulgence of Lydia’s immature behavior nearly leads to general disgrace when she elopes with Wickham. Further, upon her disappearance, he proves largely ineffective. It is left to Mr. Gardiner and Darcy to track Lydia down and rectify the situation. Ultimately, Mr. Bennet would rather withdraw from the world than cope with it.

Mrs. Bennet is a miraculously tiresome character. Noisy and foolish, she is a woman consumed by the desire to see her daughters married and seems to care for nothing else in the world. Ironically, her single-minded pursuit of this goal tends to backfire, as her lack of social graces alienates the very people (Darcy and Bingley) whom she tries desperately to attract. Austen uses her continually to highlight the necessity of marriage for young women. Mrs. Bennet also serves as a middle-class counterpoint to such upper-class snobs as Lady Catherine and Miss Bingley, demonstrating that foolishness can be found at every level of society. In the end, however, Mrs. Bennet proves such an unattractive figure, lacking redeeming characteristics of any kind, that some readers have accused Austen of unfairness in portraying her—as if Austen, like Mr. Bennet, took perverse pleasure in poking fun at a woman already scorned as a result of her ill breeding.

IV. Conclusion

Pride and Prejudice is full of character-driven themes that revolve around the literary concept of “comedy of manners.” A comedy of manners is a literary work that deals with young lovers attempting to unite in marriage, and usually includes several incidences of witty commentary from the main characters, which can take form in terms of anything from clever flirting to open warfare, as in the case of Darcy and Elizabeth. Pride and Prejudice is mainly concerned with the pairing of several couples and the issues surrounding each of those couples.

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Interlanguage Pragmatics Theory and Its Implications for Foreign Language

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***Abstract*—The major purpose of college English teaching is to cultivate and develop student's pragmatic competence. Interlanguage pragmatics is a new interdisciplinary branch of study based on the theories of pragmatics and second language acquisition which has direct guide significance for foreign language teaching. This paper firstly introduces the theoretical models of the two theories and then focuses on the implications for foreign language teaching.**

***Index Terms*— interlanguage pragmatics, pragmatics theory, SLA theory, implications**

I. INTRODUCTION

In 1969, the psychological linguists Selinker in his paper "Language Transfer" pointed out that when people in different countries and regions have communicate in second Language, language often appears with some native Language and relevant, and with this two kinds of pragmatic styles of Interlanguage totally different, this is "the Interlanguage" (Interlanguage). In Selinker view, the former study of interlanguage study was just the grammar system study. Therefore, the study of interlanguage was only limited from speech phonemes, lexical, syntactic to semantic etc. In the early 1980s, along with deepening the study, the researchers found that only interlanguage study of grammar system is not enough, many problems involving context cannot be solved, pragmatic research and interlanguage study combining produced interlanguage pragmatic. In 1993, the first book on Interlanguage pragmatics gave birth. (Kulka Kasper & Blum 1993)

Interlanguage Pragmatics theory, the two pillars of the theory of pragmatics and second language acquisition theory are cross-cultural language learning of the study, the Institute of Interlanguage pragmatics of the pragmatic theory based mainly: speech act theory, conversational implicature theory, politeness theory. Kasper and Rose 2002 in the "Second Language Pragmatic Development", a book that two Pragmatics heart can be seen as the process of learning or social practice, Interlanguage pragmatics theory of the system including its five theoretical models: Culture adaptation model theory, cognitive processing model theory, social and cultural theory, language socialization theory and interactive communicative competence model theory. This paper describes research on Interlanguage Pragmatics theoretical models and second language acquisition theory mode, and then explores these theoretical models of the Foreign Language Teaching.

II. DEVELOPMENT BASIS OF INTERLANGUAGE PRAGMATICS THEORY

A. Pragmatics Theory

1. Speech Act Theory. The theory holds that people use language, the purpose is not only to speak, or express a thought, but by talking to achieve certain goals, that is, words and deeds matter. People to communicate, not only must be good at understanding the speaker's "words in conduct" or "explicit performative" is more important is to understand the speaker's "illocutionary act" or "hidden SHI" and "indirect speech behavior. "

2. Conversational implicature. The theory of discourse on both sides in cooperation with a view to sharing the desire to succeed, based on proposed communication both sides must abide by the true, full, associate, clear the "principle of cooperation." If we say was a breach of the principles of cooperation, then the hearer, who will be in accordance with prevailing context to infer the speaker's true intentions and the discourse of the true meaning.

3. Politeness theory. Courtesy is a national culture and language of a universal phenomenon, which is a verbal communication smooth coordination of the factors. 1983 G. Leech will be courtesy of a universal phenomenon as a language to study and put forward the principles of speech communication theory: (1) Tact Maxim (2) generous criteria (3) recognition criterion (4) Modesty Maxim (5) Agreement Maxim (6) Sympathy Maxim Brown & Levinson put forward the "face theory" that politeness is reflected in the respect of others on the face. Interlanguage Pragmatics by comparing the observed native politeness of those speech acts, reveals the perception of learners as well as the courtesy of the courtesy in the role of cross-cultural communication, and thus more effective guidance to cross-cultural communication.

B. SLA Theory

1. Cultural adaptation model

The theory by Schumann in the late 20th century, made 70. He believes that cultural adaptation should be effected from the social environment and individual psychological point of view to explain the motivation in second language acquisition learners and learners in the Pidgin language of the phenomenon. Cultural adaptation that the learners and target language community's social and psychological integration. It consists of two main aspects: social and emotional factors. The former describes the purpose of language learners and the social distance between communities, while the latter seeks to clarify the purpose of language learners and the psychological distance between users. Schumann thinks that two kinds of distance constraints acculturation level and the level of the main reasons for second language acquisition.

2. Cognitive processing model

As early as 90 years in the 20th century, cognitive psychology, the theory was used to explain the pragmatic development, and mainly refers to Schmidt's attention hypothesis and Bialystok's two-dimensional model. Note that assumption concerns the initial stages of learning, stressing conscious concern is that the language input into the key to absorbing the language, so learners through conscious attention to language input to get pragmatic competence. Two-dimensional model is to explain how learners analyze characterization and control along the two dimensions of information processing that have been available in the target language pragmatic knowledge for development. These two theoretical explanations of the different stages of second language learning process, so they are complementary relationships.

3. Multilingual society theory

The theory suggests that learners learned the process of socio-cultural knowledge is the language socialization process, requiring learners to use language to convey his ideas, appropriate and effective. Language socialization process is a lifelong learning process, learners are not in a position of passive acceptance, that is directly beside a professor of social norms, but rather proactive in their daily interactions invisibly learned social norms.

4. Interactive communicative competence model theory.

The theory suggests that communicative competence is in a certain language learners based on the specific communicative context, objects, topic and purpose, using the appropriate conversation skills and communication strategies to carry out interpersonal communication ability. In oral communication, driven by the words and the speaker can be changed according to the different needs of the role of back and forth between the two to replace, that is, possess interpersonal interaction, in which the performance of interactive communication in the communicative competence is called out interactive communicative competence.

III. Pragmatic Theory Basis for the Foreign Language Teaching

A. Enhancing Contrast Eastern and Western Cultures to Enhance Cultural Sensitivity

Language is the carrier of culture. Chinese and Western culture in the way of thinking, values, social and so there are significant differences. Therefore, as a foreign language teacher, first of all, we want to improve their cultural connotations. Second, these cultural differences should be incorporated into the teaching of linguistic knowledge so that students overall understanding of these differences. Particularly vulnerable to misuse for some cases wish to remind, and teach him the correct form. If look at the patient, said: "Drink plenty of water." More: I hope you get better soon. Greeting "Hello, have you had your meal?" Comparison: Hello, a nice day, isn't it? To see them get off "Be careful!" More "Are you ok?" In addition, comparison impresses students deeply and inspires a good memory, for example in the text “There is only luck” the teacher may make a comparison of the law of gun ownership between in China and in America, so that the students can have an awareness of the different background and hence avoid understanding barriers. For foreign language teaching, it is only through repeated comparison, in the comparison study, the more learning can enhance the cultural sensitivity, to achieve the purpose of accurate use of language foreign language teaching.

B. Imparting Pragmatic Knowledge to Develop Pragmatic Competence

At home and abroad interlanguage pragmatics research shows that foreign language learners do not Pragmatic Competence in English language proficiency as students words and sentences capabilities and natural increase. Pragmatics of knowledge should be taught, but also can be taught. Language can help students with knowledge in the form of explicit language and its communicative function is not a-one correspondence, accuracy and appropriateness of discourse to express two aspects of linguistic units to understand the context constrains the choice of the expression of meaning and understanding, and language The "illocutionary force" and the meaning of such sessions.

C. Add Selective Courses and Bilingual Courses

The major purpose of college English teaching is to cultivate and develop student’s pragmatic competence. To attain appropriate and operational communication, students must have knowledge of the language. "Fully understand a language can be made by insight into that language to the depth and breadth." HeZiRan (1997), so we should add more English selective courses and bilingual courses based on integrated English Course and College English listening Course such as "Contrast study between Chinese and English ", "British &American Culture and Society", "VOA special English Programs "Cross-cultural Communication ", so as to improve students pragmatic ability. In addition, according to the college English Curriculum Requirement "professional English" or "bilingual courses" should be opened as early as possible to develop the students pragmatic ability, so when we they work in the future, they can use English effectively having social interaction both in oral and written English to exchange information.

D. To "Student-centered" to Enhance Student-teacher Interaction

Kasper and Rose pointed out that effective classroom interactive activities can promote the learner's language use and communicative capabilities. Therefore, effective classroom interaction is to enhance students' use of language proficiency. Therefore, teachers should adopt a more learner-centered teaching context or communicative approach, and fully mobilize the enthusiasm of students to maximize the first to involve students in learning the entire process.

E. Create a Good Environment for Extra-curricular Language

Because of certain constraints, China's English learners rarely have the opportunity to directly from the English-speaking environment in the acquisition of language. He certainly would think that: caused by low proficiency in English, is an important reason is that out of context learners to learn English. Therefore, to create a good language learning, the use of environment, especially in extra-curricular communication activities is to develop students ability to use language in an effective way. Teachers should encourage students to more than extra-curricular and foreign professionals to exchange, organized students to see original movies, books, listening to foreign language programs, Taking the natural disaster for example, the teacher may make a video or slide show to display scenes when an earthquake happens, which plays an irreplaceable role in imparting background knowledge and helping students to understand the text easily.

IV. ENDING

Language teaching can not deviate from the progress of each breakthrough and development of the theory of language, so does the interlanguage pragmatics study .As a new interdisciplinary branch of study based on the theories of pragmatics and second language acquisition, Interlanguage pragmatics is very practical for foreign language teaching, so theoretical model of interlanguage pragmatics will bring about a lot of enlightenment for foreign language teaching .But anyhow it is a new study of this field, how to carry on the further study of its theory and how will be more pragmatic research applied to teaching practice, how to use it the process of teaching and how to further enrich interlanguage pragmatic theories, remain the questions that we language teacher concern.

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The Effect of Modified Speech on Listening to Authentic Speech

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***Abstract*—The present study investigated the effect of controlling speech rate on listening comprehension of Iranian students majoring in English. It was somehow the application of Krashen's 'input hypothesis'(1985). There were two homogeneous groups each comprising 40 students taking 'Oral Translation 3'. In the experimental group there were 28 females and 12 males, in the control group there were 30 females and 10 males. The age of the subjects ranged from 22-28.The selected materials was authentic American English spoken by fluent native speakers in the programs such as 'Opera' and 'Dr. Phill'. The students were worked with in a well equipped language laboratory. The experimental group had the advantage of modified speech through Ulead software version 11. The control group just enjoyed the possibility of a five time repetition for each individual sentence. At the end two reliable and valid M.C. listening comprehension and cloze tests were prepared from the covered materials and administered to them. The cloze test was based on the exact word version (Chaudron, 1986). Based on the results of this study it was concluded that there were no significant differences between the mean scores of the experimental and control groups on the multiple choice and cloze tests at .05 level of significance. This implies that first, the experimental group did not do any better than the control group and second, the students were not able to apply the benefits of slowing down the speech to authentic texts and for speeches delivered at a normal rate.**

***Index Terms*—speech modification, speech rate, connected speech, reduced forms**

I. INTRODUCTION

The idea of using speech modification in case of NNSs dates back to the 1970s. Friedman and Johnson (1971) proposed using slower rates in language teaching. The idea of matching speech rate and listeners proficiency was put forward by Pimsleur, Hanckok, & Furey (1977). They proposed two methods of adjusting rates, namely, speech expansion and compression though these equipments were not available at that time. He proposed an alteration method, i.e., inserting pauses into recorded speech to expand it. Friedman and Johnson (1971, cited by Griffiths, 1990) reported on the structurally spaced pauses into orally presented Russian sentences and significantly accurate recall. Foulke (1968) found that speeding up of recording up to 260wpm had no effect on comprehension but above that it began to crumble precipitously. Foulke and Stitch (1969) and Stitch (1971) concluded that the threshold for listening comprehension is 275 wpm after which comprehension declines rapidly. Carver (1973) came up with the similar results.

Anderson-Hsieh and Koehler (1988) reported on the adverse effect of speed on listening comprehension of English native speakers but added that a non standard pronounced accent had a more deleterious effect on listening comprehension. Stanley (1978) pinpointed the adverse effect of speed rate on listening comprehension. Griffiths (1992) studied the effects of speech rates (127, 188, 250 wpm) on the nonnative speaker's listening comprehension and concluded that the slowest rate was the most comprehensible and the higher rates led to worse comprehension. Conrad (1989) and Griffiths (1990) reiterated the adverse effect of speech rate on listening comprehension. Boyle (1984), Flowerdew and Miller (1992) indicated that fast speech leads to problems in listening. In Zhao's study (1997) speech rate was measured by the recognition of the spoken word. Here the control of speech was given to the learners themselves. He experimented with four conditions, namely, listening to sentences once; repeating; modification of speed and repetition; and a speed rate of 194 wpm. He concluded that in condition three where students could modify speed and repeat the students obtained the highest scores. Grosjean (1972) showed that the increase of speed addressed to NNSs (intermediate proficiency) from 147wpm to 169 wpm led to a 14.65 decrease in listening comprehension. Nevertheless, at the slowest rate, i.e., 96 wpm the subjects were incapable to recall 56% of sentence details. Chauron (1979) held that one of the important features of listening comprehension is the great speed accompanying connected speech. At a normal speed a new word is uttered at the rate of 300msc which needs to be transformed into lexical units and then realized at the higher structural units. Chodorow (1979) attributed the decrease of comprehension in the fast speech to the loss of the processing time. Derwing and Munro (2001) conducted an experiment on the suitability of speech rate in case of Mandarin learners of English. They used a rating scale ranging from too slow to too fast. The passages were read by native English speakers in three modes: unmodified; Mean-Mandarin rate; Mean-English rate; and slow rate. The result showed that speech modifications did not lead to better ratings by the listeners. Blau (1990) conducted two experiments on the effect of input modifications in terms of speed and the insertion of pauses on Puerto Rican and Polish EFL learners and found no significant effect with mechanically slowing down the speed but significant effect with the insertion of 3-second pauses. The slowing down of the speed was effective with the lowest levels of L2 proficiency. Segalowitz and Segalowitz (1993, cited in Vandergrift, 2004) assigned importance to the word recognition in listening comprehension. Goh (2001) mentioned lack of recognition of the familiar words to the learners as their second major problem after forgetting what is heard.

A. Speech Modification

Comprehensible input in receptive skills was put forth by Long (1981) who endorsed the role of comprehensible input in conversational modifications. Krashen (1985) is the most theoretically-based advocate of comprehensible input who postulates the linguistic input directed to L2 learners should be a little above their current level of linguistic competence. One feature of this modification is speech rate which had been investigated by other researchers before Krashen put forth his input hypothes is (Anderson-Hsieh et al., 1988; Blau, 1990; Boyle, 1984 ;Carver, 1973; Chiang and Dunkel,1992; Chaudron,1979;Conrad, 1989; Derwing and Munro, 2001; Flowerdew and Miller, 1992; Foulke, 1968; Friedman and Johnson, 1971; Griffiths, 1990; Grosjean, 1972; Stanley, 1978; Stitch, 1971; Zhao, 1997). Saved for Blau, (1990) and Derwing and Munro (2001) the other researchers concluded that speed modification facilitates listening comprehension. It seems axiomatic that slowing down the speech rate would facilitate listening comprehension. To the knowledge of the researchers the reason/s for this facilitation has/have not been well delineated. Is it due to processing task or to the identification of words in connected speech? Blau (1990) attributed it to the provision of more time for processing in terms of the insertion of pauses in the main structural constituents. The present study tends to replicate the effect of speech modification not as an end in itself, but rather as a means to an end. That is, to see first, the beneficial effects of speech modification consistent with Krashen's input hypothesis in listening comprehension and, second, the effect of this modification for new and novel situations. It also tends to delve into the corollary repercussions of speed modifications.

B. Purpose of the Study

The present study attempts to evaluate the effectiveness of Krashen's input hypothesis (1985) in terms of speech rate for Iranian EFL learners. More importantly, the researchers tried to investigate the effectiveness of this hypothesis in situations where this modified input is no longer available when listening to authentic speech of moderately fast rate.

C. Research Questions

1) Does slowing down the speech rate facilitate perception of words and listening comprehension of Iranian EFL listeners listening to authentic American speech compared to mere repetition?

2) Is the gradual increase of speed effective in English language classes with respect to listening comprehension?

D. Null Hypotheses

Two null hypotheses were formulated:

1) Slowing down the Speech rate is not an important factor for Iranian EFL listeners at the university level.

2) The gradual increase of speed cannot be of great help in laboratory classes.

II. Methodology

A. Participants

The subjects participating in this study were senior English students majoring in English Translation at Azad University of Hamedan, Iran. They all had passed all the prerequisite courses for Oral Translation 3, namely, Laboratories 1 and 2 and Oral Translations 1 and 2. Approximately, there were a total of 140 students in the two groups but after the administration of the TOEFL test, version 1994, 80 students were included in the study. The aim of using this test was excluding the outliers and also getting four homogeneous groups on the basis of their scores. This reduction in number was also due to limitations observed in practice, restrictions in accommodating this huge number in the laboratory booths and also for the sake of precision in the procedures used. The students scored between 48 and 61out of 80 with a mean score of 54.The lowest mean score was on listening comprehension which was 10 out of 25. This indicated that they had drastic problems with listening comprehension. They were randomly assigned to two experimental and two control groups each containing around 20 students. The subjects comprised both males and females, with the majority of females in all the four groups. In the experimental groups there were 28 females and 12 males. In the control groups there were 30 females and 10 males. The age of the subjects ranged from 22 to 28.

These students had passed Oral Translations 1 and 2 with the researcher and they complained of the speech rate in the authentic oral texts. The majority of them had no access to satellite and showed no interest in watching the English broadcasts. To get the students involved in the class activities the researchers allocated some marks to the students who were attentive and did the assigned activities appropriately. These points were not considered in the test scores of the study.

B. Materials

The materials which were used in this study were as follows:

Video-taped selections of American shows, namely,' Opera', 'Doctors ', and also Talk Shows from MBC and CBS. Some of these shows were 'Overwhelmed mothers', 'Rudness', and 'Cruelty to Animals' from Opera shows. The topics of discussion in 'the early show' from CBS were general and with no specialized orientation, examples were 'Buying a House', and 'B.P.A.' from 'Health Watch'(September 16, 2008). The average speed of these materials was 215 words per minute.

C. Instrumentations

New versions of the TOEFL test for pre-testing and post-testing. The TOEFL tests comprised 80 questions (listening comprehension: 30 questions; Reading comprehension: 25 questions; Structure: 25 questions). The aim of the pre test was to homogenize the experimental and the control groups.

Cloze test items based on the exact word (Chaudron, 1986). This test comprised 300 words out of which 50 words were deleted. The criterion for the exact word was based on providing the intended word or the word with negligible minor spelling errors. The reliability and validity of this test were .83 and 51.35 respectively. The words deleted from the passage were assumed to be problematic because of the speech rate and features of connected speech. Examples were " I wen to a denis" for 'I went to a dentist,' and "I had an apoinmen", 'for 'I had an appointment'.

Multiple choice questions based on the oral texts. A total number of 60 questions based on the materials covered were piloted on the students of Kurdistan University and 20 questions were excluded because of the item facility and item difficulty. These materials were worked on during the term. The reliability and validity of the M.C. questions were .87 and 51.35 respectively.

D. Procedures

First, a 1994 version of TOEFL test was administered to the participants and roughly four homogeneous groups (two experimental and two control groups) were formed on the basis of their scores. This test comprised reading, listening, and structure. In the first session the students in the four groups were guided and directed with respect to what would be done and what they would be required to do.

The students in the control groups were given the written forms of some of the words which were assumed to be problematic in the oral text. These words were in the oral texts and the students were required to read them aloud individually. The aim of this activity was to appraise the students' knowledge of the segmental and suprasegmental features. So, their voices were tape-recorded. After making sure that they had problems with these features, the correct pronunciation of words together with the prosodic features read aloud by native American speakers extracted from The American Heritage Dictionary of English Language, the 4^{th} ed. was given to them. The segmental and suprasegmental features were worked with them and they were just told to transcribe the allotted assignment for the week (around 6 to ten minutes each week) and without exerting attempt leave the indiscernible words blank. In the laboratory each problematic sentence was played up to 5 times. At the end, the teacher's own version which was exactly in accord with what the speakers said in the oral text and was read aloud. On the basis of this the students gave their own translations (though, translation was not the concern of this study).

Also, in the first session the features of connected speech were taught by the teacher and practiced by the students. Some examples of assimilation which were paramount in connected speech are as follows: The following examples are drawn from Gimson 1994: 257-60

/n/ changing to /m/ before [p,b,m] ten people changes to tem people

/t/ changing to [p] or a glottal stop before [p, b, m] that boy changes to thap boy

/t/ changing to[k] or a glottal stop before[k, g] that girl changing to thak girl

/d/ changing to [b] or a glottal stop before [p,b,m] good play changing to goob play

/d/ changing to [g] or a glottal stop before [k, g] good cause changing to goog cause

The orientation of work with the experimental groups was the rate of speech. Like the control group they were provided with the recorded materials and required to listen and transcribe the assigned work and without exerting attempt leave the indiscernible words blank. In the laboratory the speech rate was slowed down from 4-5 words per second to 3, and then to 2 words per second so that discerning the flow of speech and consequently listening comprehension would become possible. It was not obligatory to follow this route exactly, that is, slowing down from 4-5 words to 3 and finally to 2. It all depended on the sentence and how grave the features of connected speech along with the speech rate might have been. At each rate checks were made for the identification of words in the sentences. Of course, not all words were indiscernible. The problem was with some words in the sentences. We left out the sentences that were discernible and the emphasis was put on the identification of words that had undergone the process of speed and connected speech. So checks were made for those problematic words or sentences. If the students could not provide the intended word or words, it was only in that case that speed was slowed down to slower rates.

The students in the experimental groups were told to be attentive to these activities. In the following week, all groups were asked some questions on the covered materials so that they would take the course seriously .None of the four groups had the final transcription of the oral material. This was because of the researcher's concern that they might rely on their memory. In each session the same procedure was employed with this difference that the rate of speech for the experimental group was manipulated. The students in the control groups were told to check the words for their meanings, segmental, and suprasegmental features.

E. Data Gathering

Following this procedure for 16 weeks the students were given two tests from the covered materials. A 40 item MCQ, and an exact word cloze test (Chaudron, 1986). As mentioned before the reliability and validity of these two tests had been estimated. The reliability of the cloze test was .87 and that of the MCQ was, 83. The construct validity of both tests was 51.35. For the MC items 40 minutes and for each deletion in the cloze test 10 seconds were given. The MC items were read only once (the voice from the video recorded materials). The cloze was read two times. During the first time they just listened. Also a TOEFL test, version 1996 was used to assess the subjects' capabilities in listening to unheard materials after they had been exposed to speech modification.

F. Data Analysis

1. Is the speech rate modification more facilitative than mere repetition?

The subjects took a M.C.Q. test comprising 40 items and a cloze test (exact word, Chaudron, 1986) in their booths in the laboratory.

An independent t-test was run to compare the mean scores of the experimental and control groups on the multiple choice test. The t-observed value is .099 (Table 1). This amount of t-value at 70 degrees of freedom is lower than the critical value of t, i.e. 1.99.

TABLE 1:
INDEPENDENT T-TEST MULTIPLE CHOICE TEST BY GROUPS

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	Df	Sig.(2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference: Lower	Upper
MC	Equal variances assumed	5.081	.027	.099	78	.921	.07500	.75781	-1.433	1.58369
	Equal variances not assumed			.099	70.80	.921	.07500	.75781	-1.436	1.58611

Based on these results it can be concluded that there was not any significant difference between the mean scores of the experimental and control groups on the multiple choice test. The mean scores of the experimental and control groups are displayed in Table 2. The mean scores for the two groups are 18.92 and 18.85 respectively.

It should be noted that the two groups did not enjoy homogeneous variances. The Levene's F of 5.08 has a probability of .027 ($P < .05$). That is why the second row of Table 1 "Equal variances not assumed" are reported.

TABLE 2:
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS MULTIPLE CHOICE TEST BY GROUPS

	GROUP	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
MC	EXPERIMENTAL	40	18.9250	3.89205	.61539
	CONTROL	40	18.8500	2.79698	.44224

An independent t-test was run to compare the mean scores of the experimental and control groups on the cloze test. The t-observed value is 1.60 (Table 3). This amount of t-value at 78 degrees of freedom is lower than the critical value of t, i.e. 1.99.

TABLE 3:
INDEPENDENT T-TEST CLOZE TEST BY GROUPS

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference: Lower	Upper
CLOZE	Equal variances assumed	3.380	.070	1.603	78	.113	2.46875	1.54045	-.59804	5.53554
	Equal variances not assumed			1.603	76.04	.113	2.46875	1.54045	-.59928	5.53678

Based on these results it can be concluded that there was not any significant difference between the mean scores of the experimental and control groups on the cloze test. The mean scores of the experimental and control groups are displayed in Table 4. The mean scores for the two groups are 17.87 and 15.40 respectively. Although the experimental group performed better than the control group on the cloze test the difference between their mean scores is not statistically significant.

TABLE 4:
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS CLOZE TEST BY GROUPS

	GROUP	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
CLOZE	EXPERIMENTAL	40	17.8750	7.42052	1.17329
	CONTROL	40	15.4062	6.31306	.99818

It should be noted that the two groups enjoyed homogeneous variances. The Levene's F of 3.38 has a probability of .07 ($P > .05$). That is why the first row of Table 3 "Equal variances assumed" are reported.

Correlation Coefficient between MC and Cloze

The Pearson correlation coefficient between the MC and cloze tests is .51 ($P = .000 < .05$). Since the r-observed value is greater than the critical value of .21, it can be concluded that there was a statistically significant relationship between the MC and cloze tests.

TABLE 5:
CORRELATION BETWEEN MC AND CLOZE

		MC
CLOZE	Pearson Correlation	.514**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	80
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).		

Based on the Effect Size criteria developed by Cohen (1988), the Pearson correlation coefficient is itself an effect size with the following values:

R = .1 WEAK
R = .3 MODERATE
R = .5 STRONG

Based on these results it can be concluded that the relationship between the MC and cloze tests are both statistically significant and meaningful.

The results of the factor analysis indicate that the MC and cloze tests tap on the same underlying construct hence their construct validity is approved. The SPSS extracted one factor which accounts for 51.35 percent of the total variance.

TABLE 6:
TOTAL VARIANCE EXPLAINED

	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
Factor	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	1.514	75.724	75.724	1.027	51.350	51.350
2	.486	24.276	100.000			
Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.						

Table 7 displays the factor loadings of the MC and Cloze test. Since they fall under the same underlying construct, the construct validity of the tests can be inferred.

TABLE 7:
FACTOR LOADINGS

	Factor
	1
CLOZE	.717
MC	.717
Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.	

2. Can the gradual increase of speed be effective in English language classes with respect to listening comprehension?

Another version of a reliable and valid MC, and a cloze test of the parts of the materials that had not been worked on in the laboratory along with a TOEFL test, version 1996 were administered to the same subjects at the interval of one month after they took the first tests. Again there were 40 MCQ items and a cloze passage comprising 300 words with 50 deletions. The allotted time was the same as the first tests (1 minute for MC, and 10 second after each stop for the provision of the exact word.

A repeated-measures ANOVA was run to compare the mean scores of the experimental and control groups on the listening comprehension tests of multiple choice (MC), cloze and TOEFL. The F-observed value for the grouping variable, i.e. comparing the experimental and control groups' overall mean scores on the three tests is 3.70 (Table 8). This amount of F-value is lower than the critical value of F at 1 and 77 degrees of freedom, i.e. 3.96.

TABLE 8:
REPEATED-MEASURES ANOVA LISTENING COMPREHENSION TESTS OF MC, CLOZE AND TOEFL BY GROUP

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Intercept	160551.195	1	160551.195	5733.648	.000	.987
GROUP	103.870	1	103.870	3.709	.058	.046
Error	2156.122	77	28.002			

Two other statistics supports the non-significant F-value; the probability of .058 which is higher than the significance of .05 and the effect size (partial eta squared) of .046 which lower than .10. Based on the criteria developed by Cohen (1988 cited from Cohen and Brooke Lea; 2004) an effect six of .10 or lower is considered weak.

The statistically non-significant F-value indicates that there was not any significant difference between the mean scores of the experimental and control groups on the listening comprehension tests of MC, cloze and TOEFL.

As displayed in Table 9 the overall mean scores of the experimental and control groups on the three listening comprehension tests of MC, cloze and TOEFL are 26.69 and 25.36 respectively.

TABLE 9:
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS LISTENING COMPREHENSION TESTS OF MC, CLOZE AND TOEFL BY GROUP

GROUP	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval Lower Bound	95% Confidence Interval Upper Bound
EXPERIMENTAL	26.692	.483	25.730	27.654
CONTROL	25.368	.489	24.393	26.342

Based on these results it can be concluded that the null-hypothesis as the gradual increase of speed cannot be of great help in laboratory classes is supported. That is to say there was not any significant difference between the mean scores of the experimental and control groups on the listening comprehension tests of MC, cloze and TOEFL.

III. CONCLUSION

This study tended to investigate the influence of speed rate on word identification and listening comprehension of Iranian EFL students. The underlying psychological building block of this study was the application of Krashen's Input Hypothesis (1985) which postulates i+1 input for the learner in the learning and teaching settings. This study was conducted on Iranian EFL learners of English majoring in translation. There were 80 subjects and the majority were females. They had enrolled for Oral Translation 3 two hours a week and thirty two hours during the term. They all were at the seventh term and had passed all the prerequisite courses for Oral Translation 3. They had been homogenized on a TOEFL test, version 1994. Their mean score on this test was 410 out of 600. They were divided into two homogeneous groups.

The experimental group were provided with speech modification using Ulead Vidio Studio 11, version 2007. The control group was just provided with correct pronunciation and stress in isolation. Both groups were required to prepare themselves for the assigned weekly assignment of the oral passage. They all were supposed to transcribe the allotted assignment. The work with the experimental group began with the normal speed, and then the speed gradually slackened. The minimum discernible speech on this software was 49 (about 95 words per minute) and the maximum 180 (approximately 240 words a minute). As long as there were questions with the identification of words this slowing down continued. In fact, the slower the speech became, the fewer words remained unidentified. At three speed rates this was done and at each rate the problematic sentences were played three times. Although at the minimum rate a considerable number of words became discernible, there were still some words that remained unidentified. The same procedure was applied to the control group with one difference and it was that the problematic sentences were played three times with the unmodified speed.

The results showed that slowing down the speech affected listening positively for the identification of words to some extent. This identification is based on the encoding and storing of" the source information and the message in memory for later retrieval of word recognition, lexical access and listening comprehension" (Frauenfeldere, & Floccia, 1999). Still, some words remained obscure despite slowing down the rate to the maximum level possible. The researchers believe this was due to the features of fast connected speech that had blurred the speech. These findings corroborate the results of Zhao (1997), Griffiths (1991), and Chaudron (1980). What this study tended to contribute further to the previous studies was whether what the course had accrued could be applied to new situations and authentic materials with normal and in some cases with moderately fast speech rate. Though the experimental group outperformed the control group marginally, this difference was not statistically significant. The implication being that slowing down the speech rate did not work with normal speed for unheard and unseen passages and even for the practiced materials satisfactorily. Using Ulead software for speech modification may be helpful in case of the beginners adhering to Krashen's input hypothesis.

IV. Pedagogical Implications and Suggestions for Further Research

This study can have implications for the researchers interested in the effect of speed modification on listening comprehension and word identification. Studies like this dealing with the effect of speech rate on listening can help teachers use speed modification in their classes provided differing rates of speech are worked on simultaneously. Providing listeners just with ungraded materials may not prove helpful.

The findings of this research may warn teachers to be concerned about their speaking in the classrooms and may prompt them to adopt a mode of speaking similar to that of native speakers of English. They should try not to articulate and enunciate words and more importantly they should adhere to the conventions of connected speech. If violations of correct connected speech with moderate speed mean lack of understanding by the learners, then what can be achieved from using a non standard English? This does not mean that they should not be concerned about the feedbacks they would get from the learners; rather, they should adhere to the principles of concatenated speech but with graded chain of speech consistent with the norms of the native speakers of English.

This study showed that connected speech is different from the articulated speech in terms of the alterations the words undergo in connected speech. Lass (1984), Brown (1990), and Roach (1991) believe explaining the features of connected speech can help the learners (cited in Cauldwell, 1996). The results of this study did not confirm such a claim. Making the EFL learners familiar with the features of connected speech through exposure to oral English from the beginning of listening activity is of utmost importance. As the results of this study revealed, the students knew the words and to a lesser extent they knew the correct pronunciation of words in isolation but the picture became dramatically reversed in connected and fast speech. This may somehow support the result of Goh's study (2000).

Adhering to all principles of connected speech simultaneously and not subsuming one or more elements means that these features should be practiced with moderately fast speed and not separated from each other. Exposing the learners to the authentic oral English seems to be a dire need by the learners as they encounter live and recorded oral English in their daily lives.

V. Suggestions for Future Research

This study was conducted on a group of Iranian EFL learners on whose brains many items might have become fossilized and the eradication of which might be difficult. To acclimatize them with this new technique the researchers observed a sense of reluctance and indifference. To some of the learners this technique was degrading even if they had problems with some features of connected speech. It is recommended that future researchers adopt this technique in case of the advanced beginners and intermediate-level students.

It is recommended that future researchers adopt this technique with simultaneous practicing of differing rates, that is, fast, moderate, slow; moderate, slow, fast; slow, fast, moderate so that they would realize the alteration of speech sounds in different versions of speed and at the same time expose them to the unheard and unseen oral materials using the above procedure.

This study was conducted on a two hours a week basis totaling 32 hours during the term on ninety students. The increase of two to four and six hours a week with a larger number of students is recommended. In order to economize on time it would be much better if differing rates of speech are pre-recorded, prepared and played consecutively and alternatively.

Candidate areas of research in future might be thorough examination of Persian as a syllable-timed language versus English as a stressed-timed language and also meticulous studies of syllabifications in English and Persian, the impact of working memory and its relationship with fast connected speech on listening comprehension in case of Iranian EFL learners .

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Translation of Words with Cultural Image

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***Abstract*—Cultural image is a kind of cultural symbol, which carries unique, wide, deep cultural connotations. The default and misplacement of cultural images caused by cultural differences always put translators in dilemma. The differences in cultural images between the source and target language frequently cause semantic default and contextual conflicts in the process of transference and present a hard nut for the translator to crack. Due to the close relationship between language and culture, unique cultural images are formed in the languages of different nations. In the process of translation, as a cross-language and cross-cultural activity, the cultural image of the original words should be expressed and the cultural meanings should be transmitted as appropriately and completely as possible. While in practical translation, translators always find it difficult to choose an almost equal word to replace the original one, thus the problems of misplacement, loss in the translation of words with cultural image come out, which cause difficulties and misunderstandings in the intercultural communication. In this paper it is to present the status quo of translating words with cultural image and illustrate their unique meaning in different cultures. Then it is to discuss some problems caused in translation activities. Finally it is to expound the upmost principle for translating cultural images: foreignizing translation. Based on foreignization, several suitably acceptable methods are introduced in this paper as well: to transplant the original images faithfully by means of image retention and notes and image addition in order to achieve the purpose of cross-cultural communication, which will make translation more suitable for the purpose of cultural intercommunication.**

***Index Terms*—words with cultural image, translation, foreignization, approaches**

I. Introduction

As translation involves two different languages which are the carriers of their respective cultures, it is not only a transfer between languages but also a communication between cultures. With the increasingly frequent cultural exchanges and communication among people between China and foreign countries, people now have higher and higher demands not only for the enjoyment of fluency, beauty and grace, but also for the accessibility to exotic culture in translation. As for the higher demand to translation of words with cultural image, the translators always fall into the dilemma that they “can not have both bear’s paw and the fish at the same time”. Frequent international culture exchanges lead to a higher requirement for translation of words with cultural image: the translated version should be elegant and fluent; furthermore, it should express the distinctive cultural images of the origin version. The neglect of their meaning and transmission will affect the proper expression of the whole content and the understanding of the artistic conception and figures. Traditionally researchers focus on the meaning and equivalence of the original expression, while in translation of words with cultural image the cultural image is the core of certain culture and in translation translators had better give out the deep connotation of cultural image, which will make target readers interested in different cultures and recognized the difference of different cultures, as a result it will realize the purpose and significance of translation and cultural intercommunication. In this paper it is to find out the problems in translation of words with cultural image and examine the misplacement and loss in the translation of words with cultural image. In addition, it will expound the upmost principle for translating cultural images: to realize the cultural images of original expression faithfully by means of foreignizing translation. Based on foreignization, several suitably acceptable methods are introduced in this paper as well: to transplant the original images faithfully by means of image retention and notes and image addition in order to achieve the purpose of cross-cultural communication, which will make translation more suitable for the purpose of cultural intercommunication.

II. Words with Cultural Image

Culture image is formed in many thousand years of history in every nation, and "it is the crystallization of the long-term developing history and culture of different ethnics; some are closely related to national legends or totem worship. In all years of the long history of their ethnics, they continue to appear in the language of the people inside, and in literary and artistic works generation after generation. They slowly developed into a cultural symbol with a relatively fixed, a unique cultural meaning, some of which even have an extensive and far-reaching image association. When people mention it, they understand it tacitly and are good to communication." (Xie Tianzhen 1999:26)When people talk about it, a common image or implication is there, that is culture image, which is unique and specialized in its nation's culture. Words with cultural image are those words which have some kind of hidden implication behind the literal meaning, and when people use such kind of words, they mean some special and unique meanings. Words with cultural image have two features: national specificity and context-dependence. Although human thoughts share the common physiology and content, due to the objective natural and social environment, it is quite different in ways of thinking and language for the same content. As linguists say, people in different ethnics see the phenomenon of the same objective, different ethnic languages will give it different colors on the brush, which reflects the cultural characteristics of their ethnic and historical imprint, thus creating a culture of imagery with the attribution of nationality.[①] Cultural image is generated in the cultural environment of a cultural symbol, thus having a feature of context-dependence. Cultural Images and semantic reasoning are necessary to conform to the context. While context changed, cultural imagery and semantics may change according to the context. The original meaning is the weather process of rapid cooling caused by large-scale cold winds. However, when it used to describe the mood of someone, it means a bad or sorrowful mood. Belongingness of cultural image of a nation also determines that people must sometimes choose different cultural images required to convey English language content into Chinese in order to reach the same culture reference in the process of translation. So words with cultural image have the context-dependence. In the translation of such kind of words, translators should pay more attention to the context and translators should put more attention on the translation of such kind of words with cultural image.

III. SOME PROBLEMS IN THE TRANSLATION OF WORDS WITH CULTURAL IMAGE

A. Misplacement in the Translation of Words with Cultural Image

Different cultures more or less lead to the differences in the way of understanding of its people. The differences of the languages make a difficult crack to cross in the international communication. In translation, there are some words or phrases with cultural characteristics that can not be translated equally, thus appearing the misplacement of translation of words with cultural image. Misplacement of translation of words with cultural image prevents the target readers from losing the chance to have a distinctive and real access to the original work, which do harm to the international culture exchanges and understanding. Because of different surroundings, the same objective objects represent different or opposite culture image in different cultures. While people always translate the original words with cultural image from superficial meanings, this is misplacement of cultural image. The non-proficiency of the origin language and the target language, or culture makes misplacement of translation occur.

In Chinese culture, Loong[②] has an important status and a great influence on Chinese culture. Since ancient times, Loong in Chinese culture is an important part of Chinese philosophy. The masses always love Loong, awe dragon as well as worship it. Loong in Chinese culture, as a cultural phenomenon, has penetrated into all aspects of Chinese society, becoming a culture of cohesion and accumulation. During the development of Loong culture, whether the evolution of the image of Chinese Loong or the evolution of the implication of Loong culture, all reflected the creation of the Chinese nation and implied the Chinese nation's future faith and spiritual sustenance. Because of this, at home and abroad, Chinese see themselves as descendants of the Loong and are proud of that. As to every Chinese, Loong image is a symbol and a kind of flesh and blood emotion. In addition to the dissemination and inheritance of the Chinese Loong culture in China, it also crossed the waters and spread all over the world and enroot there. Loong images and "Loong dances" (sometimes dragon dances) can be seen everywhere in Chinatown in Western countries, all these indicate the influence of the Chinese culture of Loong. Thus, the image of the Loong, as a spiritual symbol of Chinese culture and national totems, has been deeply imprinted in every Chinese people's mind. Loong is a symbol of the Chinese nation, which is an auspicious animal. Loong in Chinese culture is not only a totem in China, but also has a profound cultural background. Han Chinese are known for their "Descendants of the Loong". In the ancient Chinese, loong is a symbol of the emperor, noble, majestic, imposing and a symbol of authority, the emperors also called themselves "true sons of the Loong". So, with the "dragon" related idiom, such as "prosperity brought by the dragon and the phoenix", "Crouching Tiger Hidden Dragon" and so on, it is always with a compliment. "Loong" also take command of all the location, such as "national champions", "big boss", etc.

While in *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English* (2004:167), dragon is defined as: (1) a large imaginary animal that has wings and a long tail and can breathe out fire4; (2) a woman who behaves in an angry and unfriendly way. In western culture, the Dragon often looks like demons, as the opposite of the heroes. While in literal works, it has

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① Http://www.lunwenwang.com/Freepaper/English

② Loong is transliterated from the Chinese express "Long"(龙), whose equivalent is "dragon" in many E-C dictionaries. To distinct its deep meaning and formal difference to English word "long", in the paper it is translated as "Loong", which is discussed by many scholars before.

an image of wickedness, especially for women, it symbolizes malicious and cruel women, and the image of dragon is negative. In early western story, dragon was a kind of monster, a symbol of evil. In the Bible, dragon was the symbol of evil. In British epic *Beowulf*, the hero Beowulf also fought fiercely with an evil dragon which is to protect treasure. From these definitions the dragon is a bad feature. Therefore “Dragon” is considered to be a gas-filled high-handed and aggressive monster. In English, the “dragon” always related to multi-band derogatory idioms: If we say that a woman is a “dragon”, which refers to that she is a violent old woman; another example: “She is a bit of a dragon around this place” means “she was a very pull addiction to people”. Thus “dragon” have become the symbol of terror and terrible in English. Studying its source, in the Western myth, “dragon” is a kind of monster shaped like a huge lizard, long wings, scaly bodies, dragging a long tail, and with its mouth spitting fire with the murderous smoke. Therefore, “dragon” caused by the association with the Han Chinese “Dragon” is entirely different.

In English-Chinese translation, people always translate Loong into Dragon and vice versa, which ignore the different connotations of two cultures and does not meet the spirit of the times. In Chinese culture, Loong is ubiquitous. It is no exaggeration to say that the Loong culture constitute the foundation and the thrust of Chinese culture. Its role is to act as messengers reaching heaven, rain animal and lucky miraculous objects etc. However, dragon in Western culture has a quite different meaning. Therefore, Loong in Chinese is quite different from Dragon in English. If people mix them together, it may be easier for them to have intercultural misunderstanding.

B. Loss in the Translation of Words with Cultural Image

Translation has been becoming increasingly prominent in disseminating cultural information, and promoting further mutual understanding between different ethnics and national integration. In the practical process of translation activities, the impersonal heterogeneity of ethnic language and culture will inevitably bring objective obstacles to the exchange of information. Among them, the extreme heterogeneity of language and culture, as a form of cultural expression, lead the translation into a dilemma. Cultural loss is a common phenomenon, and cultural image often has been neglected. Because of the differences that exist in cultures among many countries, there are some words or phrases with cultural characteristics that can not be translated properly. Or translators could not find an almost equal expression to replace the original one. By presenting the example of Qiangshou who is to replace the examinees in the examination, it is to propose some counter measures to solve the problem, aiming at finding out the effective ways and measures.

In recent years, the term “qiangshou” frequently appears in various media. “Qiangshou” as a social phenomenon, although not big flood, but at least has been quietly popular. When close to all major examination period, the streets, online forums, “qiangshou” are looming on the ads. Almost without exception, “qiangshou” appears where examinations take place. In China, a person who sits for an examination for someone is commonly known as qiangshou, who contains cultural implication. Yet many English lexicon and newspapers fail to convey its accurate cultural meaning. In recent years, the term gunmen frequent in various media. “Qiangshou” in English can be divided into the following:

a: Explanatory Translation

“qiangshou”: one who sits for an examination in place of another person. (in *Modern Chinese-English Dictionary*1999:1081); substitute during examination on false pretenses (in Lin Yutang’s *Chinese-English Dictionary of Modern* 1972:682); one who sits for the real candidate in an examination (in Liang Shiqiu’s *New Practical Chinese-English Dictionary* 1970:958).

b: Literal Translation

“qiangshou”: a hired gun (in *China Daily* 2004-07-16); a gunmen (in *China Daily* 2005-01-11).

c: Free Translation

“qiangshou”: a substitute (in *China Daily*, Hongkong Edition, 2003-06-24); a substitute tester (in *China Daily*, Hongkong Edition, 2003-10-08); a substitute examinee, a hired examinee (Liang Shiqiu’s *New Practical Chinese-English Dictionary*); examinee substitute (*New Century Chinese-English Dictionary*).

At the first sight, translating “qiangshou” into “a hired man” or “gunman”, it seems to be able to convey the authentic image of “qiangshou” to English readers with its culture, however, it is actually a distortion of history and culture. According to *Modern Chinese Dictionary*, the unstressed word “shou” means one who sits for an examination in place of another person, while the rising tone “shǒu” has a totally different meaning: armed soldiers or shooter. According to Xu Huilan’s research (2005: 95), the reasons why the “qiangshou” is used and analyzed as the following: The shape of the brush that the ancients used to write poetry composition is similar to the Hong Yingqiang, while sitting for an examination in place of another person is not a glorious thing, so they always use “qiang” (gun) to replace “bi” (pen), thus calling the person who sits for an examination in place of another person “qiangshou” (qiāngshou). What’s more, according to the record in Tang Dynasty, people call the person who is skilled at something “-shou”. So “qiangshou” is used based on it. Perhaps because years have passed, people almost forget the replacement between “qiang” and “bi” so as to translate “qiangshou” into “gunmen” or “hired man”. In fact, “qiangshou” has nothing to do with gun or something related to it. Or if they have some relationship between, it still can not translate “qiangshou” into “gunmen” or “hired man”. According to *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English*, “a hired man” means someone who is paid to shoot someone else; “gunmen” means a criminal or TERRORIST who use a gun. Both are related to killer or criminal, it is really wrong to translate “qiangshou” into “gunmen” or “hired man”. So we cannot find the same or equal word in English to replace “qiangshou”, because Chinese have a totally different implication in the word “qiangshou”.

In translation, the implicit beauty and the vague beauty are not reflected in English. This is because Chinese is a semantic-based language. In thousands of years, under the influence of emphasis on meaning, demeanor and strength of character and aesthetic traditions, Chinese formed the grammatical structure of an inherent relationship, implicit relations and fuzzy relations. Chinese culture image is easily missing in the English language. A better approach is to add footnote or endnote to complement the interpretation in the text.

In conclusion, the values, aesthetics, and cultural differences such as psychological and symbolic, as well as the impact of religious beliefs and mythological figures cause English and Chinese cultural differences. To deal with these differences, when translate words with cultural Images, the translator in particular, should pay more attention to cultural context and convey cultural information in translation.

IV. PRINCIPLE OF TRANSLATING WORDS WITH CULTURAL IMAGE

Translation is not simply the transformation between the languages and the language symbols. It is an activity of cross-language and cross-culture communication in the actual sense. In dealing with the cultural factors of English and Chinese translation, the translator should be willing to use pragmatic empathy in order to esteem and fit the target language's culture.

The famous translation theorist, Nida (from Wang Yining 2004:110) has pointed out that for real success in terms of translation, it is more important to learn two different cultures than languages, words make sense only in their cultural background. In the treatment of handling translation of cultural differences, translation profession has been divided into two main opposite standpoints, which are Domestication and Foreignization. Domestication promotes the use of a culture all in its own way of expression, but against the introduction of the expressions in the source language. Foreignization advocates the preservation of the unique expression in the source language and input it into the target language. Domestication is one of the principles to translate the words with cultural image of the source language into target language which readers are familiar with. It is convenient for readers to reach the degree of transformation, and it goes against the principle of faith. It is not conducive to cultural exchange and dissemination. However, one of the missions of translation is the cultural exchange and dissemination, that is, to introduce the language and the culture of one nation to another, enabling readers to appreciate the exotic culture and unique charm of verse, thus improve inter-ethnic tolerance and respect for other cultural awareness. This is Foreignization. As a famous representative of Foreignization theory in translation, Lawrence Venuti (1995/2004) highlights Foreignization in the source language. Materialist epistemology believes that epistemic has the features of limitation and limitlessness. The essence of the cultural convergence is the gradual understanding and acceptance of the exotic culture, thus having the features of limitation and limitlessness. The main aspect is the limitlessness. The main trend in cultural evolution is the convergence, that is, with the cultural development, more and more tend to unify the various cultures. As long as there is still a culture, and cultural convergence process is endless. Language is not only a carrier of culture, but also a tool for the exchange of different cultures. Foreignization will no doubt help narrow the gap between cultures, and play an important role in showing culture, characteristics, and broaden the reader's perspectives and promote cultural convergence. On the contrary, the limitlessness of cultural convergence has made Foreignization an inevitable trend of translation. [③]

Through time and space, external and internal, the economy, politics, morality, and many other social factors, which composed culture of ethnic groups for examining personality and social psychology, ethnic spirit and features, are the focus of translation. Every work has the mark of ethnic culture. Translated works introduce the life of another nation to the reader of different cultural backgrounds to enhance understanding and communication between people, this is the fundamental purpose of the translation.

With the rapid development of science and technology, globalization and information technology help to facilitate the integration throughout the world. There are more and more frequent contacts in politics, commerce, science and technology, culture and other areas. Modern people use a more mature psychology to feel and understand other countries or cultures through radio, television, the Internet and other channels while a more open mind constantly adjust to, enrich and update their own culture psychologically. This requires that translators should not only be content to convey the general meaning of the original cultural image, but convey the maximum possible information of the source original culture as their duty.

Reception theory believes that the readers have certain expectation, requirements and psychological preparation in understanding and acceptance of foreign cultures. Therefore, they often take the initiative to understand the text of the difference with the help of reading experience, context and related notes, etc. As the exchanges between different cultures and integration, there is no need to worry for the readers of this ability.

Foreignization is Beneficial to Cross-Culture Communication. Culture is a broad and complex concept, with broad and narrow sense. Culture in the broad sense: the sum of the material and spiritual wealth created in the process of social and historical development of mankind including material culture, system culture and psychological cultural; Culture in the broad sense: people's social customs, lifestyles and relationships, etc. Culture has a distinct nationality difference. Since national geographical, ecological environment, socio-political economic system, historical background,

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[③] Http://www.lunwenwang.com/Freepaper/English/principle/principle of translation customs, values and behavior patterns are different, and their culture has its own characteristics. In addition to differences in culture, culture has the features of penetration and openness. First of all culture itself was an open system, with incalculable absorption inclusive. New things of foreign culture are easily accepted by people, and absorb it into their own culture. Second, the power of cultural penetration grasp all the opportunity to enter the social life of other cultures, relying on the cultural environment where could maintain their vitality.

Because of the differences in culture, there is a need to communicate. Translation is the social exchange process and communication tool between two languages. Its purpose is to promote the language of the political, economic and cultural progress. Its mission is to convey the logic images of the real world of the original works from one language to another language. The fundamental task of translation and the great significance is cultural exchanges and promotion of cultural progress. It can be said that cultural differences determines the need for translation, the openness and permeability of culture has provided translatability for the translation.

With modern technology, especially the network's popularity in the global and the booming in the international economy, the world has entered a new era. Globalization is no longer the exclusive economic terms, and it is the main theme of our times and dramatically changes the political, economic, cultural and social life all over the world. The era of globalization will inevitably bring about the globalization of culture. The cultural interaction between nations, mutual penetration and mutual exchange, mutual integration put forward higher requirements to the translators. That only the basic information required to convey the original, just domestication to make the readers understand the translation has been difficult to adapt to the requirements of a new era. Age of globalization requires cultural exchanges and cultural integration, cultural exchange and cultural integration, on the contrary, requires Foreignization and asks the translator to convey the unique culture of the original image as complete and accurate as possible. Foreignization contributes to enrich Chinese language and culture. People may worry that the introduction of non-Chinese-style language will undermine the purity of normative of the Chinese language. They advocated domestication, in order to maintain their independence. In fact, any language does not exist in isolation. The independence and affinity of a language to the other language, it is both the protection, inheritance, development, and even update their own respective cultures. The strategy of Foreignization by the translation predecessors in China has made indelible contribution to the enrich Chinese language and culture, thus we have the vibrant and vivid words and phrases like "two birds with one stone," "trojan horse", "Aladdin's lamp," "Pandora's box" and so. Foreignization played a pivotal role in developing and enriching our language and cultural. Foreignization could not only take good appropriation of foreign countries, we can also send us the essence for sharing. Since ancient times, China has well-known great writers and famous quotes. In the end, whether Chinese literary work cannot match others' literary works? Or is the quality of Chinese translation not high? Perhaps Chinese translators should consider the issue. Therefore, the Chinese translators who translate Chinese literature into foreign languages, they should remember to introduce our excellent culture, as much as possible, but not chase for easier understanding, which will lead to the loss of Chinese characteristics and charm, but also the difficulty to go beyond the works in their mother tongue of foreign countries. So Foreignization is good to diffuse Chinese culture to other countries.

In fact when the translators translate foreign works into Chinese, as long as there are similar Chinese words, they will give up the cultural connotation carried in foreign languages, but choose similar Chinese words the readers are familiar with. This leads to the misplacement and loss in the translation of words with culture image. So Foreignization is a good way to keep this kind of unique features. Translators, as a cultural bridge between China and the world, have the responsibility to introduce the original image that readers are not familiar with and make them slowly recognized and accepted.

V. Some Approaches to Translation of Words with Cultural Image

A. *Image Retention and Notes*

Image Retention means the readers should get closer to the original and keep heterogeneous components in the original works. Translation is the bridge of cultural exchanges, rather than mutual gains. In translation, accurate content and fluent expression and the pursuit of exotic and forms of aesthetic value are important. Readers should have both the value of literature appreciation and conducive to cultural transmission. Therefore, the cultural characteristics of the text can not easily be replaced.

In Chinese classic *A Dream of Red Mansions*, the heroine Lin Daiyu is described as "心较比干多一窍，病如西子胜三分", and Yang Xianyi translates this sentence with notes as "She looked more sensitive than Pikan[1], more delicate than Hishi[2]."

Notes: 1 A prince noted for his great intelligence at the end of Shang Dynasty.

2 A famous beauty of the ancient Kingdom of Yueh. (Yang Xianyi and Gladys Yang vol. 1 1978:48)[④]

Pikan was the embodiment of wisdom, and Hishi was the embodiment of beauty in the history of China. Yang adopts image retention and notes to introduce the cultural background in order to inform the English readers a better

[④] The Chinese classic *Hong Lou Meng* (红楼梦) is translated by David Hawkes, Yang Xianyi and his wife Gladys Yang respectively. However Hawkes translates the title of the novel as *The Story of the Stone*, and Yang translates it as *The Dream of Red Mansions*, therefore for the convenience in the paper, it is not necessary to mention the original book, just consider the two translation by Hawkes and Yang.

understanding of cultural connotations of Pikan and Hishi legends. Although the English readers do not know Pikan and Hishi before, according to the notes, they have a better understanding as well as a closer touch to Chinese culture.

B. Image Addition

Because of cultural differences, those cultural images closely related to political, economic, religious, historical, geographical and others, which need to be explained completely and more clearly to make sure the target readers absorb and understand cross-cultural translation flawlessly.

In translating the same sentence above-mentioned, David Hawkes changes it as “She had more chambers in her heart than the martyred Bi Gan; And suffered a little more pain in it than the beautiful Xi Shi (Warring States).” (Hawkes vol. 1 1973:103)

Here, the English readers may not know who Bi Gan and Xi Shi are, but the image addition tell them Bi Gan is an intelligent person and Xi Shi is a beautiful lady. And the two persons are symbols of wisdom and beauty in Chinese history, and also in the eyes of Chinese. Then the purpose of translation is to let the target readers get the accurate meaning but also convey the different culture to the foreign countries.

Yang Xianyi’s translation and Hawkes’ version are different. For Yang, he adopts Foreignization to make foreign readers learn more about Chinese culture and literature, while Hawkes hopes his readers like to read his translation and understand the story clearly. Therefore, the translation of the words with the cultural image is a challenge for the translators. So, choosing the appropriate translation methods is essential to retain the cultural image. To some extent, Foreignization bring defamiliarization[5] to the readers, however, it is the defamiliarization that cause the readers’ curiosity about the source language cultures. Readers then take the initiative to understand and learn the source language culture of the country, to extend and deepen their aesthetic process of the idea. As for defamiliarization, Foreignization is a good way to make the readers closer to the source language and culture, thus getting better understanding of its culture. From a broader sense, the two cultures have generated a real trial of strength and communication, and played a role in exchange each other’s needs and enrich their language and culture. In this sense, Foreignization makes its cultural image realized.

VI. Conclusion

As the Chinese and English are different in religious beliefs, customs, geography, political systems and human history, cultural misplacement, loss and conflicts will inevitably appear in the culture. In this paper, the main focus lies in the analysis of Foreignization in translating words with cultural image, including the possibility and the advantages of Foreignization in the translation, especially in translating some unique culture implication. Based on this principle, in this paper some problems in translating words with cultural images and approaches are discussed further, and it can be concluded that misplacement and loss of cultural image in translation are frequent and obvious, therefore in translation the principle of foreignization can solve these problems, as a result in translation of words with cultural image, image retention and notes, and image addition can be used for readers’ better understanding. As for the higher demand to translation of cultural image, the translators, with the spirit of love to the translation and the responsibility to the readers, should spare no efforts to give full explanation of the culture of the source language and seriously compared it with the target culture and analyze the source language and culture as much as possible in order to transplant the implication to the target language, making them shining in the target language, so that it reaches the successful intercultural communication for people from two cultures.

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Cooperative Learning Method in the Practice of English Reading and Speaking

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***Abstract*—As is known to all, fostering the students' ability to use the language in real situations mainly depends on the teaching and learning method. In traditional language classrooms, students are taught chiefly about language and its rules. They learn facts about language rather than how to use it communicatively to express ideas and read real language. In order to reform traditional teaching approaches, the author tries to combine cooperative learning with the teaching of English reading and speaking for the purpose of confirming that cooperative learning is more effective in teaching English in Colleges.**

***Index Terms*—cooperative learning, language teaching, reading, speaking**

I. Introduction

Foreign language teaching has developed and gained diverse achievements in recent years. Various kinds of approaches, such as grammar-translation, audio-lingual, natural approach etc, emerged and dominated the field of FLT in different periods. China, influenced by the main trend, also underwent several stages during which different facets of language learning were emphasized and had gained rapid progress. Nowadays, English has been an international language and is used to a greater and greater degree. However, not all the learners who involve in English-learning could end up with fruitful rewards. One serious problem is quite astonishing: most learners, though they have mastered a great number of vocabularies and could engrave a great deal of grammatical rules in their minds, can hardly speak out a complete sentence, or write down a correct one. In order to deal with this situation, this paper intends to find out an effective way to help college students enhance their reading and speaking ability.

In China, most college English classes are made up of at least 40-50 students. In each class, one third of the students are less efficient students. The students are generally reserved and reluctant to use English. Many of them also become embarrassed if they make a mistake when speaking in front of other students. So teachers must find some ways to boost the students' self-confidence, to motivate and encourage them and thereby improve their fluency. So teachers need to be able to manage their interaction with the class in a way that allows all students equal opportunities to participate; learners also need to learn how they are expected to interact in the classroom.

Group work and pair work have become increasingly popular in language teaching since they are seen to have many advantages. Group work is a cooperative activity: four students, perhaps with a topic, are doing a role-play or solving a problem. In groups, students tend to participate more equally, and they are also more able to experiment and use the language than they are in a whole-class arrangement.

Pair work has many of the same advantages. The moment students get into pairs and start working on a problem or talking about something, many more of them will be doing the activity than if the teacher was working with the whole class, where only one student talks at a time.

Both pair work and group work give the students chances for greater independence. Because they are working together without the teacher controlling every move, they take some of their own learning decisions, they decide what language to use to complete a certain task, and they can work without the pressure of the whole class listening to what they are doing.

II. Analysis of the Traditional Teaching Method

It has been observed that it is difficult for the Chinese students to communicate with the native speakers, although they began to learn English from Grade 4 in primary schools. The occurrence of the phenomenon is closely related to the traditional teaching methods that have some weakness in themselves.

As we have seen, the traditional mode of classroom organization was a teacher-centered one, with learners sitting in rows facing the teacher. The students spent most of their time repeating and manipulating models provided by the teacher, the textbook, and the tape and developed skills in choral speaking and repeating. In this way, the students learned how to memorize individual words and grammatical patterns, and to practice them in contrived contexts; the underlying strategies behind the classroom tasks were rarely made explicit. As a result, some of the students in such classrooms could read texts correctly with beautiful intonation, could memorize a lot of words and expressions, but they rarely learned how to make use of this stored knowledge in an organized or creative way. That is to say, they do not learn how to express their own ideas and to share these ideas by communicating with other people. Therefore, developing the students' ability to use the language in real situations is the main task for all the teachers.

A. The Current Conditions of College English Classes

B. Students Are at Different Levels

One of the biggest problems teachers face is to teach a class with the students of different levels. Some are efficient learners of English, some are less efficient learners, and some are problem learner, which makes it difficult for the teachers in class. Some students, especially the less efficient ones, have no interest in English, so they don't like to participate in the activities. If the teachers pay more attention to those students, that is to say, teach at a slow speed, the efficient students will feel bored. If not, the less efficient students will feel they are neglected.

C. The Class Is Very Big

In China, most college English classes consist of at least 40 students, some even come to 80. As we can see, in big classes, it is difficult for the teacher to make contact with all the students in class and it is difficult for the students to ask for and receive individual attention. It may seem impossible to organize dynamic and creative teaching and learning sessions. Most of the students don't have enough chances to practice English.

D. The Teacher's Action Zone

According to Richards & Lockhart (1996), in class, it is true that despite a teacher's best intentions, teachers sometimes interact with some students in the class more frequently than others. Although teachers generally try to treat students fairly and give every student in the class an equal opportunity to participate in the lesson, it is often hard to avoid interacting with some students more than others. This creates what is referred to as the teacher's action zone.

Students located within the teacher's action zone are likely to participate more actively in a lesson than students who fall outside that action zone. In many classrooms, this zone includes the middle front row seats. If a teacher is teaching from the front of the class, students seated there are more likely to have the opportunity to participate actively because of their proximity to the teacher.

Although a teacher may feel that all the students in the class have an equal opportunity to participate in the lesson, it is not always so. It also seems that the teacher overlooked the students sitting in the right and left rows, and had an action zone located in the center of the room. If active participation is important in learning, then those students not within the teacher's action zone are at a disadvantage.

In order to improve the existing situation in College English teaching, this paper introduces cooperative learning into the classroom.

III. DEFINITIONS OF COOPERATIVE LEARNING

Many scholars proposed their own but actually rather similar definitions. According to Olsen & Kagan (1992), cooperative learning is defined as "group learning activities organized so that learning is dependent on the socially structured exchange of information between learners in groups and in which each learner is held accountable for his or her own learning and is motivated to increase the learning of others". Paul J. Vermette (1998) defined cooperative learning in this way: " A cooperative classroom team is a relatively permanent, heterogeneously mixed, small group of students who have been assembled to complete an activity, produce a series of projects or products and/or who have been asked to individually master a body of knowledge. The spirit within the team has to be one of positive interdependence, that is, a feeling that success for any one is tied directly to the success of others". To put it more concretely, cooperative learning approach defines the class as heterogeneous groups, the class is organized in groups of four or six students in order to fulfill a learning task cooperatively. The learning task is based on interaction and reciprocal interdependence among the members of group and requires mutual help. In this educational approach, students and teachers are in a state of dynamic cooperation and together build up an intimate learning and social atmosphere in the classroom. The textbooks and the teacher are no longer the only source of information, but are replaced by a variety of other people.

IV. THE SIGNIFICANCE OF COOPERATIVE LEARNING IN COLLEGE ENGLISH CLASS

Students need practice in producing comprehensive output (Swain 1985) using all the language resources they have already acquired. Getting feedback from the teacher and from other students in the class enables learners to test hypotheses and refine their developing knowledge of the language system. When a group of students do this while talking together it is called negotiation of meaning and its aim is to make output more comprehensible. There is a principle underlying current ELT practice that interaction pushes learners to produce more accurate and appropriate language, which itself provides input for other students. This is one reason why group work has become popular in contemporary classrooms.

In cooperative learning, discussion becomes the indispensable method. Many teachers have realized discussion is a better way than the question-and-answer method. However, a discussion with the whole class is not always the best way of getting students talking. Shy and less confident students can hide from the teacher and not necessarily contributive. A useful alternative for promoting productive talk is the use of pairs or small groups (not large than six) combining to talk and work on a specified task.

V. Cooperative Learning in Reading

Reading is viewed as a process of decoding written symbols, working from smaller unites to larger ones. It is important to bear in mind that reading is not an invariable sill, that there are different types of reading skills that correspond to the many different purposes we have for reading.

In common reading class, the teacher asks the students to read the whole passage, and then answer some questions or do some reading comprehension exercises. Then the teacher explains the important words and phrases. The main task for the students is to read over and over again until they understand the passage thoroughly. In order to raise the efficiency of reading, the teacher can try cooperative learning. We can do as follows:

1) the teacher gives the reading material; 2) the teacher divides the reading material into different parts, each member of the group gets a different part for one material; 3) each member of the group should find the others who get the same part with him and form the 'expert group'; 4) after discussing in the 'expert group', each member should go back to their normal group and exchange opinions about their discussion, then form a complete idea about the material; 5) the teacher asks questions and each member of the group is responsible for the question; 6) the teacher makes a comment about the cooperative reading class.

VI. Cooperative Learning in Speaking

Speaking plays a more and more important role in English learning. Since seldom students can speak fluent English in classroom, it's high time for teachers to apply cooperative learning method in class.

Samples:

A. Students work in pairs. One student has a number of elements (e.g. pictures) arranged in a certain way. The other has the same elements, but loose, and has to arrange them in the same way by talking to his partner without looking at the partner's picture.

B. Students, in pairs, each have similar pictures, but with differences. Through talking to each other, they have to find the differences without looking at each other's picture.

Through cooperative learning method, speaking activities can be highly motivated and students can be willing to open their mouth instead of being afraid of making mistakes in front of the whole class. If teachers have set up the activity properly, and can give useful feedback, students will get tremendous satisfaction from it.

VII. Conclusion

Interaction in small groups, as discussed in the paper, provides a basis for language acquisition. With learners working in groups or pairs they learn how to read and speak effectively, how to work out what texts mean how to gather important information, how to work well in cooperation with others and how to solve language problems in a systematic way. They become skilled at cooperating with others, and express their own opinions, ideas and feelings, guided by the teacher. In a word, cooperative learning method helps students become a real language user in and out of English classroom.

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Promoting Communicative Language Learning through Communicative Tasks

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***Abstract*—This study examines the level of effectiveness and suitability of three communicative language teaching-based projects in a particular teaching context, namely, a first-year Chinese language classroom in a university in Utah. Research data included participants' sample project work, project feedback forms, and focus-group interviews. The results showed that the participants spoke highly about the projects while they also made a couple suggestions for project modifications in order to better fit their individual learning needs. The findings suggest that, when designing communicative language teaching-based projects, learning about students' needs in a particular teaching context is a key to ensure project success.**

***Index Terms*—communicative language teaching, communicative language learning, Chinese language**

I. Introduction

Over 30 years ago theories and practices on second language teaching and learning shifted from being grammar-based to focusing of the communicative aspect of language learning (Leung, 2005). In explaining the process of second language acquisition, Chomsky (1965) created the concept of linguistic competence and performance. For Chomsky (1965), there can be no linguistics until a clear distinction is drawn between linguistic performance, which refers to people's speech actions, and linguistic competence, which is the knowledge of a language that makes those speech actions possible. Other researchers (Canale & Swain, 1980; Hymes, 1987) in the field of second language acquisition see this concept of linguistic competence and performance as lacking the social and cultural component. Hence, researchers use of the term, communicative competence, emerged in the work of Hymes (1987) to help augment Chomsky's (1965) concept of linguistic competence and performance with the social component in second language learning.

II. Communicative Competence

Communicative competence involves the social and cultural knowledge speakers are presumed to have which enables them to use and interpret the forms of a language (Saville-Troike, 2003). A speaker is said to have communicative competence if he or she knows what to say to whom and how to say it appropriately in any given situation (Schiffrin, 1994). Hymes (1987) claims that communicative competence is made up of four types of competencies. The first competence is linguistic competence referring to speakers' knowledge of grammatical structure in a language. The second competence is the knowledge of appropriateness, which is defined as sociolinguistic competence by Canale and Swain (1980). Speakers possessing sociolingusitic competence would produce utterances that are understood appropriately in different sociolinguistic contexts depending on factors such as purposes of the interaction, convention of the interaction, and background of participants (Leung, 2005). The third competence, discourse competence, concerned with cohesion and coherence, refers to the knowledge and skill required to combine grammatical forms and meanings to produce different types of spoken or written texts (Leung, 2005). The fourth competence, strategic competence, refers to strategies used to compensate for breakdowns in communication due to limiting conditions in actual communication or to enhance the effectiveness of communication. Speakers of a language need to acquire all four competences identified in communicative competence in order to speak and act appropriately in a speech community.

Saville-Troike (2003) gives a few examples of knowledge and skills communicatively competent speakers would possess. They are: knowledge of when to speak and when to remain silent, how one may talk to persons of different statuses and roles, what nonverbal behaviors are appropriate in various contexts, what the routines for turn-taking are in conversation, how to ask for and give information, how to request, and how to offer or decline assistance. In short, communicative competence is "everything involving the use of language and other communicative modalities in particular social settings" (Saville-Troike, 2003, p. 18).

III. Communicative Language Teaching

The communicative language teaching (CLT) approaches have become widely promoted in second language teaching since communicative competence, on which CLT is based, was introduced in the second language acquisition field (Li

& Hedebouw, 2009). According to Nunan (1988), "a basic principle underlying all communicative approaches is that learners must learn not only to make grammatically correct, propositional statements about the experiential world, but must also develop the ability to use language to get things done" (p. 25). In other words, the CLT approaches focus on the effectiveness of communication rather than the practice of grammatical patterns. Ma (2009) identifies a few typical communicative activities in CLT: group discussion, simulation, and role-play, all of which emphasize collaboration among peers in real or simulated real-life situations. In sum, CLT approaches advocate the idea that second language acquisition develops through communicative tasks, which are class activities that resemble real-world language tasks (Nunan, 1989).

Current literature on CLT touches upon CLT in relation to second language teaching and learning at different levels. The two most widely discussed aspects are the teaching context and the relationship between CLT beliefs and practices. First, there are debates among scholars on the teaching context in which CLT can be relevantly applied. This argument stems from Bax's (2003) and Holliday's (1994) claim that when teaching, language educators should take into account the context of the teaching environment and that it is risky to export a teaching approach such as CLT from one context to another. On the other side, Liao (2004) takes the view of what Larsen-Freeman (2000) called 'absolutism', advocating that CLT is the best approach. CLT applies in all teaching contexts including teaching in China, a nation which has distinctly different teaching and learning context from that of a western nation. Second, several studies on CLT focus on teachers' beliefs and teaching practices. Feryok (2008), who investigated the level of consistency between a language teacher's CLT beliefs and her teaching practice, reported that both the teacher's teaching beliefs and practices were influenced by her understanding of the teaching context in which she worked. For example, Feryok (2008) notes that the students expectation of the teacher as a facilitator reinforces that the teacher should recast answers more frequently. Feryok's (2008) study implies that both positive and negative situational factors in a teaching context could possibly influence CLT practices. Indeed, Liao (2003), the advocator of the use of CLT in China, states that the situational constraints found in particular teaching contexts can hinder the adoption of CLT practices. Nonetheless, Liao (2003) proclaims that language instructors can overcome these obstacles if they are aware of the constraints. Liao (2003) uses her study done in China as an example to support her claim. In Liao's (2003) case study of a secondary school teacher in China, the teacher, who reported holding favorable attitudes towards CLT, was able to successfully execute CLT practices even though she had several situational constraints including large class size and mandatory function-based textbook.

The review of the current literature on CLT shows that the teaching context is a crucial factor determining whether or not CLT can be successfully implemented in the classroom. Some researchers (Bax, 2003; Holliday, 1994; Hu, 2005) take the position that CLT is not equally suited to all contexts while others (Hiep, 2007; Liao, 2003; Liao, 2004) claim that issues which come up in a particular context do not necessarily negate the potential usefulness of CLT. I take the later view as my position. As a Chinese language instructor, I have been eager to develop effective CLT-based in- and after-class language tasks which are best suited to the particular teaching context in which I work. Hence, the aim of this paper is to investigate the effectiveness and suitability of newly designed CLT-based projects in the teaching context of a first-year Chinese language class in a Chinese minor program in a mid-size state university in Utah. In particular, this study attempts to answer the following research questions:

1. What are learners' linguistic gains in doing the CLT-based projects?
2. What are learners' reactions in doing the CLT-based projects?
3. What recommendations do learners make in improving the design of the projects in order to better fit the particular teaching and learning context?

In order to ensure that the projects I designed were indeed CLT-based tasks, I followed Nunan's (1989) *framework for analyzing communicative tasks*.

IV. Communicative Tasks

Communicative task is a key element in CLT; hence, what characteristics account for a communicative task needs to be discussed. Nunan (1989) defines communicative task as "a piece of classroom work which involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting in the target language while their attention is principally focused on meaning rather than form" (p. 10). Nunan (1989) stresses that it is not an easy task to draw a distinction between communicative and non-communicative tasks; therefore, he has created *the framework for analyzing communicative tasks* to systematically identify tasks which are considered having the communicative features. Nunan (1989) first points out that a language learning task consists of six components: goals, input, activities, teacher role, learner role and settings. Secondly, a communicative task has certain characteristics in each of the six components. Discussion of the six components of a communicative task follows:

Goals: Goals refer to the purposes of a language task. Goals for a communicative task include developing human relations through exchange of information, thoughts and feelings, and completing an action.

Input: Input is "the data that form the point of departure for the task" (Nunan, 1989, p. 53). The input data for a communicative task has the feature of being authentic, meaning the material has not been specifically produced for the purpose of language teaching and learning. Some examples of input used in a communicative task include but are not limited to hotel brochures, business cards, menu, and storybooks.

Activities: Activities are what learners are expected to do with the input for the task. Three characteristics are emphasized for activities in a communicative task. First, the activities must be authentic in terms of reflecting real-world tasks. Second, the activities should stimulate learners to apply newly acquired linguistic knowledge to real communication. Finally, the activities are designed to help develop the accuracy and fluency of learners' target language.

Learner roles: In a communicative task, learners are seen as members of a community progressively moving from dependent to independent learners.

Teacher roles: The teacher working with learners in a communicative task has three main roles, which are facilitator, participant, and observer.

Settings: Settings are comprised of the learning mode (e.g. task for whole class, small group, or pair work), and the learning environment (e.g. conventional classroom, community class, or outside the classroom) of a task. In a communicative task, both the learning mode and the environment should promote learner-centeredness, meaning learners are involved in learning through doing or using (Song, 2009).

V. THE STUDY CONTEXT

This study was initially an inspiration of curriculum change at the classroom level turned into a research project. As a new hire and the only full-time instructor in the Chinese as a minor program in a state university in Utah, besides teaching, my job was to evaluate the current program and make necessary changes to ensure that the program curriculum was aligned with the current trends of foreign language teaching. The first step I took to evaluate the current program was to read the syllabi in the previous years. After reading these, I found that there seemed to be inconsistency in terms of the teaching approach underlined between the course objectives and the course evaluations in the syllabi. Table 1 illustrates that the course objectives in the second-semester, first-year Chinese language course syllabus advocated the CLT approaches.

TABLE 1.
PREVIOUS COURSE SYLLABUS FOR CHIN 1020

CHIN 1020	
Course Objectives This course enables students to further develop basic communicative competencies: listening, speaking, reading, writing in Chinese. It focus on expanding basic vocabulary and sentence patterns that help students carry on simple conversations in Chinese on a considerable range of topics. It also aims to further improve students' ability to communicate accurately and appropriately in everyday situations.	
Evaluations	**Non-CLT-based Evaluations**
	Assignments: 60 pts (12%)
	Chapter quizzes: 40 pts (8%)
	First mid-term: 100 pts (20%)
	Second mid-term: 100 pts (20%)
	Final exam: 100 pts (20%)
	Total: 400 pts (80%)
	Possibly CLT-based Evaluations
	Class attendance and performance: 70 pts (14%)
	Tutoring attendance: 30 pts (6%)
	Total: 100 pts (20%)

The learning goals stated in the objectives such as "communicate accurately and appropriately", "help students carry on simple conversations in Chinese", and "develop basic communicative competencies" all implied the implementation of the CLT in the class. However, the evaluation section of the syllabus shows that the grading system did not support the CLT objectives, but had the characteristic of a test-based curriculum. For instance, the homework assignments, quizzes, and exams accounted for 80% of the final grade while only 20% of the evaluations such as class performance and tutoring were possibly CLT-based.

After evaluating the syllabus from the previous year, I decided to decrease the percentage accounted for the paper-and-pencil based homework assignments and tests to 50% and add newly designed CLT-based projects including a video-making project (10%), a blog project (10%), a storybook-making project (10%), weekly Chinese-English language partner meetings (10%), and Chinese New Year show (10%) to 50%. In this study, I only focused on the discussion of the three projects: the video-making, the blog, and the storybook-making projects, due to lack of consent from people who were not students in the Chinese class, but were involved in the language partner meetings and Chinese New Year show.

VI. METHOD

A total of 15 students, six males and nine females, in the second-semester, first-year Chinese language class participated in the semester-long study. All of the participants were identified as true beginners, who had not studied Chinese in a classroom setting, home community, or in a study abroad context prior to their enrollment in the Chinese program under study. All participants in the study were non-heritage learners, whose parents were not of Chinese origin. Research instruments utilized to gather data included sample work of the participants' projects, project feedback forms, and two one-hour focus interviews with eight participants. All data were gathered toward the end of the semester after the participants had enough time to receive language input for the projects, complete the projects, and reflect on the projects. I use the participants' sample work to illustrate the characteristics of each of the three CLT-based projects and the level of the participants' success in gaining language knowledge through doing the projects. In regard to the data from the student project feedback forms and the focus group interviews, the schemes emerged in them were coded into different categories for discussion and a better understanding of the participants' reactions to do the projects.

VII. The Processes of Designing and Executing the CLT-Based Projects

I used Nunan's (1989) *framework for analyzing communicative tasks* as the guide when I designed the CLT-based projects. In the following tables and paragraphs, I list the task components which illustrate communicative characteristics of each of the projects followed by brief descriptions of how they were carried out as class projects. Finally, I use the participants' sample work to illustrate and discuss their language gains by doing the projects.

A. CTL-based Project 1: Blog Project

TABLE 2.
TASK COMPONENTS OF THE BLOG PROJECT

Blog Project
Goals: (1) Discuss five topics on your blog, upon which the class touched (2) Communicate effectively with bloggers from the Chinese class and from Taiwan
Input: Prompt questions
Activities: (1) Use the prompt questions to help organize a short paragraph of at least 50 characters on your blog (2) Respond to bloggers, who write comments on your blog entries. (3) Visit your classmates' blogs and write comments regarding their blog entries.
Learner roles: Blogger
Teacher roles: Monitor, facilitator
Settings: Individual/outside the classroom on the Internet

The blog project was a collaborative project with a class of undergraduate students who majored in Teaching Chinese as a second language in a university in Taiwan. The Taiwanese students were trained to respond in appropriate ways to Chinese language beginners. The Taiwanese students' responses to the participants were seen as a model of authentic forms of communication in the target language. The blog project was a ten-week activity in which every two weeks the participants were required to write a blog entry to respond to a set of prompt questions on a topic familiar to them, reply to comments from their classmates or the Taiwanese students posted below their blog entry, and post comments on their classmates' blogs. The purpose of this project was to stimulate authentic communication among the participants themselves and with the native speakers in Taiwan using vocabulary and grammar gained in class. The five topics discussed on the participants' blogs were (1)introducing yourself, (2)what do you like to wear?, (3)my daily schedule, (4)my house, and (5)my study, all of which were discussed in the textbook and in class prior to the beginning of the blog project. In the project, I acted as a monitor and facilitator overlooking the participants' language production. For example, when I identified a common language error which many participants made on their blogs, I would design an activity on the linguistic point without explicitly saying, "Many of you made this type of mistakes on your blogs!". The participants usually would discover that they made a mistake after the review activity and simply correct their language errors on the blog.

The paragraph listed below is a participant's sample work on the topic of "my daily schedule". It shows that the participant was able to loosely organize a short paragraph to describe her daily schedule with only minor grammar errors.

我的孩子八点去学校。我收拾我的客厅和厨房。我做 laundry，我的孩子有很多很多衣服！我做中文作业。我也 take a nap 因为晚上我工作。I go to bed 一点- 二点 am. 我三点半上课。我很忙，你呢？你每天几点起床？

Translation: [My children go to school at 8 o'clock. I clean up my living room and kitchen. I do laundry, my children have lots of clothes! I do Chinese homework. I also take a nap because I work at night. I go to bed at 1-2 am. I go to class at 3:30. I am very busy, and you? What time do you wake up?]

Initially the participant's writing about daily schedule was influenced by her native language, English, in terms of the placement of the time words. In English, descriptions of actions go before time words wile in Chinese time words are placed before actions. For example, the sentence, "My children go to school at 8 o'clock" is considered correct in English and the sentence "My children at 8 o'clock go to school" is accurate in Chinese. After reading the participant's and other students' blog entries on the topic of daily schedule, I found that the time word misplacement errors were very common. Hence, I reviewed the grammar pattern in class and the participant edited most time word mistakes except the sentence, "I go to bed 一点- 二点 am" (I go to bed at 1-2 am), which still uses English grammar. Another language feature of the participant is that she sometimes used her L1 as support to avoid communication breakdown, a useful strategy for language learners in real communication, which is identified as a kind of compensation language learning strategy by Oxford (1990). The L1 usage also gave a hint to the Taiwanese student who responded to the participant that the participant probably needed language assistance. The following response from the Taiwanese student illustrated that the correspondences had dual functions of language teaching/learning and real communication.

你要照顾孩子、洗衣服(做 laundry)、煮饭(to cook)，还要工作，又要上课，事情真的很多！

Translation: [You need to take care of the kids, do laundry, cook, work, and go to class. You have lots of things to do!]

First, the responder expressed his or her empathy on the participant's busy life at the end of the paragraph, which signified a form of real communication. Second, the responder attempted to implicitly correct the participant's language error by listing both incorrect and correct ways of saying a word side by side in the reply. For instance, the participant wrote "做 laundry", which means "do laundry" in English. However, in Chinese the accurate expression is "洗衣服", literally means, "wash clothes". The responder wrote "洗衣服 (wash clothes)" followed by "做 laundry (do laundry)" in parentheses so that the participant would learn how to write it the correct way in Chinese.

Even though the participants were required to reply to only two people for each blog entry, but the initially simulated real-life project turned into real-life communication among the participants and with the Taiwanese students. As a result, many of the participants responded more times to more people than the project required.

B. CTL-based Project 2: Storybook-making Project

TABLE 3.
TASK COMPONENTS OF THE STORYBOOK-MAKING PROJECT

Storybook Making Project
Goals: (1) Comprehend authentic reading materials (e.g. storybook) (2) Make authentic reading materials in the target language
Input: Storybooks for Children
Activities: (1) Read and comprehend the storybook assigned (2) Make your own storybook
Learner roles: Storybook reader and summarizer, Storybook writer and editor
Teacher roles: Facilitator
Settings: Individual/in and outside the classroom

The storybook-making project consisted of several steps. First, I modeled how to read aloud and comprehend a storybook using one of the books in the book series that the participants would later be assigned to read. In particular, I offered character decoding strategies the participants could use when they encountered characters that look familiar, but couldn't remember the meanings of them. I also suggested strategies such as using a dictionary and asking their Chinese speaking language partners or other native speakers when they simply did not comprehend certain words. Once they were equipped with strategies to read authentic materials, each of them was assigned a book in the *I Can Read Myself* book series published by Greenfield Educational Center in Taiwan. The book series consist of 48 books relevant for three to seven-year-old Chinese native readers. The books are pattern books which use repetitive language, scenes and sequences that allow early readers to predict what the sentences are going to say. I deemed that the books were relevant for my students as pattern books offer increasing enjoyment and help develop language beginners' vocabulary (Peregoy & Boyle, 2001). After reading the book assigned, the participants were to write a book report, which included writing a brief summary of the story, identifying the repetitive language patterns used in the story, listing vocabulary words learned, and making meaningful sentences using the newly learned words. Next, the participants were to make their own pattern storybook in the target language. The justification for the project was based on the CLT concept that once the participants had relevant input from the interaction with authentic materials, they were expected to progressively become independent learners who were capable of making authentic language production. I served as a facilitator throughout the storybook-making process in and outside the classroom whenever the students had questions or needed assistance on brainstorming ideas for their stories. Finally, the participants needed to read aloud their own books in class as if they were telling a story to children.

The participants' self-made pattern books were of good quality. First, each book had its own plots and humor which made the book interesting to read. Second, the language used in the book extended beyond the language knowledge they learned in class. In the interviews, the participants explained that they sometimes used a dictionary or asked a native speaker if they wanted to write words or sentences they did not know how to write. The good quality of the learners' end-projects suggest that when the learners did simulated real-world tasks, they were better able to think of the language task as a real-life task and went beyond the minimum project requirements.

The following images illustrate the first few pages of a participant's self-made storybook.

Image 1. Title page: Rock

Image 2. That is my rock

Image 3. Is this your rock?

Image 4. This is my rock

Image 5. He sees three people

Image 6. His rock becomes a ball

Image 7. They play soccer

Image 8. He sees a pretty girl

Image 9. His rock becomes a flower

Image 10. He gives the pretty girl the flower

The participant started with the story using a basic grammar function, the demonstratives (e.g. this or that), to show where the main object in the story, the rock, is in relation to the speaker (See Images 1 to 4). The pages (See Images 5 to 10) following the use of the demonstratives are a repetitive pattern of three kinds: (1) He sees..., (2) His rock becomes...., and (3) a description of what people do with the rock in its new form. While the participant read the story to the class, his peers seemed to enjoy the book and applauded him for his creative story plots.

C. CTL-based Project 3: Video-making Project

TABLE 4.
TASK COMPONENTS OF THE VIDEO-MAKING PROJECT

Video-Making Project
Goals: Use newly learned language knowledge in simulated real-world situations
Input: Linguistic knowledge learned in class
Activities: (1) Write a three to four minute skit or a song (2) Acting out the skit and make a video or sing the song and make a music video
Learner roles: Skit/song writer, actor/singer, video director, good team member
Teacher roles: Facilitator, confidence booster
Settings: small groups of two to four people/in and outside the classroom

The video-making project was the participants' final project, which was designed as a way to evaluate the participants' linguistic gain and ability to apply the newly learned linguistic knowledge of the year in simulated real-life communication at the end point of the second semester of Chinese language study. Earlier in the semester, I have modeled how to write short skits and songs and asked the participants to try the same in class activities. Hence, the participants were familiar with the task process. The difference in the final project was that this time the participants were expected to become independent learners who used their own creativity in designing the topics and scenes of their skit/song and that the duration requirement of the skit/song was longer than the ones practiced in class. Moreover, the participants were asked to video-tape their end-products which they would share with other class members on Blackboard, a course management website where the participants could post their video clips and comments. Two weeks after announcing the final project, I held a Q&A session in which the participants brought up any questions they had about the project. The participants brought with them their working products and had both language and project requirement-related questions for me. The session was useful to both the participants and I as I was able to clarify any misunderstandings, facilitate with the participants' language production for the project, and gave positive comments about their working products to boost their confidence level. As a project facilitator, I told the participants that they were always welcome to visit me about their project before the project deadline.

The end results of the video-making project were pleasantly surprising to me. Three groups of the participants decided to enter their music videos for a national online Chinese language student singing contest held by a book publishing company. Entering the contest voluntarily showed that the participants were to some degree confident about their end-products even though they only had learned Chinese for less than a year. Moreover, it shows that by creating a simulated real-life task, the learners went out of their ways to connect their project with a real-world task. As a result, two of the three groups in the study which entered to compete with 173 other singing groups in the nation were picked as two of the top ten music videos by three professional judges in the areas of Chinese language learning and Chinese pop-song singing. The positive results in the real-life task strongly encouraged the groups to continue with Chinese language study. In regard to the participants' quality of language production for the project, the following lyrics written by one of the singing groups illustrates that the participants attempted to use grammar patterns and vocabulary introduced in class.

請來吃我的中國菜。[Please come to eat my Chinese food]

請來喝我的白葡萄酒。[Please come to drink my white grape wine]

我的手會做好吃的食物。[My hands make good food]

我的手對你來説是完美的。[My hands are perfect to you]

In the first two lines, the participants used the same structure, "please come to + action phrase" with vocabulary words such as "to drink", "to eat", "Chinese food", and "white grape wine" to make invitations. The last two lines are descriptions of what "my hands" can do and are perceived to "you". Most of the words used in the lyrics were taught in class; nonetheless, I spotted a few new vocabulary items. The participants said that they asked Chinese native friends to help them with words they wanted to express, but didn't know in Chinese. The lyrics writing process created the opportunity for the learners to test out the language knowledge gained in class and encouraged them to be in contact with native speakers for both language learning and real communication purposes.

VIII. STUDENTS' REACTIONS TO THE CLT-BASED PROJECTS

The CLT-based projects were well-received in general by the participants with suggestions for minor modifications to make the projects more suitable for their needs in the particular learning context under study. The next few paragraphs discuss the schemes emerged from the participants' feedback forms and the focus group interviews.

A. The Projects Were Fun!

The projects were simply interesting to do for the participants. Many participants used the word "fun" to describe what they felt about doing the projects:

I liked all the projects. They were fun! (Feedback form 11)

It was good practice and fun to get to know someone from Taiwan (Feedback form 2).

We totally thought it was fun. I don't know much about music, so it's like I can't do this unless I have someone like Dave. I would say the video was definitely of the three projects the most fun (Interviewee 8).

B. The Projects Reinforced Authentic Communication

A purpose of the CLT-based projects was to offer the participants opportunities to use Chinese in an authentic social context which created variety of social interactions and relationships. A participant expressed his like to interact with other bloggers:

My favorite part was the interaction when you were like somebody was commenting on what you said and you were commenting back on what they said. You feel like you are communicating as oppose to writing paragraphs, writing paragraphs is so single sided. You can just do it by yourself. The communication part was great (Interviewee 8).

Other participants stressed their likes of authenticity in terms of the project materials and communication:

I thought the blog project was great! It gave me a chance to write stuff like the email assignments in our workbook except I could write about ME in real life! :) (Feedback form 14)

I really enjoyed being in contact with students across the globe from me (Feedback form 9).

It was fun to see real books (Feedback form 7).

My son still goes around the house singing the song we made (Feedback form 10).

The last comment from Feedback form 10 illustrates that the projects not only encouraged the participants to communicate in the target language with their peers and native speakers, but also brought communication in the target language to their family members, creating more opportunity for the participants to practice the language.

C. The Projects Fostered Student Autonomy and Helped Express Individual Personality

The designs of the projects allowed certain degree of flexibility for the participants to decide on what kind of end products they wanted, which fostered student autonomy. A participant commented in her feedback form:

I like the video project because we decide what we want to present. (Feedback form 4)

The participants appreciated the flexibility, which allowed them not only to feel the independence as capable learners, but also to show their peers who they were through their end-products. The interviewees expressed:

I like the blog thing cause it kind of helped show my personality. I would like to do it more (Interviewee 2).

My favorite was the final project. I love being able to work with a great partner together to come up with a personalized and toned skit to let our personalities come through the Chinese instead of just a bunch of rote sentences (Interviewee 7).

According to Breen (as cited in Song, 2009, p.86), projects which assist learners to demonstrate their independence and personalities, advocate "achievement orientation, which learners adopt when they perceive that tasks relate closely to their personal needs". The participants took the active learner role in the projects and did not feel that they did the tasks simply because they had to do it for the class.

D. The Projects Stimulated Creativity and Promoted Independent Language Learning

The participants deemed that they became creative and independent language learners. An interviewee commented:

I had fun coming up with the idea for the story. You get to be creative and in order to say what you want you have to learn new words. So the grammar and vocabulary you are adding to yourself and you are expressing that...In a way you are teaching yourself and the people to read it. So it's kind of cool (Interviewee 3).

The main purpose of a communicative task is that "learners should use the language they know in order to get meaning across as effectively as possible" (Ma, 2009, p. 53). In order to get meaning across in the project assignments, the participants used different language learning strategies:

It (writing blog entries) made me think not just one little sentence, but a whole thought process of how I would organize a paragraph (Interviewee 5).

I have to guess meaning and get as much as I can (Feedback form 13).

I read it (a blog response), and when I didn't know, I used an online dictionary (Feedback form 2).

E. The Projects Helped Develop All Four Language Skills

The projects provided opportunities for the participants to practice listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills in integrated ways, which is a characteristic of a communicative task. As a result, the participants expressed that the Chinese they learned through doing the projects would stick in their heads forever:

I remember every single word I learned and wrote in my storybook. How do you forget that! You even draw pictures with it. You are making the visual. You are writing physically. You are drawing physically. It's like totally lives in your head (Interviewee 4).

Everything we have done that's involved drawing something has been helpful for me. You are saying the words in your head when you are drawing (Interview 6).

A lot of words became comfortable for me during the (video-making) process, like 誰 [who], 在 [in], 手[hand], I will never forget these words (Interviewee 2).

IX. RECOMMENDATIONS FOR MODIFICATIONS

The participants mentioned two recommendations for future CLT-based project modifications. The first recommendation, *investigating students' level of technology capability*, solely applies to projects involving the use of technology, while the second recommendation, *emphasizing more on individual learner differences*, can be applied to all CLT-based projects.

A. Investigating Students' Level of Technology Capability

Several participants ran into technical problems when they started the blog project. Even though I demonstrated how to create and write on a blog, and posted the instruction on the class website, a few participants still encountered technical difficulties of different kinds. A participant said:

It was difficult for the fact.....because...the learning of technology. I posted the thing on the wrong pages cause I didn't really know what I was doing. I have never done it before, and also just getting the computer cause I have always had to come to the computer lab to do it cause my computer at home does not have the Asian language input files installed (Interviewee 3).

It seems that for future CLT-based technology projects such as the blog project, a better preparation plan of technology use should be set up to ensure that learners are technically ready to do the projects. It was evident that once technology issues were solved, the participants were able to enjoy doing the project:

At first I didn't want to write in a blog because I have never had one before but once I figured out how to do it, writing in a blog become more fun (Feedback form 1).

B. Emphasizing More on Individual Learner Differences

A few participants expressed their desire of "doing their own thing" for CLT-based projects. Even though the three projects in the study allowed certain degree of flexibility for learners such as deciding on a topic for their own storybook and skit/song, some of the participants craved for more flexibility in order to fit their learning styles and allow more space for their creativity. In regard to the video-making project, a participant said:

I think the only thing I would change is just that like we liked that we could do a big group thing you know. Some people like doing it in two people, but I think it's nice if there is a flexibility in that. If the purpose of the project is to help learn in a creative way or from some source. If you just like say this is the purpose of the whole thing, this is what we normally do, but I will let you go off your own way. Like that way, you know, can still get the purpose out of it, but do their own thing (Interviewee 8).

Another participant added her opinion about having more flexibility regarding the blog project:

It is good to have all the prompt questions, but it would also be nice to have a subject and then just have the freedom to write on that subject. You know like "talk about clothes" and we are free to do whatever we want as long as we talk about clothes. It can do bad things like make people use only the language they know and not learn more stuff, but it also could open up to learning stuff you wanna say that you haven't learned (Interviewee 6).

However, a participant did not think that opening up more flexibility would help with his learning. He expressed:

I think a few students would really open up their creativity that way and go above and beyond. I think most students, certainly myself, if you just said, "talk about clothes", I would probably not be nearly as motivated to really try and find out how to say the things that are more difficult things to say that you asked. So I liked that you asked a lot of very specific questions (Interviewee 7).

The opposite opinions of the participants in regard to project flexibility suggest that instructors need to take into account the individual learner differences and design projects which can best fit all learners' needs to maximize their learning. Giving optional project requirements may be one way to cope with learners' different learning styles in the case under study.

X. SUMMARY

In answering the question about the participants' linguistic gains in doing the projects, the good quality of the participants' works have demonstrated that the participants used different strategies to exceed their current language level in attempts to convey meanings in the target language. According to Quinn (1984), a criterion of success in CLT is "to have students communicate effectively and in a manner appropriate to the context they are working in" (p. 62). The three projects discussed in the study have achieved the aim of communicating effectively and appropriately in a given context. For instance, the participants were able to write short paragraphs of different topics and replied to their peers' comments on the blogs. The participants' self-made videos successfully expressed their thoughts and personalities. Some of the videos were approved by Chinese native speaking judges in the singing contest as the best videos made by language students of Chinese in the nation. The storybook project was also a success in which the participants enjoyed and applauded for each other's creativity and language accomplishment.

Moreover, the participants responded positively about the three CLT-based projects. In short, the participants expressed that the projects reinforced authentic communication, fostered student autonomy, helped express personalities, stimulated creativity, promoted independent language learning, and helped developed all four language skills. Most importantly, the projects were fun for the participants. I believe that these positive language learning phenomenon gained by the participants were only possible through doing the CLT-based projects, which required the learners to go through the learning process of comprehending, manipulating, producing, and interacting in the target language (Nunan, 1989). Nonetheless, there is room for improvement in designing the CLT-based projects. One key point in making improvements according to the participants is to learn about students' needs in a particular teaching context. In the case of my participants, some of them needed more technical training than I expected in order to complete the blog project smoothly. In addition, I underestimated some of my participants' level of creativity and did not give them enough room to fully display their high level of creativity. CLT principles advocate practice of teaching to specific needs (Song, 2009). Nunan (1988) suggests that instructors collect information about learner needs before designing the curriculum because the aim of CLT-based curriculum is to cover what the learner needs and see as important.

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Simultaneous Interpreting: Principles and Training

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***Abstract*—Nowadays, there is an increasing demand for simultaneous interpreting in China. This paper introduces the definition and the process of simultaneous interpreting. And then, it proposes the general principles and techniques for simultaneous interpreting, and provides practical self-training methods.**

***Index Terms*—simultaneous interpreting, principles, training**

With the development of the reform and opening as well as China's entry into WTO, the cooperation and exchanges between China and the outside world are becoming increasingly frequent. At present, more and more important and large-scale international conferences are held in China, which means that China needs a large number of simultaneous interpreters who are the bridge among different languages. To a large extent, the quality of simultaneous interpretation directly affects whether the two sides can exchange and communicate smoothly. However, simultaneous interpreting is a tough job which requests the interpreters to possess high comprehensive quality and wonderful professional skills. How to effectively improve the quality of simultaneous interpreting? It is crucial for the interpreters to master the relevant principles and skills about simultaneous interpreting. In this paper, the author will explain the nature of the simultaneous interpreting, introduce the process of simultaneous interpreting and explore the basic principles and skills, then provide related self-training methods.

I. Simultaneous Interpreting

Language interpreting or interpretation is the intellectual activity of facilitating oral and sign-language communication, either simultaneously or consecutively, between two or more users of different languages. A simultaneous interpreter is - as you can tell by looking at the words - someone who interprets for someone in another language while the speaker speaks without interruption. This is the opposite of consecutive interpreting, because a consecutive interpreter awaits his turn and does not start speaking until the speaker allows him the time to do so. Simultaneous interpreting is one of the most common kinds of interpreting, but also the most difficult one. Very few translators (who are used to getting the time to really think about their translations) can do it, and not even all interpreters can do it well.

Simultaneous interpreting has a number of indisputable advantages over consecutive interpreting: (1) efficiency in conducting international events in which several languages are used; (2) less expenditure of time and money: the event proceeds at its own pace regardless of the language of the speaker — this decreases the time necessary to hold the event and the material resources required; (3) convenience for the listeners: the participants can hear the presentation in the original language without interruption for translation.

It is really a very complex process to interpret simultaneously, one that only very few interpreters can handle well. A speaker is speaking, and that speaker does not stop or pause. He keeps talking. Therefore the interpreter must do the following while the speaker is talking: listen to what the speaker is saying; translate it in his mind; render the translation in his microphone; and (and this is the most difficult part) at the same time listen to what is being said while he is speaking himself.

speaker → equipment → interpreter → equipment → listener

This requires a kind of mental miracle, and that is why it is an unusually demanding and complex activity to carry out, one that requires an unusual level of concentration, which tires out the interpreter rather soon – which affects his concentration, which, in turn, affects his performance.

II. Basic Principles

Simultaneous interpreting is not only an art, but also a technology. Therefore, there are certain basic principles can be followed during the process of interpreting in order to achieve goals more efficiently. The following principles can be employed to guide our simultaneous interpreting:

A. *Syntactic Linearity*

According to the original structure of the sentence that a interpreter has heard, he divides the whole sentence into several parts, and then combines them together with various skills to express the entire meaning. For example, "suo you ren // dou ke yi jie zhu hu lian wang zi yuan // lai xue xi, bu lun ta men shi na ge min zu // he zhong xing bie // he zhong fu se, // zhi yao ta men ke yi jie ru hu lian wang." ("所有人 // 都可以借助互联网资源 // 来学习，不论他们是哪个民族 // 何种性别 // 何种肤色，// 只要他们可以接入互联网。") Translation: "All can study // by relying on internet resources // regardless of their race, nationality and sex // providing that // they could have access to the internet." Simultaneous interpreting requests the interpreter to give the target version nearly at the same time with the speaker's speech, and a qualified simultaneous interpreter should try his best to shorten the time between interpreting and speaking, therefore, the method to interpret based on the original structure is an important feature in simultaneous interpreting.

B. *Adjustment*

It is a vital step in the interpreting process. The interpreter should adjust structure, correct mistakes and add the missing information with the new content he receives. In English, the adverbial modifiers about time and place are usually placed in the end of a sentence, which is quite different from the Chinese structure. Based on the original structure, such sentence "I went to Holiday Inn // for a seminar // at 10 o'clock // yesterday." will be interpreted into "wo qu le jia ri jiu dian // can jia yi ge yan tao hui // zai shi dian zhong // zuo tian." ("我去了假日酒店 // 参加一个研讨会 // 在十点钟 // 昨天。") Here, adjustment will play an important role in making the target version better. In fact, such sentence will be handled like this: "wo qu jia ri jiu dian // can jia le yi ge yan tao hui // shi jian shi zuo tian shang wu shi dian." ("我去假日酒店 // 参加了一个研讨会 // 时间是昨天上午十点。")

C. *Anticipation*

A good simultaneous interpreter should know how to predict what the speaker would say next with his own language ability, knowledge and experience, which can save a lot of time and energy, thus following the pace of the speaker. For instance, in lots of conferences, such cliché is used in the opening ceremony： "… wo jin dai biao … // dui yu hui dai biao biao shi re lie de huan yin // bing yu zhu ben ci da hui qu de yuan man cheng gong!" ("……我谨代表…… // 对与会代表表示热烈的欢迎 // 并预祝本次大会取得圆满成功！")During interpreting, with the help of his own experience, the interpreter can interpret the whole sentence "Please allow me to be on behalf of … to extend to our warmest welcome to the participants of this conference …" when the speaker says "wo jin dai biao …" ("我谨代表……")and he should predict what the speaker will say next is "… ben ci hui yi cheng gong" ("…… 本次会议成功")when he hears "yu zhu…" ("预祝……").

D. *Reformulation*

Reformulation is the overall strategy in simultaneous interpreting. There is a great deal of difference between English and Chinese, so it is impossible to interpret word to word. Reformulation can help interpreter to reorganize the original information according to the convention of target language. An interpreter can interpret the sentence "shui dou you lao de na yi tian" ("谁都有老的那一天") into "Gravity catches everybody.", because Westerners always believe that gravity should be blamed for aging and skin laxity etc. In a word, what an interpreter should deliver is the meaning not the language.

E. *Simplification*

It asks the simultaneous interpreter to simplify the words to explain, induce and generalize the original content without affecting the convey of main information when he meets some difficulties which he can not handle with the target language or some technical materials which is hard for the listeners to understand. Once, such words appeared in a conference aiming at introducing "EU Agricultural Policy" to adolescents: "If the CIF price of produce at the community boarder is below the guideline price as determined under the Common Market Organization, then at levy, which is not a tariff duty, is imposed." There are a lot of words difficult for young people to understand, if interpreted directly and faithfully. So, an interpreter should simplify some difficult points and deliver the whole meaning with simple expressions："If farm produce comes into the Community at a price below the official Community market price, a special agricultural levy is imposed. (ru guo nong chan pin jin ru ou gong ti de jia ge di yu ou gong ti de guan fang jia ge de hua, jiu yao zheng shou nong ye te bie shui. / 如果农产品进入欧共体的价格低于欧共体的官方价格的话，就要征收农业特别税。)

F. *Faithfulness*

It is always regarded as the criterion to evaluate translation. But it is hard to follow it in simultaneous interpreting because interpreters have not enough time to think and deal during interpreting. What the interpreter can do is try to deliver all the meaning and most of the information the speaker expresses in the way which listeners can accept easily.

III. Self-training Methods

In Basic Concepts and Models for Interpreter and Translator Training, the famous interpreting professor Daniel Gile (1995:179) generalizes the mode of simultaneous interpreting: SI = L + M + P + C. That is simultaneous interpreting = listening and analysis + short-term memory effort + speech production + coordination. All of that needs the interpreter to spend a lot of time and energy. To be a good and qualified simultaneous interpreter, besides his own gift and experience, a strong will and perseverance, he should receive some training to gain adequate ability and knowledge.

A. Shadowing Exercise

Learners repeat what they have heard such as speech, news at the same pace. The purpose of the training is to cultivate learners' split of attention and the skill of speaking while listening. It is better to do this training in mother tongue at first, and then other languages. At the beginning stage, learners can repeat immediately after they hear something; little by little, they should delay and then repeat. When training, they should listen, speak and think at the same time. Even after repeating for 10 minutes, they can still retell the main idea. Thus, after 2 or 3 months, they can step into next stage.

B. Outlining Exercise

It is the continuing stage of shadowing exercise. Reading a paragraph after a speaker or someone else, learners should pause to outline its main idea, firstly in mother tongue, then in foreign languages.

C. Simulation Training

If possible, learners can carry out simulation training, which will create a real situation and atmosphere. They set the themes, prepare speeches, deliver the speeches in turn and interpret simultaneously in turn with the related necessary equipments. Of course, if some famous specialists are invited to give assess, it will be more useful. This method not only trains learners interpreting skills but also helps them to master another important skill – public speech.

At present, more and more meetings need simultaneous interpreting in China, and the demand for interpreters has become very urgent. However, simultaneous interpreting is a real difficult task. It has its own characteristics and laws. To perform the simultaneous interpretation well, people are requested to have a good quality and psychological quality as well as being good at grasping the principles and techniques. We believe that with an increasing number of people showing love and interest in the cause, multitudes of first-class simultaneous interpreters will emerge in China.

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Teaching Reform on Comprehensive English—in Light of John Dewey's Pragmatism

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***Abstract*—This paper analyzes problems in Comprehensive English teaching in light of John Dewey's Pragmatic education philosophy and proposes suggestions to reform Comprehensive English teaching from the perspective of Pragmatic thinking intelligence cultivation, the student-centered approach and proactive assignment outlo**ok.

***Index Terms*—pragmatism, influence, comprehensive English, teaching reform**

I. Influence of John Dewey's Pragmatism

John Dewey (1859-1952), a famous educator and philosopher of the 20th century, a leading representative of Pragmatic education philosophy. His masterpiece "Democracy and education" published in 1916 marked the fulfillment of construction of Pragmatic education ideas as well as the establishment of education philosophy as an independent subject. John Dewey's Pragmatism represented Progressivism emerging in the USA, in the late 19th century, which transformed the traditional American education into modern. As a comprehensive education philosophical system, the core idea of Pragmatism is the essence of education—education is life; education is growth; education is experience, which serves to be the basics for Pragmatic Thinking Intelligence ideas, curriculum theory, and proactive assignment outlook.. John Dewey held "students-centered" teaching model and "learning by doing"; he proposed "reflexive thinking intelligence" and "5-step situational teaching" based on the "5-step of thinking intelligence". During his visit in China in 1919-1921, Pragmatism which had greatly influenced Chinese academician, Hu Shi, Tao Xingzhi, Yan Yangchu, Jiang Menglin, and in a great measure, accelerated modern Chinese education reform. Since 1978, the study on John Dewey's Pragmatism revived. Professor Shan Zhonghui, an expert on John Dewey's Pragmatism studies maintained in 2007 "Currently John Dewey's ideas still full of life" and appealed to re-study his thoughts.

John Dewey's Pragmatism bears realistic instructions to current English teaching reform, in particular to Comprehensive English teaching—the core course of English major curriculum. Yang Limin, Professor of Beijing University of Foreign Studies pointed that cultivation of students' critical thinking be stressed which was in accordance with Pragmatic Thinking cultivation. Nowadays the student-centered teaching model reveals implications of Pragmatic students-centered teaching model; and current Comprehensive English teaching model introduces situational teaching in line with Pragmatic instructions.

II. Problems in Current Comprehensive English Teaching

Comprehensive English, featuring integrated skills, is the core course of English major curriculum of higher education. It developed from "Intensive Reading" in the 1950th and adopted traditional "reading-reciting" teaching model, with the grammar-translation as the major teaching approach. Since then the task of teaching has been based on the text from which teachers specialized in words, phrases, grammar analysis to intensify vocabulary, grammar, translation and writing competence. With the introduction and development of foreign linguistics and foreign language teaching methodologies in China in the 1980th, comprehension on foreign language teaching has deepened. And hence the objective of English Intensive Reading, centered on reading was in question. "The English Teaching Program for basic stage of higher education" (1989) transformed "English Intensive Reading" to "Comprehensive English". With a historical viewpoint, Comprehensive English has been firmly connected with Intensive Reading, while from the developmental perspective it has taken on a brand new look in that Comprehensive English attaches emphasis on students' comprehensive language competence, still Intensive Reading on grammar.

The 21st century has called for cultivation of highly-qualified English talents, with which the teaching of Comprehensive English, the core course of English major curriculum, would keep in pace. Influenced by the traditional English Intensive Reading teaching, prime problems have occurred in current Comprehensive English teaching.

A. Inadapatability of Traditional Teaching Concept to the Objective of English Talents Cultivation in Modern Advanced Education.

"English major teaching program of higher education" (2000) requires the contemporary English talents of five essential qualities, which are in pace with socialist marketing economy, that solid language basics, vast field of knowledge, sufficient major knowledge, practical capacity and all-round qualities. This means that English talents possess both comprehensive language competence and communicative, social, practical potentials as well. It is stated in the new Program that the objective of Comprehensive English lies in promoting students' English competence systematically- listening, speaking, reading, writing, translating and potentials for problem-solving and communicating from skills training and discourse analysis.

Traditional teaching focused on language points teaching, from which teachers regarded that English language were composed of a set of articulation, words and grammar and the objective was to make the students acquire information, the teaching approach featuring "grammar-translation". In this case, teaching approach fell into the weird circulation with word-grammar teaching as its core, which caused students to wrongly comprehend the course and restrained their overall development in pronouncing, listening, speaking and further affected advancement of students' language quality and thinking intelligence in the long run.

B. Conflict between the Teacher-centered Teaching Model and the Student-centered

Due to the level of the interaction between teachers and students, teaching model consists of the traditional "teacher-centered" and the student-centered. The student-centered is a relatively advanced teaching model that with the instruction of teachers, students are active in solving problems. This model helps students positively construct language points and effectively create harmonious class atmosphere and improve teaching effect.

While the teacher-centered, a relatively backward teaching model, that the interaction between teachers and students is kind of unilateral information transmission, with memorization as the major teaching approach. This model neglects cultivation of students' thinking intelligence competence and puts students into a passive position. Under the influence of traditional teaching concept, the current Comprehensive English teaching has somehow adopted the traditional one which hampers students' learning motivation as well as teaching efficiency.

C. Unsuitability between Traditional Assignment and the Open One

Students' initiatives are detained by the traditional assignment form that they just take down words and sentences by referring books or simply recite the text. The assignment doesn't take its due effect. Besides, the task of assignment is far from reality and lacks variety. In respond to the "Burden Relief on Students", in many cases, students are not required to do any homework. Thus, having caused the students negative motivation for learning that they are engaged in "tackling homework" and by-pass its significance, traditional assignment is not able to complement or further the teaching task. In this case, the traditional assignment to Comprehensive English needs improving greatly and replacing by open assignment, in which students are encouraged to explore various paths to further comprehend class information and development their overall competence.

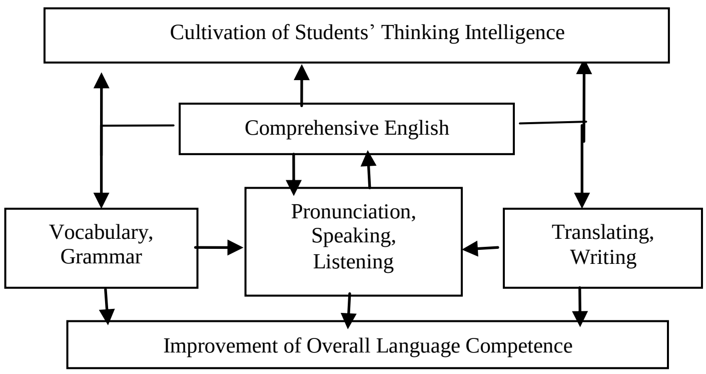
III. Implications of Pragmatism to Teaching Reform on Comprehensive English

A. Changing Teaching Concept

John Dewey held that the unique way to directly develop teaching and learning approach lied in that attention be attached to various conditions of requirement, improvement and assessment on thinking intelligence, which was essential to wise learning. Therefore, the traditional teaching concept on language points imparting is supposed to be substituted by the leading teaching concept that cultivation of students' thinking intelligence and overall development of language competence be prioritized.

It is manifested in the graph the interdependence of students' thinking intelligence cultivation, integrated language skills and overall English language competence. It shows that students' thinking intelligence cultivation plays the essential role to lifting students' language qualities systematically in that transforming, expanding, and improving of students thinking intelligence activate students' learning motivation and better their listening, speaking, reading, writing and translating competence to achieve the progress of all-round qualities.

TABLE.I



B. Establishment of a Student-centered Teaching Model

Changing of teaching concept determines changes in teaching model. To transform the traditional teacher-centered teaching model into student-centered one has been instrumental in English teaching reform. “4-stage teaching approach” proposed by Johann Friedrich Herbart represents the traditional teaching model. Based on teacher-centered theory, he put forward “comprehension—association—systemization—approach” teaching model. John Dewey, representative of Progressivism opposed the traditional teaching model and insisted the student-centered model, featuring thinking intelligence teaching, which stressed multilateral convey of information between teachers, teachers and students and students. By inspiring and motivating students’ initiatives, teachers instructed students in their learning competence. Besides, he believed that elements in teaching methodology equaled to that of intelligence. The elements are: First, a real experienced situation which generates continuing activities to the student’s interest; second, a real question in the very situation which acts as the stimulus to the thinking; third, command of knowledge by which the student observe and cope with the question, fourth, successive approaches to problem-solving; fifth, an opportunity in which he can reflect and evaluate his ideas and test their validity.

This teaching process comes from “learning by doing” and thinking in “activities”, from which students are able to detect and solve problems. In the meanwhile, he came up with “5-step teaching approach from “ learning by doing” that: to detect the task in the situation; to propose the problem in the task; to raise any presumption to solve the problem; to deduce the very presumption and test it in the situation and conclude.

With the instructions of the student-centered teaching model and 5–step Situational Teaching Approach proposed by John Dewey, the key to teaching model transformation rests with teaching approach development—to employ socialized approach, inquiry approach ,open approach in class teaching.

C. Concern about Comprehensive English Assignment Reform

Assignment serves to complement and heighten class information and it is a parameter to testing students’ knowledge acquisition. The elastic open-style assignment enhances students’ cognition, thinking intelligence and better command of knowledge from multi-dimensions.

John Dewey believed that the objective of assignment corresponded to humanity or daily experiences, in that case, students learned knowledge had more access to the real life. The open assignment puts students in the relatively “real” situation in which they take the initiative to choose the task and style of completing the task and apply knowledge flexibly to experience the “activity” and internalize knowledge. Hence, the teaching objective and task of Comprehensive English require students of highly overall competence. To meet the requirement, the open assignment is introduced.

It is the major objective of Comprehensive English to promote students’ pronouncing, listening, and speaking competence. So regarding listening and speaking assignment, class report of new style is suggested that students work in groups, with each group responsible for reports in Comprehensive English class for a week and members of the group free to choose the topic and form of reporting. Studying, life, political issues, leisure and entertainment can be the themes via various approaches, such as delivering a lecture, interviewing, acting and talents show. The rich content and a variety of styles make class vivid and true to the students’ life and make them fully explore their creativity, express their ideas, and reveal their personality and faculties and improve their creative thinking, teamwork and cooperative spirit.

In view of Education Psychology, influenced by objective and subjective circumstances, differences of learning acquisition show up between students. In order to make students of various levels experience success, the assignment of various levels is introduced in that a student is entitled to flexibly designed assignment and take the chance to choose the assignment fit for him and his confidence and motivation for learning are guaranteed.

As regards the assignment of observation and surveys, students are advised to make full use of the online information and keep in pace with the latest information, through which the learning efficiency is greatly enhanced. Combined with their practical experience, this approach is conducive to students’ independent thinking and problem-solving capacity.

IV. CONCLUSIONS

John Dewey maintained that the nature of education lied in the communicative and cooperative activity. His Pragmatism has left far-reaching impact on current curriculum reform and teaching reform. In line with the prominent position and significance of Comprehensive English in English major curriculum and the objective of English talents cultivation in the 21st century, his ideas have been firmly associated with the reality.

Besides the reforming on teaching concept, teaching model and assignment style in light of Pragmatism, the interrelationship between teachers and students should also be noted that harmonious interaction between them influences students’ interests in learning, class atmosphere and teaching effect. The teachers’ unique personality traits, flexible teaching style and profound major knowledge not only win over students’ trust, respect and understanding, but also help to construct the platform for better communication. In short, John Dewey’s Pragmatism has been fundamental in innovative English teaching. And hence in Comprehensive English teaching, with Pragmatic instructions, new style teaching model and innovative teaching approach can mainly motivate the students and create the agreeable learning atmosphere and cultivate all-round English talents.

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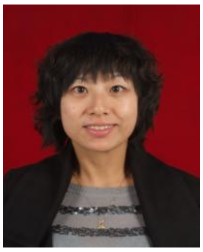

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The Impact of Peer Interaction on an Editing Activity in EFL Classes

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***Abstract*—This study investigated the merits of peer interaction on a text editing activity in EFL classes in Iran. Sixty-two EFL students majoring in English Literature volunteered to take part in this study. The participants, randomly assigned to experimental and control groups, did the same activity under two conditions: individually and in pairs. The activity required the participants to edit a text containing grammatical errors featuring the use of articles, subordinating conjunctions, and prepositions in English. Data analysis revealed that students' overall performance significantly improved when they worked in pairs than when they did the activity individually. However, their performance did not improve consistently over different grammatical items. As for articles and subordinating conjunctions, pair work improved students' performance. Nevertheless, with respect to prepositions, this phenomenon was not observed.**

***Index Terms*—collaboration, negative feedback, peer interaction, pair work**

I. Introduction

In recent years, interactionist research, propelled by Long's interaction hypothesis (1983, 1985, 1996), has become one of the most exciting topics of exploration for second language acquisition (SLA) researchers. According to SLA researchers, negotiated interaction is the driving force for language learning in that it provides learners with (a) comprehensible input (Pica, Young & Doughty, 1987), (b) negative feedback (Gass, 1997; Swain, 1995), and (c) an opportunity to modify their output (Muranoi, 2007; Shehadeh, 2002; Swain, 1995, 2005).

II. Comprehensible Input

Input refers to language that becomes available to the learner through both listening and reading (Gass & Mackey, 2006). In all approaches to SLA, input is an essential component in the acquisition process in that it provides learners with the crucial evidence from which they can form linguistic hypotheses (Gass & Mackey, 2007). This suggests that the input available to learners should be comprehensible (Krashen, 1982); otherwise, they cannot form the hypotheses which they need to construct their second language grammars. It is argued that negotiated interaction, especially one in which learners have an opportunity to interact with a more competent interlocutor, say a native speaker, provides them with ample comprehensible input (Pica, 1994, 1996). "As they negotiate, they work linguistically to achieve the needed comprehensibility, whether repeating a message verbatim, adjusting its syntax, changing its words, or modifying its from and meaning in a host of other ways" (Pica, 1994: 494).

An example of how negotiated interaction makes L2 input comprehensible can be seen below (Mackey, 1999: 558-559). In this example, the NNS does not understand the word *glasses.* The word is repeated by the native speaker (NS), the original phrase is extended and rephrased, a synonym is given, and the learner eventually seems to understand what *glasses* means.

NS: There's there's a pair of reading glasses above the plant.
NNS: A what?
NS: Glasses reading glasses to see the newspaper?
NNS: Glassi?
NS: You wear them to see with, if you can't see. Reading glasses.
NNS: Ahh ahh glasses glasses to read you say reading glasses.
NS: Yeah.

The literature of SLA is abundant with studies which indicate that negotiated interaction makes L2 input comprehensible to learners (see Gass, Mackey & Pica, 1998; Long, 1996).

III. Negative Feedback

According to Long (1996), negative feedback is an important feature of negotiated interaction. This type of feedback, which occurs as a reaction to a linguistic problem, can come from numerous sources such as teachers, other learners, or even native speakers. According to Gass and Mackey (2007: 181-182), negative feedback includes negotiation strategies such as:

• Confirmation checks (expressions that are designed to elicit confirmation that an utterance has been correctly heard or understood, for example, *Is this what you mean?*).

• Clarification requests (expressions designed to elicit clarification of the interlocutor's preceding utterances, for example, *What did you say?*).

• Comprehension checks (expressions that are used to verify that an interlocutor has understood, for example, *Did you understand?*).

Thus, negative feedback not only provides learners with information about the accuracy, communicative success, or content of their production, but also helps them notice the gap between their interlanguage and the target language alternative (Gass, 1997; Schmidt, 1990). The following example illustrates an instance of negative feedback in the form of a simple repetition and clarification request:

(“ floors? ”). The NNS's retrospective comment about the feedback suggests that she noticed a certain gap in her phonology.

NNS: There are/ flurs/ ?

NS: Floor? ← **Feedback**

NNS: /fluw'rs/ uh Flowers.

NNS: I was thinking my pronounce, pronunciation is very horrible. (Mackey, Gass & McDonough, 2000: 486)

Another type of negative feedback currently receiving attention in the SLA literature is recasts. According to Nicholas, Lightbown, and Spada (2001: 733), recasts are “utterances that repeat a learner's incorrect utterance, making only the changes necessary to produce a correct utterance, without changing the meaning.” Put simply, recasts are the targetlike reformulations of what a learner has just said. The following example indicates how a NS recasts a NNS's utterance.

NNS: Why did you fell down?

NS: Why did you fall down?

NNS: Fall down, yes. (Oliver & Mackey, 2003: 519)

Some scholars (Long, 1996; Lyster, 1998a, 1998b) have argued that recasts are ambiguous, i.e. while they provide learners with targetlike form, they may be perceived as an alternative way to say the same thing. Thus, learners may not repeat or rephrase their original utterances following recasts, and they do not even perceive recasts as feedback at all (Mackey et al., 2000). However, as Mackey (2007: 92) rightly observes, “the fact that learners sometimes fail to identify feedback as such does not necessarily imply that the feedback is not beneficial for learners.” There are a number of studies which suggest that negotiated interaction containing recasts can induce L2 learning (Ayoun, 2001; Braidi, 2002; Leeman, 2003; Mackey & Philp, 1998).

IV. Modified Output

Output refers to the language that learners produce. It is suggested that the feedback learners receive during the process of negotiated interaction pushes them to modify their output (McDonough, 2005; Muranoi, 2007; Shehadeh, 2002; Swain, 1995, 2005). In the example below, two learners are interacting regarding a task that involves finding routes on a map. After producing an initially problematic utterance (“turn another side”) and receiving feedback about its lack of comprehensibility, the first learner seems to realize that her utterance was not understood. She then reformulates her initial utterance, modifying her output from “turn another side” to a better grammatical form “turn to the left side.” Learner 2 comprehends and thus the conversation goes on.

Learner 1: In front of library, turn another side from grocery store.

Learner 2: Which side from the grocery?

Learner 1: Ah, er turn to the left side. ← Modified Output

Learner 2: Ok turn left, I did it, now which way to turn? (Mackey, 2007: 93)

Researchers have argued in favor of positive developmental effects when learners modify their output (Gass, 1997; Swain, 1995, 2005). Swain, in particular, has claimed that learners need to be “pushed” to produce more accurate, appropriate, and comprehensible forms after receiving feedback from an interlocutor (see Swain, 1995, 2005). Thus, when interlocutors signal lack of comprehension, learners may reflect upon their language and modify the linguistic and pragmatic features of their output.

All the arguments advanced so far indicate the significance of negotiated interaction in the second language acquisition process. The question of how to foster this type of interaction in second/foreign language classes will be addressed in the next section.

V. Pair Work Activities

Perhaps the most popular way to promote interaction among learners is to use pair work activities. The use of these activities is justified both on pedagogical and theoretical arguments.

According to the pedagogical arguments, pair work activities provide learners with more time to speak the target language, promote learner autonomy, and give teachers opportunities to work with individual learners (Brown, 2001;

Harmer, 2001; Long and Porter, 1985). Moreover, learners may feel less anxious while interacting with peers than during whole-class discussions (Brown, 2001; Crookes & Chaudron, 2001; Davis, 1997).

From a theoretical perspective, the use of pair work activities is supported by the interaction hypothesis, briefly elucidated in the preceding sections. Working in pairs provides learners with opportunities to give and receive feedback, and respond to it by modifying their output. Metaphorically, pair work activities create fertile farmland in which the seeds of *negative feedback* and *modified output* (both significant features of negotiated interaction) easily grow.

In recent years, a number of studies have been conducted to investigate the merits of learner-learner interaction on various aspects of language learning (see Swain, Brooks & Tocalli-Beller, 2002 for a comprehensive review). There are a number of studies which have investigated the effect of pair work on grammar tasks (Baleghizadeh, 2009; Storch, 1999, 2007). Storch (1999) found that pair work had a positive effect on overall grammatical accuracy when ESL students in Australia completed a series of grammar-focused exercises (a cloze exercise, a text reconstruction, and a short composition). There were two isomorphic versions to these exercises (i.e., they featured the same theme, the same genre and were the same length and had approximately the same number of similar grammatical points to attend to). The first version was done individually and the other was completed in pairs. In the cloze exercise, accuracy improved in verb tense/aspect choice (from 58% to 78%) and particularly in morphology (from 35% to 84%). In the text reconstruction exercise, a greater proportion of items were detected and correctly amended when working in pairs than when working individually (72% vs. 63%). With respect to the composition, those written in pairs demonstrated a lower average number of errors than compositions written individually (7.75 vs. 13.6) and a greater proportion of error-free clauses (61% vs. 47%). However, as Storch (1999: 371) admits, "these findings are suggestive, given the small scale of this study and number of tokens per grammatical items."

In another study, Storch (2007) investigated the effect of pair work on a text editing task in the same ESL context, i.e. Australia. The text selected for this study contained 19 errors which dealt with the use of verbs, articles, and word forms. Unlike the findings of her previous study, this study revealed a modest difference in the mean accuracy score for those who worked in pairs and those who did the task individually (68.05% vs. 62%). Considering the fact that the pairs had spent more time on completing the task, one would have expected a greater level of accuracy compared to those who did the task individually. Nevertheless, as Storch (2007: 155) concedes, "these results may be due to the small number of items included in the task itself, and the small number of tokens of some features such as articles and word forms."

More recently and in an EFL setting, Baleghizadeh (2009) compared Iranian intermediate learners' performance on a conversational cloze task under two conditions: individually versus collaboratively. The given cloze task consisted of three types of gaps, namely articles, prepositions, and coordinating conjunctions. The findings revealed that the learners' overall performance in the collaborative mode was significantly better than their performance in the individual mode. However, further analysis indicated some differences across the three given grammatical forms. While the learners who had worked in pairs outperformed their peers in the individual mode on articles and prepositions, their performance on coordinating conjunctions did not significantly differ. It is concluded that this might be due to the complex nature of grammar rules related to articles and prepositions compare to the simpler rules governing the use of coordinating conjunctions. "Apparently, more complex grammatical items (e.g., articles and prepositions) are better candidates to benefit from pair work than those which do not encompass a wide range of complicated rules (Baleghizadeh, 2009:8). Another argument posed to account for this difference is the psycholinguistic readiness of the learners to negotiate more challenging forms like articles and prepositions, which has naturally resulted in their better performance through collaborative work.

VI. The Study

Given the contradictory findings of the small body of research on the impact of peer interaction on grammatical accuracy of learners, there is clearly a need for further research in this area. Given, further, that the previous studies were carried out in ESL contexts, this study sought to fill this void in the literature by investigating the benefits of pair work on a text editing activity in an EFL context. Therefore, the research questions that guided this study were as follows:

1) Do learners working in pairs do a text editing activity more accurately than those who do the same activity individually?

2) If so, do all grammatical features benefit from this interaction?

VII. Method

A. Participants

The participants were 62 (22 male and 40 female) second and third year students of English Literature at Shahid Beheshti University, who volunteered to take part in this study. In order to determine the homogeneity of the participants in terms of their language proficiency, they were given a paper-based version of the TOEFL test, which showed that their scores were in the 560-585 range. The participants were then randomly assigned to experimental and control groups. 40 students formed the experimental group and 22 students constituted the control group. The reason for this uneven student numbers will be explained later.

B. Material

The material used in the study was a text editing activity adapted from Koch (1995) which required the participants to amend it. The text was 279 words long and contained 30 error items. The errors were related to the use of one of these function words: articles (10), prepositions (10), and subordinating conjunctions (10). The participants were required to add, delete or change one of these word categories to improve the accuracy of the text.

C. Procedure

The participants completed the given editing activity under two conditions: individually and collaboratively, i.e. in pairs. In the collaborative condition, students worked in self-selected pairs. Following Storch (1999), in order to encourage joint production, each pair was given only one copy of the activity. This suggests that the total number of copies collected from the experimental group was 20 and the samples collected from the control group were 22.The participants in both groups were not pressed for time, i.e. they were given as much time as they would need to complete the activity. The average time spent on editing the text for the individual and collaborative modes were 20 and 24 minutes, respectively. This is rather surprising compared to similar studies in which the amount of time doubled when students worked in pairs than when they attempted individually (Storch, 1999, 2005, 2007; Storch & Wigglesworth, 2007).

The participants in the experimental group were encouraged to cooperate with each other while doing the activity, and the researcher monitored them to make sure that they would speak in English. No attempt was made to audiotape the students' pair talk; however, the researcher made sporadic notes as he listened to some of the pairs.

D. Data Analysis

A multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was used to compare the overall performance of the two groups on the text editing activity. Moreover, separate univariate F tests were employed to determine if there was any significant difference between the two groups on any of the function word categories, i.e. articles, subordinating conjunctions, and prepositions. The data analysis was carried out using the SPSS statistical software package (version 13) with alpha set at .05.

VIII. RESULTS

Table 1 reports the means and standard deviations of control and experimental groups for their total and individual function word scores.

TABLE 1.
MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR TOTAL AND INDIVIDUAL FUNCTION WORD SCORES

	Total			Articles		Sub. Conjs.		Preps.	
Group	*n*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
Exp.	20	22.95	2.60	7.50	1.27	7.35	1.18	8.10	1.11
Cont.	22	15.72	2.58	3.86	1.45	4.55	1.56	7.32	1.49

A MANOVA was run indicating the three dependent measures of articles, subordinating conjunctions, and prepositions. The Wilkis's Lambda test $F= 34.83$, $p= .001$ resulted in a significant main effect for the pair work. This suggests that the mean score gained for the experimental group ($M= 22.95$) is significantly higher than the mean score of the control group ($M= 15.72$). Therefore, the first research question was answered in the positive; that is, students who had completed the task in pairs had outperformed those who had done it individually.

To answer the second research question, i.e. if all grammatical features would benefit from peer interaction, univariate *F* tests for all three categories of function words were employed. Table 2 shows the results of these univariate *F* tests.

TABLE 2.
UNIVARIATE *F* TEST FOR ARTICLES, SUBORDINATE CONJUNCTIONS, AND PREPOSITIONS

Source	Score	*df*	*SS*	*Ms*	*F*	*Sig*
Pair work	articles	1	138.52	138.52	73.30*	.001
	sub. conjs.	1	82.40	82.40	42.25*	.001
	preps.	1	6.40	6.40	3.63	.064
Error	articles	40	75.60	1.89		
	sub. conjs.	40	78.00	1.95		
	preps.	40	70.57	1.76		

$p < .05$

The univariate test for articles revealed that there was a significant difference between students' mean scores on articles when they worked in pairs than when they worked individually, F (1, 40) = 73.30, $p < .05$. Similarly, the univariate test for subordinating conjunction resulted in a significant main effect for pair work, F (1, 40) = 42.25, $p < .05$. Nevertheless, the univariate test for prepositions showed no significant difference between the groups, F (1, 40) = 3.63, $p = .064$. This indicates that students did not benefit from pair work that much when it came to prepositions.

IX. Discussion

This study explored the efficacy of pair work in EFL classes by comparing the performance of pairs and individuals on a text editing activity. The analysis showed that when students completed the activity in pairs, their joint effort was more successful. This suggests that, overall, students benefited from negotiated interaction. The following excerpt, noted down by the researcher as he listened to one of the pairs, shows that students' negotiation typically tended to center on grammatical forms.

S1: Another problem . . . the Rhode Island. It doesn't need the.

S2: But we say the Kish Island, and . . .

S1: No, No. I'm sure. My teacher said don't use the with islands. It's Rhode Island.

S2: Ok, so correct it. Rhode Island.

This is a clear instance of negotiation of form produced through the process of interaction. Student 2, through the feedback that he receives, modifies his output on "the Kish Island" and admits that he should use zero article before the names of islands, and that is why he finally says "Rhode Island." It follows, therefore, that pair work provides learners with opportunities to engage in the kind of moves that have been hypothesized by the interaction hypothesis to be facilitative of second language learning: seeking and receiving confirmation, providing each other with negative feedback, etc.

As for the second research question, i.e. which grammatical features would benefit from negotiated interaction, this study offers interesting findings. As shown in Table 2, the grammatical problems concerning articles and subordinating conjunctions were resolved more successfully when attempted collaboratively than individually, while pair work was not any better than individual work regarding problems pertaining to the use of prepositions. This indicates that negotiated interaction helps learners with certain grammatical features. One possible explanation for this phenomenon is that more complex grammatical items, such as articles and subordinating conjunctions, are more likely to be affected by beneficial effects of interaction than more straightforward grammatical items like prepositions. It should be noted that the majority of prepositional problems addressed in this study were transparent cases, e.g. *in* is the only preposition used after *believe* or *on* is the only preposition used after *based* (see Appendix A). This could be the reason why students' performance on them did not differ that much when attempted in either of the two modes (individual vs. collaborative).

The findings of this study corroborate the findings of Storch (1999) but do not lend support to those of Storch (2007) in that, overall, learners completed the task more successfully in pairs than individually. However, as for different grammatical forms, the present study supports neither of Storch's studies. The learners' pair work on the use of articles in this study seems to have benefited them more than individual work compared to Storch's studies. The results are also partially similar to the findings of Baleghizadeh (2009) in that the participants' overall performance in the collaborative mode was significantly better than their performance in the individual mode. Moreover, those working in pairs were able to correct more article and subordinating conjunction errors than those working alone. However, regarding prepositions their performance did not significantly differ, whereas in Baleghizadeh (2009) there was a significant difference between the two groups on prepositions. This might be due to the transparent use of prepositions in the given task, which was mentioned above.

One last interesting finding of this study is concerned with the time factor. As mentioned earlier, the time spent on doing the activity in pairs was only four minutes longer than when it was done individually, whereas in similar studies conducted previously, this time doubled. That is why the improved accuracy of students working in pairs in many of the previous studies (Storch, 1999, 2005, 2007) cannot be merely attributed to the beneficial effects of negotiated interaction. As Storch (1999: 370) observes, "this improved accuracy may be due to the longer time students spent on the exercises when completing them in pairs." However, due to the insignificant time difference (only four minutes) between the performance of the two groups, the findings of the present study lend stronger support to the facilitative role of negotiated interaction.

X. Conclusion

The findings of this study suggest that urging EFL learners to do grammar-focused activities in pairs is likely to result in mixed effects on grammatical accuracy: a positive effect on their overall performance but a varying effect on certain grammatical features. Therefore, not all grammatical items benefit from negotiated interaction. Apparently, more complex grammatical items (e.g. articles) are in a better position to enjoy this type of treatment. Nevertheless, the small number of tokens (only 10) for each grammatical feature restricts any further generalization. One thing, however, is clear: when learners pool their linguistic resources together, they are more likely to co-construct knowledge and resolve linguistic problems. That is why their accuracy increases when they interact with a peer. One important pedagogical implication of this study, therefore, is that pair work activities should no longer be the prerogative of conversation classes. As the findings of this study indicate, students can also benefit from pair work that encourages them to interact over grammar-focused activities.

APPENDIX A

Find and correct the errors in the following text.

Among conscientious objectors are the Quakers, also known as the Religious Society of Friends. Quaker religion originated from seventeenth-century England with George Fox, who believed what a person needs no spiritual intermediary. He sought to know that a person finds understanding and guidance and concluded which it is through an "inward light," supplied by Holy Spirit. The early Quakers refused to attend the Church of England services or to pay tithes to church. They questioned which the real values in life were, and they were frugal and plain on their dress and speech. In those times, whomever opposed customs of the established church was persecuted. Thus, the Quakers met with fines, confiscation of property, and even imprisonment. Some emigrated to Asia and Africa, but particularly to America, where they found refuge in the Rhode Island and in Pennsylvania, a colony established in 1682 by William Penn, who was himself a Quaker.

Quakers do not believe at taking part of war because they feel that war causes spiritual damage from hatred. Most Quakers refuse to serve in military, although individuals can follow however convictions they personally hold. Because their resistance is based at religious and humanitarian convictions, U.S. and British governments have allowed them to substitute nonmilitary service with that would normally be military service requirement.

Quaker meetings are periods of silent meditation, where members speak if they are urged to spirit. Quakers are active at education and social welfare. They believe the society should treat all its citizens as equals. The American Friends Service Committee organizes relief and service projects at whatever in the world help is needed.

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A New Course Connecting Working Post Skills and English Integrated Skills

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***Abstract*—To meet the needs of the deepening reform of higher vocational education in China, a new course by the name of *The Career English Integrated Skills*, which combines the career skills and the career English integrated skills into a complex, has been lectured by the author in recent years. The concept of the course is based on the professional educational model "the duty actuation, the project guidance". Neither a public English nor an English for Specific Purposes, the course has its bright characteristic in taking the work mission or the professional project as a carrier, using the occupational post skills as the main content line, and making English integrated skills as its training way.**

***Index Terms*—a new course, career skills, English integrated skills**

I. Foreword

The deepening reform of higher vocational education in China proposed that the English teaching not only needs raising student's practical English abilities, but should raise student's English skills in the work-posts, the professional English accomplishment and the English sustainable development abilities. To meet those requirements a new course of *The Career English Integrated Skills*, which involves career English and the integrated career English skills, has been opened in our college in recent years. The contents of the course are introduced in the following.

II. Career Skills

Career skills can be defined as working post skills (career-common-core-skills), which may include:

A. The external affairs communicating skills, foreign trade professional skills(reception; welcomes delivers, unit introduction, product ,item, project and contract settlement or service recommendation item and so on);

B. The practical official document writing skills, information acquisition skills, expressing work process skills (operation, gathering, disposition, demarcation, use, choice and so on);

C. The skills of expressing in solving the problems on the production process (service introduction, arrangement, designing, elimination, estimate, computation, choice, and so on);

D. The skills of expressing management in the organizing process (planning, organization, management, instruction, coordination, monitoring function, service introduction supervision, summary, report and so on).

III. Career English

The English used in workplace today is becoming a new field of the English study in the world as people must get the job and the job must be done by using English. Nowadays when the global economy becomes existing, people perform their work with English skills-- the skills of listening speaking, reading, writing and interpreting or translating because English is the most important international language in the world.

In a sense, the Career English may be simply defined as a working language to express the general activities in the process of proper work or job. Compared with "English for Specific Purposes" (ESP), which is a special branch of English, with its own characteristic structure and vast terminology, the Career English is not too "specific" but encompasses the most domains of common English as well as the various language functions of the workplace. Within the course limits, the career English integrated skills will be practiced only but not the language general knowledge.

IV. The Integrated Career English Skills

All the communicating forms of the Career English involved in skills are integrated, not single because the investigation made in the past years from the career field shows that the sole-skill does not exist nearly in the real working activities.

The communicating forms of the Career English designed in the course are various:

A. The listening —speaking formula (Telling others what has been heard in English);

B. The listening—writing formula (recording what has been heard in English);

C. The reading —speaking formula (Telling others what has been read in English);

D. The reading —writing formula (writing articles in his or her own language after reading materials in English);
E. The listening — translating formula (interpreting activities between the two languages);
F. The reading - translating formula (translation activities between the two languages).

The investigation we carried out proves that among the these integrated skills of Career English the end form of the communicating forms most used is to be speaking-writing- translating(interpreting) combination. Even if the obtained content of monitoring as the main task in military department finally still needs to have the written form to be presented. And editors need to use the written form to write out appraisals when reading magazines or newspapers as their chief work in editing.

Further in the analysis of the communicating activities taken outputs as the end form, we have also discovered the frequency of the interpreting and translating would appear far higher than that of speaking and writing. Generally, except the foreign capital companies, the transformation of Chinese and English can't be avoided in the joint venture or enterprises and institutions when English is used.

V. THE ENGLISH INTEGRATED SKILLS TRAINING CONTENTS AND FORMS

The career English integrated skills training content and form is indicated in the following table:

	Training content	Training form
Oral	repeating the instructions of bosses	Recording while Listening and indicating to it
	After listening to business information reporting back the outlining of them	Recording while Listening and expressing it orally
	Reading a diagram (photo, picture, etc.)of products, then report the main point	Recording while reading and expressing it orally
	Watching the products video recording and repeating it	Recording while reading and expressing it orally
	Making an oral plan on a work task	Develops the lecture notes, the practicing lecturing in the crowd
	Making production or management reports on the different viewpoints	Thinking on the argument debates and writing out the manuscript, attending the debate
written	Reading product manuscripts and write out outlines	Reading and sectioning out the main plot, and composing outlines
	Listening to work reports, writing out the main points	Recording while listening and writing down main outlines
	Reading presentations of products then writing summaries	Reading reports and sectioning out the main points, and the composing summaries
	Listening to presentations of products then writing summaries	Writing while listening then making the reading notes, composing summaries
	Writing out reading reports on the jobs	Reading working process and recording the vital clues and writing out reading reports
	Writing out reports on work case analysis	Reading working process and recording the vital clues and writing out the case analyses
	write a work summary	Reading the related background material, and composing the work summary
	Write responses to customers	Reading proposals(complaints) ,then composing responses
both	The Interpreting foreign trade congress speech	Interpreting while listening
	Interpreting in the business negotiations	Recording and interpreting while listening
	Interpreting in the external affairs	Recording and interpreting while listening
	The technical product written translation	carrying on translation while reading original text
	Translating on technical materials in English	carrying on translation while reading original text
	Translating on culture topics of foreign enterprises	carrying on translation while reading original text
	translating on business scenic sites	carrying on translation while reading original text

VI. THE CAREER MAIN SKILLS AND MICRO SKILLS

The course contents are designed mainly into two parts: main skills and micro skills:

Main skills：work duties as the topic of the unit	Micro skills：career common core skill as the content of each unit
Managing Office Work	Make and receive phone calls; Receive guests; Deal with daily routine work.
Conducting a Survey	Talk about the process of a survey; Ask for opinions and suggestions; Sum up and report survey outcomes.
Making Presentation	Make an effective presentation; Recognize different charts and diagrams; Describe a chart.
Handling Personal Information	Give personal information; Ask about personal information ； Understand personal information through listening.
Making Business Trips	Determine trip goals; Make trip arrangements; Contact business partners;

From the points of view on the course-unit design, there are career topics as learning tasks , each of which has a main skill (the first one)and a few micro skills(from the second of each number):

1. Adapting to New Environments
Know differences in the new place;
How to adapt to the new environment;
Manage daily life independently.
2. Handling Personal Information
Give personal information;
Ask about personal information；
Understand personal information through listening.
3. Planning Your Career
Talk about various occupations;
Talk about your ideal job；
Give reasons for the choice of a job;
Talk about a career plan.
4. Hunting for a Job
Find information about job opportunities;
Arrange for interviews;
Behave, ask and answer questions properly at an interview.
5. Making Invitations
Invite people to social and business activities;
Accept and decline invitations;
Create an invitation letter.
6. Catering Visitors
Pick up and send off visitors at the airport;
Book hotels and order food；
Negotiate agendas with visitors；
Show visitors around.
7. Managing Office Work
Make and receive phone calls;
Receive guests;
Deal with daily routine work.
8. Introducing a Company
Know the structure of a company;
Describe the main products and services of a company;
Make comments on the company culture: vision, goal, prospect of development.
9. Organizing Meetings
Make meeting arrangements；
Prepare for meeting materials.
10. Making Business Trips
Determine trip goals;
Make trip arrangements;
Contact business partners;
Pay a successful visit to your business partners.
11. Interpersonal Skills and Teamwork

Get along well with colleagues;
Communicate effectively with the boss;
Cooperate with group members.
12. Conducting a Survey
Talk about the process of a survey;
Ask for opinions and suggestions;
Sum up and report survey outcomes.
13. Making Presentation
Make an effective presentation;
Recognize different charts and diagrams;
Describe a chart.
14. Working Process
Understand the functions and characteristics of a working process;
Form a working process with the help of a model;
Carry out a working process.
15. Quality Control
Tell the importance of quality control;
Know the quality control regulations/criteria;
Deal with the quality problem of products or services.
16. SYB (Set up Your Business) Online
Search information online;
Understand the process of SYB online;
Keep in touch with business partners online.
17. Global Sourcing
Know the widespread practice of global sourcing;
Tell the strategies in global sourcing ;
Know the advantages and disadvantages of global sourcing.
18. Occupational Health and Safety
Talk about the importance of OHS;
Understand the OHS regulations;
Deal with OHS problems.
19. Modern Administration
Know the classification of modern administration
Know the links of modern administration
20. Retrospect and Prospect
Summarize the achievements in the previous year;
Analyze the causes of the weaknesses in the past year;
Plan for the coming year.
The teaching directions in each unit are made a table as the below:

U	Career Skills	Detailed Descriptions	Assignments
3	Promoting Products and Services	1. Can describe the products and services 2. Can compare products and services (features, prices) 3. Can offer after-sale services 4. Can conclude a deal and express wish for future co-operation	LS: Related voc & sp R: Related passage W/T: Describing shapes and functions

Notes: In the above table, “U” stands for “UNIT”; Career Skills means main skill; Detailed Descriptions equal to micro skill; LS, R and W/T in Assignments are referred to listening and speaking, reading and writing/translating.

In this unit the skills for career positions students need to learn and master are to promote their products and services, especially to be able to describe the products and services, to compare products and services and to provide after-sales service into a peace deal and long-term cooperation.

The comprehensive skills students need in this unit are : listening, speaking skills related to vocabulary and sentence patterns involving products and services; reading several articles in marketing products, services ,the product appearance and functions and writing, translation activities.

VII. An Example of a Unit Design

The following is one of the units of the course as an example of the course learning:
Task x Making Business Trips
English Integrated Skills: Listen and Complete
(main skill) Making Business Trips

(micro skills) Listen and Complete; Read and Choose; Listen and Speak; Read and Match and Translate

Career English Skills:

(main skill) Determine trip goals by planning in advance

(micro skills) Make trip arrangements; Contact business partners; Write a business trip review.

Reference words: Venue, transportation, means, exchange ,advisable; itinerary, destination, confirm, evaluate, supply, foreign currency, travel agency, have a business trip to ,hold talks with ,a red eye flight ,promote our products sales channel, expand one’s business

Activity 1 Listen and Complete

Listening to the passage and complete the following paragraph.

When you’re going for your business _____________, there are many things you have to consider in advance. So it is advisable to write out an _____________. If you are asked to make the travel arrangements yourself, you may consult a _____________ to book flight and hotel rooms. When these are set down, inform your business partner of the dates of your _____________. Sending _____________ for business partners is a common practice. However, it is not necessary to buy too expensive things.

(Keys：1. trip 2. itinerary 3. travel agency 4. arrival and departure 5. gifts)

Activity 2 Read and Choose and Answer

Travel for Business

When you’re going for your business trip, there are many things you have to consider in advance, such as finding out the location of the venue, choosing transportation means, booking hotel rooms, and even exchanging foreign currencies when traveling internationally. So it is advisable to write out an itinerary before you get to your destination. As a matter of fact, a good travel plan can save you a lot of time and money.

First of all, you must make yourself clear of your business trip goals, which may be to pay a visit to workshop, confirm quality standard, evaluate supply ability, discuss prices furthermore and so on. Make sure you keep all your goals in mind during the journey. If you are asked to make the travel arrangements yourself, you may consult a travel agency. Tell the assistants of the date and place, and they can always help you book flight and hotel rooms at more favorable prices.

When these are set down, inform your business partner of the dates of your arrival and departure so as to let your partner make some preparations for warming reception and help you book tickets for train or plane between cities. Name cards are often exchanged officially when you meet with your business partners for the first time. Usually customers will visit several places in different cities. It’s a good idea to decide when and where to go first, second, third. It is quite important that both of you communicate in an effective way. If you are not sure which the best route is, you’d better consult your partner.

Nowadays, sending gifts for business partners has developed into a common practice. Gifts are just to express your sincerity to do business with your partners and it is not necessary to buy too expensive things for that. Otherwise, it is likely that you will make your partners feel nervous.

Based on the tips given ahead, you are likely to have a successful business trip with your partners around the world. (340 words)

2-1 Tell if the following statements are true or false.

1) It is suggested that we should make a plan before we start to travel.

2) We can consult a travel agency if we have to make the arrangements ourselves.

3) A travel agency always books flight and rooms at very high prices.

4) Inform the partners of the arrival date so that they can make some preparations.

5) Name cards are often exchanged officially when business partners meet for the first time.

6) We should buy expensive gifts for our business partners to express sincerity.

(Key:*1. T2. T3. F4. T5. T 6. F)*

2-2 Listen to the following questions and answer them.

1. What do we have to consider in advance when we’re going for a trip?
2. In what way can a good travel plan help us?
3. What can we benefit from a travel agency?
4. Why should we inform business partners of the dates of arrival and departure?
5. Is it necessary to send too expensive gifts for business partners?
6. If you are going to have a business trip, how will you make a plan?

(Key: 1 We have to consider many things, such as finding out the location of the venue, choosing transportation means, booking hotel rooms, and even exchanging foreign currencies when traveling internationally.

2 A good travel plan can save us a lot of time and money.

3 A travel agency can always helps us book flight and hotel rooms at more favorable prices.

4 We inform them so as to let them make some preparations for warming reception and help us book tickets for train or plane between cities.

5 No, it isn’t. Because too expensive gifts will probably make your partners feel nervous.

6 Open.)

Activity 3 Read and Match

A	B
1. 质量标准	a. supply ability
2. 接风洗尘	b. a common practice
3. 交通工具	c. in an effective way
4. 惯例	d. quality standard
5. 供给能力	e. transportation means
6. 商谈价钱	f. warming reception
7. 表示诚意	g. express the sincerity
8. 交通工具	h. exchange foreign currencies
9. 兑换外汇	i. transportation means
10. 有效的	j. discuss prices

(Key:1- d 2-f 3-i 4-b 5-a 6-j 7-g 8-e 9-h 10-c)

Activity 4 Read and Translate

China Southern Airlines is an airline based in Guangzhou in the Guangdong province of the People's Republic of China operating domestic, regional and international services. China Southern is the world’s 7th largest airline in terms of passengers carried in 2007, and Asia’s largest airline in terms of both fleet size and passengers carried. China Southern is also the 7th busiest in domestic passenger traffic and the 7th largest in scheduled domestic passenger-kilometres flown worldwide. China Southern carries more domestic cargo than any other airline. It is a member of the SkyTeam airline alliance. Its main operation hubs are Guangzhou Baiyun International Airport and Beijing Capital International Airport, and a number of international airports in other big cities, like Changchun, Dalian, Shenzhen, etc.

Keys (Three kinds for students to appreciate)

No:1 中国南方航空公司是中国国内和国际航空,总部在广东广州。以载客能力计,,南方航空是世界第七大,而按机数和客量则为亚洲第一。中国南方航空还拥有全世界第七大国内客运量和国内旅客飞行公里数。它比中国任何其他航空公司运载量更大。它还是国际 SkyTeam(国际航空联盟)的成员。它的主机场是广州白云国际机场和北京首都国际机场及长春、大连、深圳等等大市国际机场。(166 Chinese words)

No:2 总部广州,中国南方航空公司服务国内、国际。其载客量,旅客飞行公里数居世界第七, 机数 、客量亚洲第一。主机场广州白云及北京、长春、大连、深圳等国际机场。(73 Chinese words)

No:3 南航经营, 国内国际; 载客、航数,世界第七; 机数 、客量, 亚洲第一; 一流机场, 广州白云。(42 Chinese words)

Activities outside class

1. Read the passage and fill in the blanks with appropriate words from the box below.

invited	appreciation	due to	as soon as	strengthen
assigned	destination	attached	aboard	looked forward to

A Trip to Australia

My name is Li Li. I work at a well-known wine import company in Guangzhou. Last week, my colleague John and I were 1 __________ to visit our new business partner in Australia. We booked two flight tickets from a travel agency. John seemed a bit excited since it was his first time to travel by plane. On that day, 2__________ we got to the Baiyun International Airport, we checked in. However, we waited two more hours until we could get 3 __________.

The whole journey was rather tiring. It took us more than eight hours to get to our first 4 __________ Sydney. When we walked out the terminal, a woman named Jane came to meet us. She was the assistant manager from the partnership company. 5 __________ the fact that we were the potential importer, she told us that her company 6 __________ great importance to our arrival. We expressed our deepest 7 __________ for their considerate arrangements.

During the following days, we had several talks with the main leaders of their company. We discussed many fields in which we could 8 __________ our cooperation. We also 9 __________ the prospect that the products could be successful on the Chinese market in the near future. The company arranged us to visit their wine factory in Melbourne, where we surveyed their producing procedures and tasted the flavorful wine.

We had a wonderful time in Australia. When we finished our trip, we exchanged our gifts with the host. We also 10 __________ them to come to China the next year.

(Keys: 1 assigned 2 as soon as 3 aboard 4 destination 5 Due to 6 attached 7 appreciation 8 strengthen 9 looked forward to 10 invited)

2. Choose the answer that best completes each sentence according the above passage.

1. John was excited because __________.

A) he hadn’t traveled by air before

B) Australia was his dream travel place

C) they had to wait for two hours at the airport

D) he was traveling with Li Li
2. The word "potential" in paragraph 2 most probably means _________.
A) probable
B) suitable
C) reliable
D) reasonable
3. The Australian company put high value on the author's arrival, because ___________.
A) they were rich people
B) they could probably import their wine
C) they could bring high technology to the company
D) they were from China
4. The author did many things except _________.
A) having talks with the leaders of the company
B) discussing their cooperative fields
C) looking forward to the prospect on the Chinese market
D) exchanging their products
5. We can infer from the passage that __________.
A) John has traveled to many countries before this trip
B) the flight was better than expected
C) the author had a successful business trip in Australia
D) Jane went to see the author off at the airport
(Keys:1 A, 2 A, 3 B, 4D, 5 C)

VIII. Conclusion

The general goal of the course *The Career English Integrated Skills* is to aim at the actual use of English in scene segmentation in societies, workplaces and posts. Mainly to professional trends and the higher vocational English teaching needs, the practical knowledge and abilities of both career and English skills are carefully extracted and selected to combine into the formation of a professional job working ability of the Can Do Lists, into a professional micro-skills group to form a cross-skills training of listening, speaking, reading, writing and translation.

The Career English Integrated Skills is a new course connecting working post skills and English integrated skills and being a newly built module system in English education reform, much work needs to be done in the coming time, such as the design of the textbook, including its compilation themes, compilation styles, as well as the study patterns and the matched resources.

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A Study of the Teaching of Culture in College English

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***Abstract*—Language is a system of arbitrary vocal symbols used for human communication. It is closely and intricately related to culture. It is part of culture. And as carriers of culture, language reflects culture. This essay dwells on the digging of the relationship between the language teaching, especially English teaching, and culture teaching today, and tries to find a more suitable method of language teaching as well as culture teaching.**

***Index Terms*—language, culture, communication**

I. Language and Culture

A. What is Language?

Before we define the language, let's look at the definitions below: Language, according to Finocchiaro, is a system of arbitrary, vocal symbols which permit all people in given culture, or other people who have learned the system of that culture, to communicate or to interact. Mario Andrew Pei defines language is a system of communication by sound, operating through the organs of speech and hearing, among members of a given community, and using vocal symbols possessing arbitrary conventional meanings. Saussure says language is system of signs that express ideas. Francis holds language is an arbitrary system of articulated sounds made use of by a group of human as a means of carrying on the affairs of their society. Salzman thinks a language refers to any one of several thousand systems of oral communication used by different human societies.

However, we can see that none of the above definitions is sound. Nevertheless, from the definitions above, we can draw a broad agreement that language should possess the following characteristics, that is, arbitrariness, duality, displacement, productivity, cultural transmission, and interchangeability. In other words, these are the "design features" of human language. And of which cultural transmission is what we will discuss. If we put it into another way, that is, just like the traditional habits, language is part of human genetic endowment; language can mirror the culture of people who speak it. So, when we study a certain language, we should also cast some lights on the culture it carries.

B. What is Culture?

1. Definition of Culture

Scholars have all tried to define culture in a satisfied manner, but all failed. As early as 1952, Krober and Kluckhohn listed 164 definitions of Culture that they had found in the anthropology literature. Tylor treats Culture as a complex whole of our social traditions and as prerequisite for us to be a member of the society. And Hoebel and Frost defined Culture as "integrated system of learned behavior patterns which are characteristic of the members of a society and which are not the result of biological inheritance." (Hoebel & Frost, 1976)

While Brown's definition "Culture might be defined as the ideas, customs, skills, arts, and tools which characterize a given people in a given period of time." And Haviland calls it a set of rules or standard shared by members of a society which when acted upon by the members, produces behavior that falls with a range that members consider proper and acceptable. Bates and Plog proposed a descriptive definition, "Culture is a system of shared beliefs, values, customs, behaviors, and artifacts that the members of a society use to cope with their world and with one another, and that transmitted from generation to generation through learning."(Bates and Plog, 1990) This definition includes not only patterns but also patterns of thought, artifacts, and the culturally transmitted skills and techniques used to make the artifacts. And their definition contains most of the major territory of culture on which scholars currently agree. With the basis of this definition, Porter and Samovar advanced another definition: Culture is the deposit of knowledge, experience, belief, values, attitudes, meanings, hierarchies, religions, notions of time, roles, spatial relations, concepts of the universe, and artifacts acquired by a group of people in the course of generations through individual and group striving. (Samovar & Porter, 2000)

These definitions above demonstrate that culture is a large and evasive concept. It refers to the total pattern of beliefs, custom, institutions, objects and techniques that characterized the life of a human community. It regulates people's lives in almost every aspect.

2. Characteristics of Culture

Firstly, culture is holistic. As a holistic system, culture can be broken down into several subsystems, including a kinship system, and education system, a religious system, an association system, a political system, and so on, but they are all intimately interrelated.

Secondly, culture is pervasive. Culture penetrates into every aspect of our life and influences the way we think, the way we talk, and the way we behave. Culture combines visible and invisible things around us. Culture is the sum total of human society and its meanings.

Thirdly, culture is dynamic. Cultures are constantly changing over time. According to Porter and Samovar, cultures change mainly through mechanisms. And the four major mechanisms account for the change of cultures are: technical invention, disasters, cultural contact, and environmental factors.

Finally, culture is learned. Because culture is a shared symbolic system within a relatively large group of people, the only way for group members to integrate into, reinforce, and co-create this shared symbolic system is through a learning process. We begin to consciously and unconsciously learn our culture on our early life through the process of socialization or enculturation. The interaction with members living around us is the most common way. Other sources for learning a culture include schools, mass, art, folk tales, myths and proverbs.

3. Classification of Culture

There exists various ways of classifying culture. For example:

(1) High culture, popular culture, deep culture (Hu, 1988)

a. High culture includes philosophy, literature, fine arts, music and religion.

b. Popular culture includes customs, habits, rites and rituals, ways of living and all interpersonal behavior.

c. Deep culture refers to the conception of beauty, definition of sin, notion of modesty, ordering of time, tempos of work, patterns of group decision-making, approaches to problem-solving, roles in relation to status by age, sex, class, occupation, and kinship, body language and so on and so forth. Deep structure is closely related to what may be termed the national temperament of a people.

(2) Material culture and spiritual culture

a. Material culture refers to tangible items such as cars, watches, television sets and houses.

b. Spiritual culture refers to intangible items such as values, norms, beliefs, customs, etc.

C. The Relationship between Language and Culture

From the above review of the language and culture, we can get an idea of the relationship between them. That is,

(1) Language is part of culture. Language is both a component of culture and a central network through which the other components are expressed. Just as H. Goodenough says “a society’s language is an aspect of its culture. The relation of language to culture, then, is that of part to whole.” (Goodenough, 1964)

(2) Language reflects culture. From language of a nation, people can learn some cultural features of this nation. And in a broad sense, language is the symbolic representation of a people, and it comprises their historical and cultural background as well as their approach to life and their ways of living and thinking.

(3) There is another sense in which language is not a passive reflector of culture. Actually, cultural features vary not only synchronically from speech community to speech community, they also change diachronically within the same speech community, and this change also reflects change of language, which will cope with the change of society actively.

In a nutshell, this theoretical survey tells us that there is a very intimate relationship between language and culture, maintaining that they are inextricably related so that people can not understand or appreciate the one without the knowledge of the other. That is why the emphasis should be put on culture in foreign language teaching.

II. The Present Situation in College Teaching

The learning of language and the learning of culture are obviously two different things, and at the same time, they are closely inter-dependent. The linguistic system is part of the social system. Neither can be learned without the other.

When we mention English teaching, we will at once associate it with “deaf English” and “dumb English”. A good case in this point is that students don’t know to answer such questions as “what do you usually have for your breakfast?”, because they don’t know how to express “稀饭”and “馒头” in English. And some other reasons make the situation worse. In my opinion, the main reasons are as follows:

(1) Incorrect goal of teaching: Chinese students of English have long been trained the way to pass the entrance examination to college in middle schools. They are quite skillful at grammar rules. But to most students, their ability of using English to communicate is rather weak.

(2) Impractical of content of teaching: the textbook is too old in some way. And most texts are about literature and politics, seldom about practical content. This is one of the reasons that the students’ ability of writing is rather poor, though grammar is good to them.

(3) Inadequate knowledge of culture: till today, some of the language teachers and scholars still have not been able to pay enough attention to the role of cultural knowledge in language learning. What have been emphasized mostly are the students’ motivation, the teachers’ skills etc. One very important component in college English teaching has been neglected. That is, the awareness of the role of cultural traits in foreign language acquisition. It’s unthinkable and very hard for one to master a foreign language and communicate very well with its native speakers without a good

knowledge of the people's cultural traits and cultural standards, because each language contains a certain amount of cultural features that other languages don't have. Lack of cultural knowledge will make communication difficult and result in many mistakes.

Surveying the present situation of English teaching in college, we can find that half is satisfactory and half is worrying. Today, more and more people begin to be interested in English; college students pay much time and energy on English, and they have made great achievements in different kinds of English examination. But, what we have to worry about is that many students can not use English properly, and are lack of cross cultural communicative competence, they make mistakes frequently. So many disadvantages that emerge in the students' learning English make our English teaching workers have to introspect deeply.

III. Conclusion

From all the discussion above, we can see that, under the situation of cultivating the students of cross-cultural communicative competence, the traditional teaching method that the teachers teach and the students recite before the examinations should be changed. On the one hand, language and culture are so closely inter-dependent that neither can be learned without the other. On the other hand, great differences exist between the high-context Chinese culture and the low-context Western culture. There is no point in neglecting these differences if we want to learn English well. Furthermore, in order to integrate culture into college English Teaching, some basic principles should be followed. That is,

(1) cultural objectives and activities must be included in lesson plans
(2) cultural components must be tested in examination
(3) the teaching of content must be emphasized as much as the teaching of form
(4) students need to be taught to understand to experience and to process culture
(5) the target language should be the primary vehicle used to teach culture

In a nutshell, we must recognize the importance of intercultural awareness in English language teaching and set it as one of the goals of teaching. In present English teaching, our English teachers should cultivate our students not only to express foreign things and cultures in English, but also can use English to introduce Chinese staffs and culture to the outside world, balancing English culture and Chinese culture development in the process of language teaching. Thus, we have to carry out cross cultural input, which means turning the course of language teaching to the course of gradual comprehension to the target language culture and mother tongue culture, making English teaching and practice match.

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Translation of English and Chinese Addressing Terms from the Cultural Aspect

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***Abstract*—Terms of address are frequently used in social communication to show the identity, rank and relationship between the speaker and the hearer. It is important to have a profound understanding of addressing terms, especially in cross-cultural communication. However, due to the difference in history, religion and culture, terms of address vary in different countries and regions. In this paper, the author discusses the translation of English and Chinese addressing terms from the aspect of cultural background. First, the author defines terms of address and gives the reason why people use terms of address in social communication. Then, the differences between English and Chinese terms of address are analyzed from the point of kinship terms and social terms of address. Last, four translation methods are given according to different situations, namely, literal translation, translating flexibly, specification or generalization and domestication and foreignization.**

Index Terms—**terms of address, kinship terms, social terms of address, translation methods**

I. Introduction

With the development of globalization and the expansion of the intercultural communication, the contact between people from different countries, cultures and races are becoming more and more frequent. In the communication, it is inevitable to use terms of address which differ because of the diversity of culture. Moreover, terms of address are culture dependent and change in the course of time as old criteria become obsolete and come to be replaced by new criteria, and other criteria may be added to create a new system (Taavitsainen and Jucker, 2003). During thousands of years' development, China has formed a very sophisticated address system, while the addressing terms in western countries are relatively simple. There are seldom absolute address equivalent address terms in Chinese and English. Therefore, in order to make the translation more precisely and specify the exact relation between people, translators should have a profound understanding of various terms of address. In this paper the reason for differences existed between Chinese and English terms will be discussed and corresponding translation methods will be given.

II. Terms of Address

Terms of address are words and phrases used for addressing. They refer to the collocutor and thus contain a strong element of deixis (Braun, 1988). They are words or linguistic expressions that speakers use to appeal directly to their addressees (Taavitsainen and Jucker, 2003). In *Modern Chinese Dictionary*, address terms are defined as terms people get because of kinship or other relationship as well as their status, occupation, etc, such as 'father', 'master', and 'boss'.

To be brief, terms of address are words or expressions used to indicate certain relations between people, or to show the difference in identity, position and social status. They are reflections of national cultures. It plays a very important role in the face-to-face communication since it is the first information transferred to others.

It is true that people use terms of address to address each other in almost all occasions. However, it is also true that sometimes it is not necessary to use them when people involved in the face-to-face communication know each other well. Yet, people still use them even in those situations. Why? First, they are used to attract people's attention, to remind the hearer one's professional status or the relationship between the speaker and the hearer. Second, they are used to show politeness and the difference in social class and the degree of respect in certain occasions. Third, they are used to reflect social information about identity, gender, age, status and the complex social relationships of interlocutors in a speech community.

As there are so many terms of address, they can be classified into different categories according to different criteria. In *A Dictionary of Epithets and Terms of Address*, Dunkling divides it into two types, nominal vocatives and verbal vocatives (Dunkling, 1990). While Braun classifies it into pronouns of address, verb forms of address, nouns of address and bound forms of address and free forms of address (Braun 1988).

Different from those, in this paper the author classifies it into two categories: kinship terms and social terms of address. Kinship terms are terms for blood relations and for affine (Braun, 1988), indicating the relationship between one person and his relatives. This kind of terms is mainly used between family members. Social terms of address refer to all addressing terms expect kinship terms, used in social communications reflecting the social relations, status and level of respect between the speaker and the addressee in the communication. In *A Preliminary Study of the Translation* *of Chinese Appellations into English*, social terms of address are divided into six categories: person terms of address, title terms of address, general terms of address, and profession terms of address, kinship terms referring to non-relatives and context terms of address.

III. Difference between English and Chinese Terms of Address

Terms of address may differ according to the formality of the situation, the social relationship between the speaker and the addressee, the politeness or deference that the speaker wants to extend to the addressee (Taavitsainen and Jucker, 2003). It may differ because of the difference in history, social structure and culture. In this part, the reasons why Chinese and English kinship terms and social terms of address differ will be analyzed respectively.

A. Difference in Kinship Terms

During the development of human history, differences in political system and ideology have caused the distinct in culture and traditional ethics. As a result, the kinship terms in Chinese and English differ mainly due to the distinct of social ethics, blood relationship and traditional customs.

Social ethics have a significant impact on the formation of kinship terms. As we all know that China has several thousand years of feudal history, the whole nation was supported by hundreds of thousands of families. The ‘family’ in China has traditionally been the centre of all activity and is the focus of Chinese life (Methven, 2006). Generation and age are regarded as important elements when addressing others in the same family.

On the one hand, generation has long taken root in Chinese’s traditional ideas. There has been nine generations in a family since ancient China, namely, *gao zu, zeng zu, zu , fu, ben ren, zi, sun, zeng sun, xuan sun*. However, in western countries, the nuclear family is the core of the whole society with at most three generations living in a family. Therefore, kinship terms in English are much simpler since generation is not taken seriously. There are only three expressions in terms of generations, that is, grandfather, father, son and grandson. If one wants to express *gaozu, zengzu, zengsun, xuansun*, “great” or “great great” should be added to the terms, such as great great grandfather, great grandfather, great grandson and great great grandson.

On the other hand, age is considered as another significant factor in determining the choice of address terms in Chinese. “Zhang you you xu” is highly valued in Chinese culture, so the senior has priority over the junior. Whereas, westerners believe that everyone is born equal, so they pay little attention to the difference in age. Numbers are commonly seen in Chinese address terms to show the order. For example, ‘*da ge’,‘er di’,san yi’,‘si gu’* are used to show the difference in generation and age (Bao Huinan, 2001). However, there is no such kind of usage in English. “Brother” can refer to both one’s younger and older brother, while “sister” can refer to one’s younger and older sister. Westerners pay little attention to age; they usually address each other by the name. It is the same even between the younger generation and the elder generation.

Blood relationship also affects the shaping of kinship terms which makes the kinship terms in Chinese rather complex than those in English. Influenced by the feudal ethics, Chinese established a strict clan system based on blood relationship. In one clan, there may be tens of, hundreds of or even thousands of members living together with quite complex relations. In Chinese, there are two kinds of relatives. One is blood relatives which indicate relatives with blood relations. The other is adfinis which refers to relatives formed by marriage (Bao Huinan, 2001). Therefore, terms addressing relatives on the father’s side are different from those used to address relatives on the mother’s side. For instance, “*shu shu*”and “*gu gu*” are paternal relatives while “*jiu jiu* ”and“*yi*”are maternal relatives. However, in western countries, individualism is paid much emphasis on. Only children under age live with their parents in a nuclear family, while the grown-up children will leave home and rely on their own efforts. This makes the family members in a small number. Therefore, family address terms in English are very simple, based around the nuclear family where there is less need to distinguish between distant relations (Methvon, 2006). For example, “Uncle” is used to refer to both the younger or older brother of the paternal side and the younger or older brother of the maternal side.

The distinct in traditional customs is another factor that impact kinship terms. Males and females have been seen to be different since ancient China, namely, “*nan nv you bie*”, which means that address terms referring to males and females are absolutely different. The typical instance is the meaning of “cousin” which can express eight address terms in Chinese, namely, “*biao ge, biao di, biao jie, biao mei ,tang ge, tang di, tang jie, tang mei*”. In English, children of the parents’ brothers and sisters can be addressed by “cousin”, no matter which gender they belong to and no matter how old they are. While in Chinese “*tang ge, tang di, biao ge, biao di*” can only refer to males, while “*tang jie, tang mei, biao jie, biao me*” only refer to females.

B. Difference in Social Terms of Address

In social communication, it is inevitable to use social terms of address to show politeness or respect. Therefore, it is very important to understand different meanings that social terms of address have, especially in inter-cultural communication. Social terms of address are greatly affected by social class and traditional ethical concept which are essential parts in deciding which term to use.

Chinese people appear to have a very strong sense of position in the hierarchical social structure and try to keep interpersonal harmony by obeying the prescribed order in their everyday social interaction (Xianghong, 2006).

Therefore, people used to employ honorific expressions to refer to those who have a higher status and modest expressions to themselves. For instance, *"dian xia, fu ren, da ren"* etc are used to address those having a high rank, while "*xia guan, xiao ren, nu* bi" etc are terms for those with low ranks.

In ancient Chinese culture, politeness was considered to be an inner quality that was expressed outwardly through the use of honorific language, whereby the speaker would use self-deprecating terms to refer to him/herself and related people (or place), and use respectful terms to refer to others (Yanping 2004 qtd Methven, 2006).

For example, *"ling", "xian*" and "lao" are often added to addresses to show respect, such as "*lao tai tai", "ling lang", "xian di*", etc. Meanwhile, "*bi ren", "wan sheng", "xue sheng*" are used to refer to oneself. In western countries, people always emphasize on democracy and equality, so names are often used directly to address each other, even though they are not in the same generation.

There is another situation unique to China that kinship terms are used to refer to those who are not their relatives. China is a country that regards courtesy as the foundation stone of its traditional ethics, and in the Chinese mentality, society as a whole is seen as an extension of the family, and there is no clear distinct between family and country (Methvon, 2006). People usually use "*da ye, da niang*", "*shu shu*", "*a yi*" to address strangers just out of courtesy and shorten the distance between them while communicating. Under the influence of individualism, westerners think highly of personal ability and achievement more than relationship. They seldom use kinship terms to refer to non-family members because it may be considered quite rude. For example, addressing an older women "grandma" might cause offense, since in western cultures, "old" means aged and useless. On the contrary, they usually use general social terms of address to refer to those non-family members.

IV. Translation Methods

As one can see from the above, due to the difference between Chinese and English cultures, terms of address in Chinese and English are quite different. The address system in Chinese is sophisticated with various terms while the address system in English is comparatively simple. This difference inevitably brings difficulty to translation. In order to respect traditional expressions in one culture and make readers clearly understand the difference between Chinese and English addressing terms, translators should master certain translation skills.

A. Literal Translation

When doing literal translation, translators do their best to remain as many as possible the ideas, sentences structures and writing style of the source language. It is the simplest way in translation, but only a few terms of address can be translated by this method.

In English kinship terms, father, mother, son and daughter are the only terms that can be translated literally into "*fu qin, mu qin, er zi, nv er*", and vice versa.

Due to the fact that Chinese social terms of address far outnumber those in English, there are a few expressions of general terms and certain terms indicating one's profession and title that can be translated literally. The equivalence of "*xian sheng, fu ren, xiao jie*" which are frequently used in Chinese can be found in English as "Sir.", "Mrs." and "Miss".

There are only several terms that can indicate one's profession in English, such as "President, judge, doctor, officer", etc. Terms reflecting one's title are Dr, Prof, President, General, Captain, Pop, etc. For example,

Doctor White	Professor Smith
President Clinton	Captain Jack
General John	Pop William

B. Translating Flexibly

Terms of address in Chinese are complex and numerous in numbers, while address terms in English are comparatively simple and in a small number. One term indicates a certain people in Chinese while one word may refer to several people in English. This makes it easy to translate Chinese address terms into English. Also, due to this, context should be considered while translating English address terms into Chinese. That is, one must, according to the context, convert the terms of address of the source language to the corresponding or similar terms of address of the target language in order to adjust to the traditional expression of the target language. For example:

'Not aunt,' cried Oliver, throwing his arms about her neck; 'I'll never call her aunt—sister, my own dear sister, that something taught my heart to love so dearly from the first! Rose, dear, darling Rose!'

" nib u shi *xiao yi*", Olive shuang bi lou zhu le ta de bo zi jiao dao, "wo zen me ye bu jiao ni yi--ni shi wo *jie jie,* wo zui qin ai de qin *jie jie,*wo cong yi kai shi jiu na me de ai ni, na me de xi huan ni! Rose, qin ai de, qin ai de Rose!"

When translating English kinship terms, one should consider the context. In the above example, one has to think of the whole relation since aunt has more than one meaning, such as "*gu gu yi ma, jiu mu, bo mu*" etc. Conversely, it is much easier to translate Chinese kinship terms into English since all sisters and spouses of one's parents' brothers are called aunt.

Since kinship terms can be used to refer to those who are not one's relatives in Chinese, to address people, one can use kinship terms directly, such as: *ye ye, shu shu, a yi*, etc. or use *xiang/da/lao*+kinship terms, such as *zhang shu, da* *niang, lao bo*, etc. However, in western countries, there is no such kind of usage, so it must be highly noted that this kind of addresses should be appropriately converted to traditional expressions in English.

nv tong dao: " *ye ye* de bing qi, bu zai zhe li." Niu wang dao: " na ni *nai nai* de bing qi lai ba!"

"Your Majesty's weapons aren't here," the serving girls replied. "Then bring your mistress' weapons," the Bull Demon King replied. (*Journey to the West* P1996)

The translation of honorific terms is also a difficulty. There are several ways to show the respect to the other person involved in the communication. First, using *lao/xiao/xing* to show intimacy and shorten the distance, which are mainly used by the senior to refer to the junior or among people in the same generation such as *lao wang, xiao li*. It is generally translated into Old/Little +Family name, such as Old Wang, Little Li. Then, using *xing+lao* to show respect, such as: *guo lao, xue lao*, etc. Last, using special terms, such as :*lao shi, fu ren, xian sheng*, etc. For instance:

"*xian sheng* he bi guo qian. Jiu qing *xian sheng* jin qu kan kan er fu, yang zhang gao ming, yi shi xia wai."

--"You are too modest, sir. May I trouble you to have a look at my daughter-in-law? I am relying on your superior knowledge to relieve our anxiety." (Yang Xianyi & Gladys Yang, 2003)

C. Specification or Generalization

Chinese often use vague address terms to refer to certain people. For example, women use "*wo men jia na wei*","*ni ge si gui*",etc to address their husbands. In that case, translators should point out the specific person it refers to. Moreover, the original work sometimes uses too many addresses indicating many different persons who are not closely related to the development of the main plot. Under these circumstances, there is no need to translate these addresses one by one. They can be generalized in order to make the translated version more concise and easily understood. For example,

"zhen ge shao you, bie ren bu guo shi li shang mian zi qing, shi zai ta shi zhen teng *xiao shu zi, xiao gu zi*. Jiu shi zai lao tai tai gen qian, ye zhen shi xiao shun."

-- "Other young married women do more than politeness requires, whereas she has genuine feeling for her husband's younger relatives and is truly dutiful to you as well, madam." (Yang Xianyi & Gladys Yang, 2003)

Here,"*xiao shu zi*","*xiao gu zi*" refer to Jia Lian's sisters and brothers on the father's side. Take consideration of the context, these two terms of address are used to compliment Xifeng on her kindness. Therefore, generalization should be used to make the plot much simpler.

D. Domestication and Alienation

Domestication and foreignization are two important strategies in the translation of Chinese terms of address into English. Domestication means an ethnocentric reduction of the foreign text to target-language cultural values (Venuti, 1995 qtd Munday, 2006). This entails translating in a transparent, fluent, 'invisible' style in order to minimize the foreignness of the TT. Foreignization refers to an ethnodeviant pressure on 'target-language cultural'values to register the linguistic and cultural difference of the foreign text, sending the reader abroad.

In other words, domestication is, in the process of translation, using as much as possible local ways to express the ideas of the foreign work. Foreignization, on the other hand, means remaining as much as possible the language and culture in foreign works. In short, domestication is reader-oriented while foreignization is author-oriented.

Terms of address indicating age differences are constantly used in Chinese, while address terms referring to one's name are frequently employed. Therefore, in translating Chinese address terms, one can use the method of forengnization to translate them into English name terms. In addition, foreignization can also be used to explicitly indicate certain person when the relations between people in Chinese are quite complicated.

Zhou rui jia de da ying le, yin shuo, "*si gu niang* bu zai fang li, zhi pa zai *lao tai tai* na bian ne."

-- As Mrs. Zhou handed over the flower she remarked, "The fourth young lady isn't here. Is she with the old lady, I wonder?" (Yang Xianyi & Gladys Yang, 2003)

In this sentence, "Z*hou rui jia*"refers to the wife of Zhourui, so specification is used to mean Mrs. Zhou. Meanwhile, there is no such expression as "*si gu niang*"in English. In order to make clear who it really indicates, it has to be translated in a more Chinese way. That is why foreignization is used to translate it into "the fourth young lady".

Furthermore, honorific terms of address and modest address terms are frequently used to show respect and modest during the communication. There are many modest address terms in Chinese which can inflect the difference in rank, identity, profession, gender, etc. Bao Huinan divided them into the following categories (Bao Huinan, 2001):

1) Modest terms indicating ranks: "*zhen, gu, gua*"are for monarch; "*wei chen, xiao li, xia guan*"are for officials; "*xiao min, cao min, min fu*"are for the common people; etc.

2) Modest terms indicating identity: "*nu cai, xia ren, xiao de*"are for servants; "*wan sheng, xiao di, di zi, yu sheng*"are for students, etc.

3) Modest terms indicating gender: "*qie, jian qie, nu jia, jian qi, jian nei*"are for women, etc.

4) Modest terms indicating profession: "*pin dao, xiao dao, pin seng*"are for monks, etc.

Except these, modest address terms are also used to address one's family members and relatives. For example, "*jia fu, jia xiong, nei ren, quan zi*", etc. refer to respectively one's father, elder brother, wife and son.

In English, "I" and "we" are used to refer to oneself. Only in very rare occasions are the terms "one" or "yours truly" employed. Hence, domestication should be used while doing Chinese-English translation. Yet, the time of the work, the identity of the character and the feature of the literary form should be taken into consideration when translating English modest address terms into Chinese. For example:

Xiang ba, you dao, " xian shi ji bu ken shuo po qian yin, *di zi* yu xin he ren?"

--"How can I bear it, saintly teacher," he said, "if you draw a veil over your past?" (Yang Xianyi & Gladys Yang, 2003, P3103)

Using honorific terms of address is a tradition in China during contact. As for the elders who have official titles, "*lao, shi*"should be added to the address term, such as "*lao xian sheng*"、"*lao tai tai*"、"*shi weng*", etc. As for one's teacher and his wife, "*xian shi, en shi, shi mu, shi niang*", etc. are used. As for other's children, "*ling*" has to be employed, such as "*ling yuan, ling lang, ling qian jin*", etc. "*shi xiong, shi xiong, xian di, xian mei*" are also commonly used to refer to non-relatives.

Only "you, he, she and they" are used to address others in English address terms. For the royalty, the nobility and officials with higher ranks, "Your/ His/ Her Highness/ Honor/ Lordship/ Ladyship/ Majesty" or "My Lord" is the common terms of address. In most occasions, when translating honorific terms of address, it is unlikely the translator will find a semantic equivalent where the cultural content of a term can be entirely rendered into the target text (Methvon, 2006). Therefore, the best way is using domestication to make the address acceptable in the target language. For instance:

–Do not, my lord.

–Why, what should be the fear? I do not set my life at a pin's fee. (Shakespear, 1991)

–Bu yao qu, *dian xia*.

–Hai, pa shen me ne? wo ba wo de sheng ming kan de yi qian bu zhi

V. Conclusion

This paper mainly shows the difference between Chinese and English terms of address and the reasons why these differences exist. Due to the difference between Chinese and western cultures, people have different traditional ethics and customs. Under the influence of thousands of years' feudal system and traditional ethics, China has become a nation based on large clans which are established on the basis of blood relationship. In the complicated clan system, generation, age and gender are regarded essential factor determining the choice of address terms. However, western countries have a relatively short history during which democratic countries were founded advocating democracy, equality and individualism. People lay less on generation, age and blood relationship which contribute to the simplicity of English kinship terms.

In the society, people use different social terms to address others. The formation of these address terms are influenced by social class, traditional ethics and politeness. Due to this, Chinese social terms of address far outnumber and are much more complex than those in English.

Then, in order to make the translated version more precise and make readers understand easily, four translation methods are given according to different situations, namely, literal translation, translating flexibly, specification or generalization and domestication and foreignization.

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Address Forms of English: Rules and Variations

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***Abstract*—Address forms are a social phenomenon. In English, there are general rules of their usage, but because of a series of social factors, they vary in different situations. In this article, we l roughly discuss the rules of address forms, and list some factors that may affect the address forms. To address others appropriately needs the good mastery of the knowledge of the two sides.**

***Index Terms*—address forms, rules, variations, social factor**

I. Introduction

One of the earliest sociolinguistic studies of speech behavior among speakers of English concerns the way people in the English speaking countries address one another. Forms of address are important for effective and successful communication and have long been considered a very salient indicator of status of relationships. One can use different forms of address to show his respects or fondness towards other people, or to insult or depreciate them. How to address people appropriately needs the taking of several factors into consideration, such as the social status or rank of the other, sex, age, family relationship, occupational hierarchy, transactional status, race or degree of intimacy. There do exist general rules of address forms in English, but because address forms are a social phenomenon, it varies on different occasions and the rules do not always take effect, just as Philipsen and Huspek said: “Personal address is a sociolinguistic subject par excellence. In every language and society, every time one person speaks to another, there is created a host of options centering around whether and how persons will be addressed, named, … to those who interpret them, are systematic, not random. Such systematicity in language behavior, whether of use or interpretation, is universal, although what elements comprise the personal address system and what rules govern its deployment, vary across contexts. And such variation in structure is, according to the extant empirical literature, correlated with social ends and social contexts of language use. From this view, personal address is a systematic, variable, and social phenomenon, and these feature of if make it a sociolinguistic variable, and social phenomenon, and these features of it make it a sociolinguistic variable of fundamental importance.” (Philipsen and Huspek 1985:94)

II. General Rules of Forms of Address

Despite of its occasional inefficiency, we will first look at the general rules of address forms. An English or American person can be addressed by his name, his title his name plus his name, or by nothing at all, that is, no-naming form or Φ.

1 Name	Examples
(1) full name	“A rise! *Horatio Fliyd Beanish*, do you know we are at war?
(2) first name	“ They are on your desk, *Robert*”
(3) nickname	“ Jonny, there’s something I have to tell you.”
2 Title	Examples
(1) title concerning family relationship	“ All right now, children! Outside for your walk, *father*’s orders.
(2) title of occupation	“ *Operator*, could you please put through a call to Copenhagen?”
(3) title of rank	“ You are right , *captain*.”
(4) honorifics	“ *Your Royal Highness*, twenty-four hours. They can’t be blank.
(5) other titles	“*Oh, darling.” / “You dogs!*” / “What do you want, *fellow*?”
3 Title plus name	*Doctor Smith*
4 No-naming or Φ.	“ Good morning”

These address forms can be found in daily communication, both in oral and written forms. In addition to causing other people’s attention, address forms have other important social functions, such as to show respect, to show intimacy, to honor or to humiliate other people. In the following part, we will mainly discuss the application of address forms in some specific social environments.

III. Variations of Address Forms

A. Region Difference

There are differences even in the way different regions in the United States use different forms of address. For example, the use of a person's first manes in North America does not necessarily indicate friendship or power. First names are required among people who work closely together, even though they may not like each other at all. First names may even be used to refer to public figures, but contemptuously as well as admiring.

The various use of address forms sometimes merely serve as a marker of regional difference, but sometimes it is enough to cause miscommunication. Wolfson and Manes (1978) reported that the address form *ma'am* has different meanings in the southern part of the United States than it has elsewhere. In the South, the term *ma'am* is often used a substitution for the formula "I beg your pardon?" or "pardon?" in asking someone to repeat what he has said or to explain something. The contrast in the use of the two forms is exemplified in the following conversation.

(1) A: Could you tell me how late you're open this evening?

B: Ma'am?

A: Could you tell me how late you're open this evening?

B: Until six.

In addition, it was found that the phase "Yes, Ma'am" is often used instead of "You're welcome" as a response to "Thank you". For example:

(2) A: Could you tell me how late you're open this evening?

B: Until five-thirty.

A: Thank you very much.

B: Yes, ma'am. (Wolfson 1989:80)

Not only is the form "ma'am" gives different meanings in the South, it is also used in very different social contexts than elsewhere in the country. In the northeast, for example, "ma'am " was found to occur between strangers and, to a lesser extent, from lower to upper status speakers. In the South, however, it was found that the term was used not only to strangers but also to acquaintance and even intimates. Thus, graduate students at the University of Virginia were heard to be addressed as "ma'am" by their male professors, female colleagues were given this address form by their male colleagues, and husbands were even heard to use this term to their own wives. While it is unlikely that women from other parts of the country would become offended if they were addressed as "ma'am" in situations where they were unaccustomed to it, it is possible that southern women would misunderstand the absence of this form where they were used to expecting it, and would therefore regard non-southern speakers as rude or lacking in respect for women.

B. Sex Variation

We all know that address forms of English is asymmetrical, that is, we can use "Mr." to address all the male, but we use different terms to address the female who are unmarried (Miss) and who are married (Mrs.). Another noteworthy phenomenon concerning address forms among speakers of American English is the way in which strangers in public situations address unknown women by terms of endearment. Women in America are often addressed with a good deal less respect than are men. Those women are mostly women in service encounters. The commonly used terms of endearment are *dear, love, honey, sweetheart*, but some others are unusual, such as *cake, peach, tomato, dish, cheese*, etc. For example:

(3) (From *The love song of J. Alfred Prufrock* by Eliot)

Shall I part my chair behind?

Do I dare to eat a *peach*?

The fact that women are addressed publicly by nonreciprocal terms of endearment, no matter what their age or status, may be seen as a sign that female are generally held in less respect than are males in American society.

There are some other differences between address forms of male and female. R. B. Rubin, in a study of address forms for male and female professors, found that female professor, especially those in the 26 to 33 age group, were addressed by first name much more often than their male colleagues. Rubin also points out that female students use familiar terms more often than male students. Another study by McConnell-Ginet (1978) found that women in general American society had at their disposal a much smaller number of address forms than did men. That is, while men seem to be free to address other men, especially those whose occupation involve driving taxis or bartering, by use of such terms as Buddy or Mac, social rules for women preclude such usage. Women are addressed by terms of endearment, or nothing at all.

C. Race Variation

In the United States, the white have often used naming and addressing practice to put blacks in their place. Hence the odious use of "Boy" to address the blacks is well-known, as is shown in the following example:

(4) A black physician, Dr. Poussaint, was stopped by a white policeman in a southern town in the United States and was questioned:

"What's your name, boy?"

"Doc. Poussaint, I'm a physician."

"What's your name, boy?"
"Alvin"
In this conversation, the policeman insulted Doc. Poussaint three times. For two times he used the racial discriminating address form "boy", another was that he was not satisfied with the physician's answer "Doc. Poussaint" and continued to ask the "name" of the physician. By being addressed "boy", Doc. Poussaint experienced a feeling of "profound humiliation".

The asymmetrical use of names was also a part of the system. White people addressed the blacks by their first names in situations that required them to use title, or title and last names, if they were addressing whites. There was a clear racial distinction in the practice. According to Johnson, one consequence of this practice was that:

Middle and upper class Negro women never permit their first names to be known… The wife of a well-to-do Negro businessman went into a department store in Atlanta to enquire about an account. The clerk asked her first name, and she said "Mrs. William Jones". The clerk insisted in her first name, and when she refused to give it, declared that the business could not be completed without it. It was a large account, and the manager, to whom appeal was made, decided that "Mrs." was simply "good business" and not "social equality" (Johnson 1982).

In this case, "good business" overrode the desire to reinforce the social inequality that would have resulted from the woman's giving the salesclerk the information requested and then the inevitable use of that first name alone by the clerk requested and not "social equality". The special or asymmetrical use of address forms indicates racial discrimination in America.

IV. Conclusion

Address forms are a key to the understanding of social concepts and human relationship in a society. Different degrees of status difference or intimacy need the choosing of different forms of address. The connotations of English address forms are all different and each gets different stylistic or emotional implications, and rules for their usage are quite complex, and they vary from class to class, age group to age group, place to place. In addition, they are also affected by a series of social factors. How to address people appropriately needs not only a good understanding of the rules, but also the taking of all relevant factors into consideration.

Address form can also be a marker of regional difference, sex or racial discrimination, social class difference, etc. It is an important aspect of social behavior. In English teaching, the teacher should be aware of the importance of the choosing of proper address forms. The misuse of a title can sometimes put other people in an awkward situation, even offend them if we keep ignoring its important function. A thorough study and good mastery of address forms is necessary for intercultural communication.

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The Analysis of Transition in Woman Social Status—Comparing *Cinderella* with *Ugly Betty*

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***Abstract*—Cinderella, a perfect fairly tale girl has been widely known to the world. Its popularity reveals the universal Cinderella Complex hidden behind the woman status. My thesis focuses its attention on the transition in woman status. First, it looks into the Cinderella paradigm as well as its complex in reality. Second, it finds the transcendence in modern Cinderella. The last part pursues the development of women status' improvement. In current study, seldom people make comparisons between *Cinderella* and *Ugly Betty*. With its comparison and the exploration of feminism, it can be reached that woman status have been greatly improved under the influence of different factors like economic and political. And as a modern woman lives in the new century, she has to be independent in economy and optimistic in spirit.**

***Index Terms*—Cinderella Complex, *Ugly Betty*, feminist movement, feminine consciousness, women status**

I. Introduction

Cinderella, a beautiful fairy tale widely known around the world, has become a basic literary archetype in the world literature. Its popularity reveals the universal Cinderella Complex hidden behind the human's consciousness. With the development of feminine, women came to realize their inner power and the meaning of life. Over centuries, many scholars and feminists have made researches from different aspects that influence women status, like social, economic and political factors. People regard Betty and Cinderella as two totally different characters because of their different backgrounds. From their comparisons we can see how important the influences that social and economic factors exert in women' life, thus contributing to the improvement of women status. An analysis of such phenomenon will help us understand the process and enhancement in women status.

II. The Formation and Reasons of Cinderella Complex

Classic heroine, Cinderella is portrayed as a helpless, passive victim who needs protection. Indeed, Cinderella is the quintessential "perfect girl", always gentle, kind, and lovely (Shaw and Lee, 2001). Her weaknesses are contrasted with the awesome and awful power of the evil, mature women with whom she struggle. And she finally falls in love with the prince at the first sight and then easily marries and lives happily ever after; love relationships for the later heroines come at a cost.

A. Cinderella Paradigm

Nowadays, nearly every girl has been quite familiar with Cinderella since they were born. It is a well-known classic folk tale embodying a myth-element of unjust oppression finally obtains reward. Cinderella is a young woman living in unfortunate circumstances that suddenly changes to remarkable fortune. The word "Cinderella" has, by analogy, comes to mean one whose attributes are unrecognized, or one who unexpectedly achieves recognition or success after a period of obscurity and neglect (Kirk and Okazawa-Rey, 2001). This fairy still influences the world, having an irresistible charm to the audiences.

Cinderella Complex was first introduced by Colette Dowling, who wrote a book on women's fear of independence, as an unconscious desire to be taken care of by others, based primarily on a fear of being independent. It is based on the idea of the female that as the story describes, a girl who is beautiful, graceful and polite but can't be strongly independent, and who must be rescued by an outside force, usually a man, like the prince. Any strong female characters that do have power are seen as wicked and evil, like the stepmother, who is manipulative and deceitful throughout the story.

B. Cinderella Complex in Reality

Throughout all Cinderella versions, no matter how it is changed in small details the story still sticks to the same plots and meanings. There is an evil stepmother and stepsisters who are envy and jealous of the beautiful girl in rags and a magic, whether it be the animal helpers or a spirit that give aids to Cinderella to make her wish of attending the ball come true. No matter which version people are reading, most people will go into their own fantasy and dream along which caused the "Cinderella Complex" to become real. But today with reality we don't believe this tale can really happen. Although many people are in confusion, thinking that their outer beauty will get them a solution to realistic problems even in modern times.

C. The Formation of Cinderella Complex

From ancient times, women's relative lack of power and their low status in the society may lead to the feelings of helplessness. This sense of helplessness puts women at greater risk for depression which contributes to the formation of "Cinderella Complex". It is the largely repressed attitudes and fears that keep women from taking full advantage of their minds and creativity, forcing them to wait for something or someone to change their lives. Most modern adaptations, including original versions, place pessimistic gender expectations on women. The most common version of *Cinderella* provides an example of how the heroine must be delivered by a man of princely matter and helped by outward forces to achieve recognition and gain respect. Its story centers on the assumption that an ideal woman should be "beautiful, polite, graceful, industrious, obedient, and passive" (Shaw and Lee, 2001, p.257). Cinderella's experience provides a perfect example, producing and nurturing a psychological dependence in women. And in modern society, these feelings may be exasperated by discrimination in the workplace resulting in underemployment or unemployment. Low socioeconomic status is a risk element for major depression.

Another contributory element is society's great emphasis on youth, beauty, and slimness in women. Providing cultural and socio-historical information, fairy tales have stamped stereotypical virtues of the ideal woman upon the minds of people throughout different societies. Cinderella does not carry a grudge against her stepsisters and stepmother; she is civil and kindhearted. Hence a woman is told that the solution to overcome such oppression is to be patient and virtuous and waiting for the day when the reward to such endurance arrives in the form of a man. Thus, people are daily and hourly exercising an invisible influence on young women that they should be dependent. The qualities of feminine beauty and virtues are always interrelated to each other. For a woman to be virtuous, she must be beautiful, obedient, patient, sacrificial, and sexually innocent. When a woman lacks any of these feminine virtues, she should feel guilty.

Consequently, many women take it as a source of freedom from perceived hardship. Instead of becoming independent, women turn to men for protection, regard men as a source to prove their identity and seek for their love. Therefore, it is understandable that girls who grow up reading these fairytales become women who would spend their time passively waiting for their prince, who will take them away from predicament. At the same time, they groom themselves to reach their prince's expectations. It is unquestionable that the prince prefers selecting a princess with beauty and virtue. Attractive appearance of a girl always plays a quite important role in a prince's selecting a wife. With no exception, the prince looks for feminine virtues in his wife. Women, as a result, place much emphasis on beauty as an essential factor in pleasing a man. Cinderella Complex intensifies the interactions between men and women's expectations in society. Attained from implications of vast *Cinderella* variations, Cinderella Complex condemns women who can not depend on themselves to give full play to their potential when no man exists in their life.

III. IRONY AND TRANSCENDENCE IN MODERN CINDERELLA

With the rapid development of society, more and more new versions of *Cinderella* have emerged. *Ugly Betty* is one of the best illustrations. However, Betty reverses the traditional Cinderella image and shed new light into it.

A. Here She Comes—the Analysis of Ugly Betty

Ugly Betty is an American television comedy series, starring America Ferreira in the title role. Betty Suarez comes from Queens, New York; she is a kind-hearted girl, courageous but sorely devoid of fashion sense and aesthetic polish. Betty is suddenly thrust into a world which is totally different from her normal life when she is hired as a personal assistant at Mode, a huge trendy fashion magazine based in Manhattan. The president hires Betty to look after his son, newly-installed Mode editor-in-chief Daniel Meade or perhaps just to keep Daniel out of trouble from womanizing. Actually, Betty was hired just because she is not as aesthetically pleasing like all of Daniel's other assistants who continually get him into trouble. As time goes by, Betty and Daniel get to learn and trust each other, and ultimately they become friends and allies in a world sometimes beautiful and sometimes maddeningly chaotic.

Just like immigration demagogues, Betty's co-workers resent her in the same way. They all regard her as an interloper. However she finally succeeds, and even wins over some of her Mode enemies—they have to admire her tireless work ethic and a different perspective to revitalize a tired institution. Unlike Cinderella, Betty with her unique spirit helps women to be seen in a new revolutionary way. Different characters, different stages. People may have totally opposite reactions when they have a first sight at Cinderella and Betty. However, they represent two typical women characters in their own time. Here are the comparisons in appearance and spirit.

B. Cinderella versus Betty

1. External Factors

Cinderella is a quintessentially perfect girl in people's minds, always gentle, kind, and lovely. She is portrayed as a helpless and passive victim who needs protection.

Betty, however, sports thick-framed eyeglasses and a large and prominent set of dental braces. Her lack of luster physical appearance and awkward nature result in her immediately being singled out in the single-minded world of New York City fashion, and she is quickly saddled with the show's eponymous nickname.

2. Spirit

Cinderella is described as gentle, kind, beautiful and virginal in an oppressive social milieu. Her gentleness and goodness are defined by her lack of resistance to the abuse of her stepmother. She never disobeys an order, never defends her rights, and never challenges their authority. She rarely eats, seldom sleeps, and receives not even the simplest courtesies, except from her animal friends. Her father's fortune is squandered for the benefit of her stepsisters. She is powerless to control her own fate in her own home. Unable to control her own time, she is also unable to control her own destiny. Cinderella does not act; she only reacts to those around her, a sure sign of both external and internationalized oppression. In the face of all the abuse, she somehow remains gentle, kind and beautiful—the perfect girl.

Cinderella also has her own dream. The conventional Disney tale introduces her in the film's beginning through a song in which she expresses her dream. For example, viewers first meet Cinderella when she awakens from a dream and sings: "No matter how your heart is grieving, if you keep on believing, the dream that you wish will come true." Minutes later, viewers discover that her daily life is nothing but dreamy. Supported by an army of mice and barnyard animals who come to help her, Cinderella is continuously reminded by those in the household that she is unworthy of their refined company. Cinderella's stepmother and stepsisters control Cinderella, keeping her locked away from both society and opportunity. Cinderella is portrayed as powerless to act on her own behalf. Hence, she can only dream.

On ABC's popular TV play *Ugly Betty*, people can not square her appearance with her job—a fashion-magazine assistant. However, she finally succeeds through perseverance, optimism and hard work. Smart and kind-hearted, she proves those old sayings that people should value inner good over outer appearance.

Actually, in some sense, people may regard Betty as inferior to Cinderella. Because her appearance is not attractive at all, chunky sweaters, frizzy hair, bear-trap braces, which make many people look down on her at the first sight. However, crying for her sad fate all day is not Betty's style. All she knows is to fight back and to prove her ability. Ugly Betty's overarching story is metaphorically about the same battle. When stuck into a dilemma, she chooses to strike back. She is a young woman in possession of a strong, well-developed sense of herself. As long as she sets a goal, she will try all her best to accomplish it, no matter how hard it will be.

Betty has to encounter many difficulties, like her appearances, her competitors in the company, all that she has to do directly with her ethnicity and even her family—Betty's father is an illegal immigrant from Mexico. But she never gives up in such a mess; Betty has her own dream and her own principles. Though she encounters setbacks, she insists on pursuing her dream, because she knows she is the real master of her own fate.

IV. From Cinderella to Ugly Betty--The Transformation of Woman Status

According to the edition, *Cinderella* is the original model of *Ugly Betty*. Ironically, Betty is almost the opposite version. However, Betty's success, both in love and career may never be achieved by Cinderella in her era, which poses a series of questions to people, like how could Betty make success without attractive appearance? Indeed, Betty is inferior to Cinderella because of her appearance, however, there is one point that should not be neglected, that is, Betty is a woman living in the new century. Therefore, women nowadays start a new life with a brand new status reflected not only in economy, politics but also in spirit.

A. Housewives versus Career Women *— the Improvement of Women's Economic Status*

In *Concerning Women*, a feminist primer of 1926, Suzanne Lafollette argued that sexual equality could be based only on economic independence. According to the dictionaries, the English word "economy" comes from two Greek words: "oikos", meaning "house", and "nemo", meaning "to manage". Thus, economy can be understood as managing the affairs of the household, and beyond the household, of a wider society. Therefore, whether having career and aspiration might be a strong explanation for the difference between Cinderella and Betty. The two characters both living in unfortunate circumstances, Cinderella lost her dear mother and maltreated by her stepmother and stepsisters. Betty just graduates from university and can not find a suitable job to support her poor immigrant family. However, things turn out to be different when Betty gets a chance to work in Mode Magazine. With her efforts and longing for success, Betty finally got what she wanted. On the contrary, Cinderella is not an independent woman from economic aspects. Before marriage, she has to rely on her family and could not make a living if she is forced out of home. Therefore, she chooses to tolerate her stepmother's ill-treating. Anyway, sitting in ciders is better than hunger to death. Even after she is rescued by her prince, she also has to rely on her husband. It turns out this happy marriage may be hard to survive without the support of money. However, we can not blame Cinderella for her dependence. After all, it has gone through a long way from housewives to professional ladies.

In the pre-industrial society, European women usually arrived in the new world with their families, as daughters and wives, under the auspices of fathers or husbands. The family was the primary economic unit, and family members were dependent on one another for basic sustenance. Men performed the agricultural work, while women's work was done chiefly at home. Single women remained within the domestic sphere, living with relatives, often as "assistant homemakers." Just like Cinderella, she has to stay at home and asked to complete all the housework. For married women, the nature of their work depended on the economic circumstances of their husbands. And that's the base of Cinderella's happy marriage. Her husband is the prince of the nation and there is no need to work as before. At that time, in native America, as a general rule, men hunted and women engaged in agricultural work. The more important hunting to a community's survival is, the more extensive the male power within the community becomes; the greater the dependence on agriculture gets, the greater the power and independence of women becomes.

The transformation from an agrarian rural economy to an urban industrial society ushered in a new era in women's work. With the advent of industrialization, many of the products women made at home gradually came to be made instead in factories. The rise of factory production truly separated the home from the workplace. With the decline of the household unit as the center of industrial and economy activity, the importance of women's economic role also declined. World War I accelerated the entry of women into new fields of industry. The pressure of war production and the shortage of male industrial workers necessitated the hiring of women for what had been male-dominated occupations and enabled women higher wages than they had previously earned. World War II marked an important turning point in women's participation in the paid labor force. The social prohibition concerning married women working gave way under wartime pressure, and wartime women workers demonstrated that it was possible for women to maintain their households while also assuming the role of breadwinner with outside employment. More women than ever before learned to accommodate the simultaneous demands of family and work.

One of the most important occupational changes for women in the twentieth century has been the growth of clerical work. Women's clerk work grew from 320,000 in 1990 to over 2 million in 1930 and nearly 15 million in 1990(Kirk and Okazawa-Rey, 2001). Therefore, come many TV series like *Ugly Betty*, which reflects the daily work of a normal secretary. Besides that, managerial and professional jobs offer women the highest wages and status; hence economic security is fundamental to women's well-beings and the security of families and communities. On one hand, fewer women worked at the rock bottom of the vocational ladder, and more entered white-collar jobs. In addition, new vocations opened up in the business and professional worlds. The professional woman was a contradiction in terms, because professions had developed in order to exclude irregular practitioners, notably women. At the turn of the century, experts viewed women and professionalism as if at opposite poles. As psychologist G. Stanlet Hall explained in 1905, professionalism meant specialization, which was alien to the female brain (Renzatti and Curran, 1999). The man, said Hall, tends "by nature to expertise and specialization without which his individuality would be incomplete." In the late nineteenth century, the male bastions remained relatively secure, although women made gains in medicine. But women professionals surged into teaching, nursing, library work, and social work, and in relatively large numbers in academic life. These women's professions were either old vocations that already been feminized and were now uplifted to the status of professions, or new vocations shaped and staffed by educated women. Between 1870 and 1930, the proportion of women in professions was twice as high as that in the work force. In 1890, for instance, when women were only about 17 percent of the work force, 36 percent of professionals were women (Kirk and Okazawa-Rey, 2001). By the turn of the century, women's professions filled an important new space in the nation's occupational hierarchy. But professional work was not the only new space to be filled by women. During the late nineteenth century, middle- and upper-class women also edged into public life in new, large women's associations that defined their own territory.

Therefore, lacking of jobs, low wages, low educational attainment, having children, and divorce all work against women's economic security and keep many women in poverty, dependent on men, or both. Cinderella might be the best illustration: she has to tolerate all her stepmother's ill-treating because she has no income and can not make a living. Even when she finally marries to the prince, her happy life is based on the prince's great wealth and she has to rely on her husband all her life. From economic prospect, she is not an independent woman, without career and aspiration but an accessory of her husband. However, this phenomenon does not exist any more. New generations like Betty can better control her life because of high and independent economic status.

B. Awareness of Feminine Consciousness

From psychological aspect, consciousness is often defined as: "A sense of one's personal or collective identity, including the attitudes, beliefs, and sensitivities held by or considered characteristic of an individual or group." Therefore female consciousness is often used to describe the way women relating to themselves and what it means to be female, like gender roles. It's much controversy, especially in feminist studies. In gender studies or gender communication, in particular this aspect has a far-reaching impact on the way a woman interacts with others and the way in which she perceives herself as an individual.

1. Powerless Girl versus Independent Woman

In the story, Cinderella works like a servant after her father's death. She obeys whatever her evil stepmother orders. The chores run her ragged: washing, ironing, scrubbing, dusting, and cooking. In addition, her worth was based on her decorative value, a character, and her temperament. In all versions of the *Cinderella* story, the fancy dress plays a critical part. Her mother was born in the purple and the dress is an essential link to that noble status. When she is in the clothes that designate a well-born person, no one would doubt whether she is a true princess. And she finally comes to the ball, wearing the stunning evening dress prepared by her God mother. As always, Cinderella has her helpers. In stories, the most magical kind of help is from some kind of sage. All these plots illustrate that the concept of a woman was that of a fragile, idle, pure creature, submissive and subservient to her husband and to domestic needs (Shaw and Lee, 2001).

As for Betty, however, unlike Cinderella, attractive appearance never belongs to her. And as a little girl born in poverty, she has no strong backup. All her dependence is herself. The only things she can follow are the values like perseverance, optimism and hard work. However, she is such an optimistic girl that she never loses hopes, which also reflects modern women's inner world: strong and independent.

2. The Development of Feminism

Rome was not built in a day. From a powerless girl to a strong and independent woman, woman has gone through a hard time. Then how does all these happen? Feminist theories primarily seek to understand and explain women's experience. After feminist activities, women come to realize and discover their inner power and voice. Feminism is like a sharp sword that plunges into the masks covering the old common customs that women are inferior to men. And learning from its development, we can see the raising of women consciousness.

Feminist theory is the extension of feminism into theoretical or philosophical field. It encompasses work done in a broad variety of disciplines, prominently including the approaches to women's roles and lives and feminist politics in anthropology and sociology, psychoanalysis, economics, women's and gender studies, feminist literary criticism, and philosophy especially Continental philosophy. Feminist theory aims to understand the nature of inequality and focuses on gender politics, power relations and sexuality. While generally providing a critique of social relations, most of the feminist theories also focus on analyzing gender inequality and the promotion of women's rights, interests, and so on. Themes explored in feminism include art history and contemporary art, aesthetics, discrimination, stereotyping, objectification (especially sexual objectification), oppression, and patriarchy.

The suffrage movement (also known as the Women's Movement or Women's Liberation) is a series of campaigns on issues such as reproductive rights (sometimes including abortion), domestic violence, maternity leave, equal pay, sexual harassment, and sexual violence. The aims of the movement differ from country to country, like the opposition to female genital cutting in Sudan, or to the glass ceiling in Western countries.

The feminist movement had impacts in Western society, including women's suffrage, like the right to initiate divorce proceedings and the right of women to make individual decisions regarding pregnancy (including access to contraceptives and abortion); and the right to own property.

Unlike contemporary masculinity, which is exhibiting very small steps into the realms of the feminine, femininity has boldly moved into areas that were traditionally off-limits. Today's ideal woman is definitely more androgynous than the ideal woman of the past. The contemporary ideal woman might be someone who is smart, competent and domestically and emotionally healthy. Note how this image has integrated characteristics of masculinity with traditional feminine qualities, at the same time has retained much of the feminine social script. The contemporary ideal woman is strong, assertive, active, and independent. The assumption is that she is out in the public world rather than confined to the home. She has not completely shed her domestic, nurturing, and caring dimension, or her intuitive, emotional, and sensitive aspects. These attributes are important in her success as a loving and capable partner of a man, as indeed are her physical attributes concerning looks and size.

To be a modern woman today is to be able to do everything: the superwoman. It is important to ask who is benefiting from this new social script. Women work in the public world and yet still expect to do the domestic and emotional work of home and family as well as stay beautiful. In many ways contemporary femininity tends to serve both the capitalist economic system and individual men better than the traditional, dependent, domestic model.

In this TV series, Betty is a courageous, good-hearted, and slightly naive girl from Queens, New York who is sorely lacking in fashion sense. She is abruptly thrust into a different world when she lands a job at Mode, a trendy high fashion magazine. Life at Mode is difficult for Betty. She has to deal with many professional works in quite a short time. In addition, her coworkers continually mock and humiliate Betty for her lackluster physical appearance, awkward nature, and initial lack of taste in fashion. However, she insists on pursuing her dreams. When confronted with disappointment, unlike Cinderella, she chooses to face it straight and fight back. She enjoys the pleasure of meeting challenges and that is what Cinderella's life doesn't have.

C. Changing of Values

An interesting phenomenon in the era of Cinderella is that women regarded families as their whole career; hence, marriage turned out to be their primary concern. Many women hunted in their lives for marrying someone who is wealthy and handsome. As a result, Cinderella cheered women up from generation to generation: marry a good husband, and you will live happily ever after. However, Betty may not be that lucky if she lives in that era. Fortunately, the values have changed along with the time. Attractive appearance is not the only focus of women's life. 21st century women have realized deeply that female emancipation is to aim to searching for freedom, independency and happiness, nor to being inferior to male as "second sex" (Shaw and Lee, 2001). Therefore, many new women regard Betty as a model of success. Then what is real success? Marry a good husband or have one's own career?

Cinderella is a tale found in diverse cultures all around the globe. In English–speaking lands, there are few indeed who would not recognize this classic tale. Girls have all grown up with the wicked stepmother, the cheerless hearth and the slipper of glass, and these images have become an indelible part of childhood for them all. Many girls want to have good fortune to become such a lucky girl. Maybe they will be in dilemma for some time, but who cares? They do not need to do anything; a wealthy prince will rescue them in the end. And they could live happily ever after. What makes *Cinderella* so attractive? To an audience weaned on Disney films, it is a poor but beautiful girl growing up to marry a wealthy prince. Yet people will never know whether the knight on–the–white–charger exists who swoops into those girls' lives and relieves them of the need to determine their own fate, not of traditional folktales. What has the prostitute heroine of Cinderella done to win her prince or transform her life? Precisely nothing—except to be beautiful, and in the right place at the right time.

Then why do women regard a wealthy marriage as an equal to success? Several factors contributed to women's marriage during the past. Many of these results were the result of lack of choices. First of all, women were left uneducated in many areas and had no control over their education and were taught about domestic duties only. When they were young they were taught that a woman should get married and have children (Kirk and Okazawa-Rey, 2001). They were born, raised and educated to become wives and nothing else. They often spent their time with time consuming devices to hide the fact that they had a lot of free time on their hands. A woman was not expected to work unless she was in the lower class and had no choice, therefore often had plenty of time to look pretty. Women who were not in the work force were therefore seen as a superior class to those working class women.

As time goes by, the role of women in marriage has evolved. Most families nowadays no longer arrange a daughter's marriage. However, marriage and motherhood are often thought to be an essential part of a woman's life, the status to strive for. Even if she chooses to keep her own name or rarely uses the converted title Mrs. People may not refer to unmarried women as "old maids" or "on the shelf" as much as in the past, but there is often still a stigma attached to being single in many cultural groups. However, under the excitement and romance of the wedding and despite the fact that many partnerships are thriving, marriage as an institution is taking a buffeting, mainly because of changes in the economy and changing ideas of women's roles in society.

In the skin-deep world of high fashion, image is everything. Styles are capricious, and the only things remaining are the super slender-beauties who wear them. How can an ordinary girl, a slightly plump plain-Jane from Queens fit into such a circle? Actually, Betty Suarez is a sweet, intelligent and hard-working girl. But few people notice that, because in the world of high fashion, Betty is the oversized peg in the petite round hole. Though her boss is reluctant to accept her at first, Betty's indomitable spirit and bright ideas eventually win him over. Betty Suarez has always had one goal in life: to make it into the publishing business. Despite being smart, hard-working, and productive, her dream has always been shadowed by the fact that she isn't the best looking young woman. However, she is now determined to do whatever it takes to fulfill that ultimate dream. Nothing can stop Betty: "You're an attractive, intelligent and confident business woman!" Betty always reminds herself when she mired in difficulties. Audiences from four corners of the world are cheering for this modern warrior Betty, who has the spirit of persistence to make her dream come true. She may not be a fashion pioneer, but in the superficial world of high fashion, she's the fairest of them all. Designed to resemble fictional fashion bible Mode magazine, *Ugly Betty* is just like the book, offering insider interviews with the cast and creative team as well as a comprehensive episode guide, representing the new status and image of the 21^{st} century women. They are no longer bound to their husband and family. They have their own career and aspiration, pursuing life's true happiness courageously.

V. CONCLUSION

More and more people have come to know the phenomenon of Cinderella Complex. We can find the paradigm especially in many young girls. Its existence reveals the unfair treatment of women over the centuries. Because of the historical factors, women were kept away from outer circumstances. They can't work or pursue their dreams, thus not being the master but the slave of their fates. However, with the development of society, like the development of feminine, women began to defend their legal rights. Betty is a typical example and many women regard her as their model. More and more "Bettys" have entered the fields of economy, society and even politics because of their competent performances. In a word, only be independent, competent and have dreams to pursue can make modern women performance better in the 21^{st} century, and be their own fates' masters.

With the foundation of International Women's Day (March 8), it's time to reflect the progress of women and celebrate their acts of courage and determination. As women enter into the 21^{st} century, more and more challenges are waiting for them. However, many women are quite confident that they will have a better life than before.

Without doubt, women in 21^{st} century will become more and more independent and begin to gain initiative in marriage. Popular show *You are the One* (also named *Fei Cheng Wu Rao*) is a great example to show women adopting active attitudes in intimacy relationships. Although women view it ideal to have a husband as a life-partner, they won't regard marriage as the indispensable component; single life can also be a perfect life style. In western, more than 80 percent women think they can afford to raise children alone. They are healthier, happier and younger than women in the last century. Most of them are very young in spirit because of their positive attitudes towards life.

However, also from *Fei Cheng Wu Rao*, there are many controversial phenomena. If we regard Betty as the model of a successful woman, then many girls who standing on the stage could also be considered as a success from some aspects: attractive appearance, high educational background and some of them hold important posts in the workforce. They are independent from economic prospect, then why some girls insist on finding a man who is wealthy enough to have both a car and a house? The harsh reality is: many men were rejected not because of their characteristics but just because they can not afford a car or a house. Why does such phenomenon exist? Is this because women still not strong enough in their inner heart or just because high economic status and educational background give women critical eyes? And such phenomenon will be explored in my future studies.

Because of the limits of academic ability and material, there are some limitations in this thesis. Though it analyzes the development from social, economic and political aspects, it mainly uses case study to develop the main theme and the study is somewhat general. So it also needs to be further discussed from other aspects.

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Study on Addressing Terms and Relevant Culture in America and China

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***Abstract*—Langue is not only the key to understand the culture, but also the obvious characteristic to label the culture. One kind of language may contain its special words or terms to indicate some particular matters in its own culture. It is the special words that revealed the various kinds of customs and social commitment. In order to learn culture very well, everyone should focus on the analysis of language. Addressing Terms has significant social functions: the recognition of the social identity, the social position, the role of the addressee and of the interrelations between the addresser and the addressee. This study is based on American address terms and Chinese address terms. Through these features, we can bright the differences of the two cultures to light.**

***Index Terms*—language, culture, addressing terms**

I. Introduction

A language expresses cultural reality and embodies cultural identity. If one language has certain words to describe things or make distinctions, while another language lacks similar words, then speakers of the first language will find it easier to talk about those things and to perceive the differences in their environment.

In communications, addressing someone is a very important social intercourse. Addressing has significant social functions: the recognition of the social identity, the social position, the role of the addressee and of the interrelations between the addresser and the addressee. It can establish, maintain and reinforce all kinds of interpersonal relations. We can use title (T), first name (FN), last name (LN), nickname, combination of these, or nothing to address someone.

In general, address terms fall into four groups: kinship terms, social titles (genetic titles, official titles and occupational titles), names and demonstrative pronouns. In this paper, we mainly discuss kinship terms, genetic titles and official titles.

The choice of address terms is governed by a variety of social factors: the particular occasion, the social status or ranks, sex, age, family relationship, occupational hierarchy, race or transactional status. When family ties are extremely strong, kinship terms will play an important role in family and society. When racial or social rank is important in society, the address terms that show respect and hierarchy will be preferred; while in society which claims to be egalitarian, address terms may not be considered so important. Therefore, there is a close relation between address terms and culture.

This study is based on American address terms and Chinese address terms. Through these features, we can bright the differences of the two cultures to light.

II. Kinship Terms, Genetic Titles and Official Titles in America and China

The modern system of address terms in China developed on the basis of ancient or traditional system. It inherited the tradition of honorific titles and self-depreciatory titles, and discarded many address terms which designated class relations in feudal society. Compared with China, English-speaking countries have less complicated address terms. Address terms in English-speaking countries appeared first in Britain, and then spread to the United States, Canada, Australia and other former British colonies. With the development of history, these countries also added new contents and regional features to address terms. In this part, kinship terms, genetic titles and official titles in America and China will be introduced.

A. Kinship Terms

Samovar argues that we are born into a family, mature in a family, form new family and leave them at our death. Family life is a universal human experience. (Stefani, 2000). It is the family that tells us who we are and what groups we belong to.

Kinship terms describe how people refer to relatives by direct or indirect blood and marriage. In the system of address terms, kinship term is the most important one that has the closest relation with people, which generally fall into four groups: nuclear family kinship terms, extended family kinship terms, marital relations kinship terms, and law kinship terms. America and China belong to different systems of kinship terms.

American system of kinship terms belongs to Eskimo system which puts emphasis on the nuclear family. In this system, there are only clear distinctions between members in the nuclear family, while the distinction between members in the extended family is obscure. There is no distinction between the maternal grandparents and paternal grandparents.

The system of kinship terms in China belongs to Sultan system that gives more weight to males than females and has terms for both paternal and maternal sides; both the nuclear family and the extended family are emphasized. Since the kinship system in China is generation- and age- oriented one, there are hierarchical relationships between family members. These can be reflected in the kinship terms.

There are distinctive terms for relatives in paternal side and maternal side. Father's father is called yéye or zǔfù; father's mother is called nǎinai or zǔmǔ. Mother's father is called lǎoye or wàigōng; mother's mother is called lǎolǎo or wàipó. Mother's sister is called yímā and father's sister is called gūmā, while in America they both can be called aunt. In the paternal side, father's elder brother and younger brother have different terms. The former is called bófù, while the latter is called shūfù. But in the maternal side, there is no such distinction. This indicates the hierarchical relationship between family members, and also reflects the superior position of men in family life.

In Chinese kinship terms, there are terms designating the relationship between family members that are relatives by marriage, not by blood. For example, zhóuli is used to indicate wives of brothers; sǎozi designates elder brother's wife, while dìmèi designates younger brother's wife. But in America, there are no specific terms to designate this kind of relationship.

Kinship terms in China can be used with people who are obviously not kin by any of the criteria, which is another feature of Chinese kinship terms. The Chinese kinship terms which are equivalent to uncle, aunt, grandma or grandpa are used in many social intercourses. For example, children use shushu to address male friend of their friend. In social intercourse, no matter formal or informal, in non-relatives in English-speaking countries, children are taught to address stranger by Mister or Madam.

Social titles refer to address people according to their social positions, such as the occupation, academic rank, and the title of a technical or professional post. Social titles include genetic titles, official titles and occupational titles.

Social titles stemmed from social structure and personal relation. Some titles are different in pronunciation, but they are similar in the meaning. They are genetic titles. Genetic titles refer to address people in any social positions regardless of occupation or academic rank.

Sir and Madam is a set of respectful title. In fact, they stemmed from two sets of respectful titles used for feudal aristocrats: Sir and Lady; Monsieur and Madame.

Generally speaking, Sir and Madam cannot be used with the surname. Sir is used for the inferior to the superior, the descendant to the ancestor, the soldier to the commander, the student to the teacher, and the shop assistant to the male customer. Madam is the respectful title for women. In addition, in business letters, people use Sir or Madam to address unfamiliar men or women, such as Dear Sir or Dear Madam. Sir can be combined with the full name or the given name, but not the surname. When Sir is used with the full name or the given name, it loses its original meaning but indicates the rank of nobility, such as, Sir John White or Sir John. Madam is mainly used with the surname or official titles, such as Madam Smith, or Madam Ambassador.

Lady is another address term for women. Before a conference, we usually say, "Ladies and Gentlemen." Lady is usually combined with the lady's surname, say, Lady Smith. It can also be used with official titles, such as Lady President. As a respectful title, the single and plural forms of Lady can be used on its own.

Mr. and Mrs. is another set of respectful title. Mr. is the abbreviation of Mister, and Mister is changed from Master. Mrs. is the abbreviation of Mistress. Mr. and Mrs. can be used with the surname or the full name, but not the first name, such as Mr. John Smith, Mr. Smith or Mrs. Smith.

Mr. is usually used for people without official titles. However, sometimes it can also be used with official titles, place names, nation names, sports or occupation, such as Mr. President, Mr. America or Mr. Baseball. Mr. can also be used on its own, written as Mister. For example, "Hey, Mister, you dropped your wallet."

Mrs. is usually used for married women. It is used with the husband's surname, such as Mrs. White. Mrs. can be used with place names, nation names, sports or occupation, such as Mrs. America. Mrs. can also be used on its own, written as Missis that is usually used with "the" to indicate housewives.

Miss, used for single women, stemmed from Mistress. Miss is usually used with the surname and the full name, and it can also be used with place names or an activity to mean the woman in one place or an activity, such as Miss America or Miss Industry, 1971. Generally speaking, Miss cannot be combined with the first name, however, in American South, this usage is acceptable, such as Miss Lillian. This new usage expresses the respect and intimacy to the addressee.

In recent years, females feel that by taking their husband's surname they lose their own identity. Therefore, a new title appeared: Ms. Ms. is used for any woman without the indication of the marital status.

B. Genetic Titles in China.

Xiānshēng appeared in ancient times. In the past, it was used to address old people with high morality. Gradually it developed into a genetic title. After the Liberation, xiānshēng was equivalent to teacher. It was also used to address members of democratic parties, patriotic personages, learned people, foreign guests and overseas Chinese.

Tàitai was used for married women, and it was also the symmetrical term to xiānshēng. Xiǎojiě is the genetic title for unmarried women. Another two genetic titles for women are fūren and nǚshi. The former was for married women.

Xiǎojiě is widespread used in China for young ladies. It can be found in the service trades and the social intercourse. However, unlike in America, we cannot address an old woman with Xiǎojiě in China, which will be regarded as degradation of her status, and will cause unhappiness.

Tóngzhi is another genetic title used for all people regardless of sex, position or marital status. This address term puts everyone on an equal footing that implies no social or economic differences. It can used in situations that are neutral where there are no clear indications of power and no familiarity between the addresser and the addressee, such as to an unknown stranger or to someone whose occupation carries with it no title.

C. Official Ttitles

Official titles refer to address people according to their titles of technical or professional post. They are usually used by the inferior to the superior, sometimes by the superior to the inferior.

In English-speaking countries, people with official titles prefer official titles + LN to Sir + LN, for Sir is used for ordinary people or people without official titles in academic field. Many Chinese use Sir + LN to address Westerners in academic field. It is regarded as disrespect and deliberate degradation of the addressee. In fact, Sir, equivalent to xiānshēng in Chinese, is regarded as respectful title by Chinese.

In academic field, Professor, Doctor are two common official titles. Doctor and Professor cannot be used on their own. They must be combined with the last name, such as Professor Davis or Doctor White. Doctor is not only an official title but also a respectful title. Only those who get the degree of Medical Doctor (MD) can be addressed by Doctor on its own, while those without the degree of MD can only be addressed by Doctor + LN.

Some other official titles are usually used in the royal family, the government, the military, the religion or the law circle, such as, Queen Elizabeth, Senator Brown, General Patten, Father Bright or Judge Harley. In the above official titles, Father, General, Colonel, etc, can be used on their own. Your Majesty, His Majesty or Her Majesty is used to address King or Queen; Your Highness is used to address Prince or Princess; Your Honor is used to address judge.

Compared with America, official titles in China are more common. Addressing people by official titles is very popular in China. There are a lot of official titles in China, in the administrative department, there is zhǔxí(chairman), zǒnglǐ(prime minister), bùzhǎng(minister), etc. In the military, there is sīlìng(commander), jūnzhǎng(arm commander), shīzhǎng(division commander), etc. In academic and technical field, there is jiàoshòu(Professor), jiǎngshī(Lecturer), gōngchéngshī(engineer), etc.

These official titles can be used on their own. They can also be used together with the surname or the full name and be placed after it.

D. Other Address Terms

Besides the above address terms, there are many other address terms in America and China.

In America, the universal use is to call someone by his or her first name, which is the indication of intimacy and familiarity. In some American universities, teachers can even be called by their names without the feeling of intrusion and impoliteness. This common practice reflects people's expectation of close relationship between each other. However, it is not proper to call people by their first names who are with titles or high positions, such as governor or diplomat. It is safer to use the title + LN at first.

In China, there is widespread use of lǎo (old) and xiǎo (little) in conjunction with last names as polite forms. They are used not only between intimates but also to mark social distinctions between non-intimates. They have the connotation of equality, kind and affection. An inferior may address a superior by lǎo +LN, such as lǎo wáng. Another form of address used to elderly officials and scholars is LN + lǎo, such as wáng lǎo.

Sometimes, when we are in doubt as to how to address another, we can actually avoid the difficulty by not using any address terms at all, that is φuse. This phenomenon can be found in both America and China. In many cases, the wrong use of address terms is worse than φuse. Therefore, people prefer φuse when they are not certain about one's age, social status, occupation or marital status. φuse is a safer way in the communication.

III. DIFFERENT CULTURES VALUES IN AMERICA AND CHINA

Language is the guide for the understanding of culture. One can find out the cultural peculiarities through the language. The differences of address terms between America and China root in the different cultures. These cultural diversities include values, intentions and the attitude towards the world. There are two kinds of cultural values: individualism and collectivism. America and China belong to the two cultural values respectively.

America belongs to the individualist culture. In this culture, the individual is the most important unit in any social setting, and the uniqueness of each individual is the highest value.

In individualist culture, "I" consciousness prevails. Each person has the right to pursue his or her freedom and happiness, to protect his or her private property, and to uphold his or her thoughts and opinions. Personal goals take priority over the allegiance to groups, like the family or the company. So the loyalty of the individual is very weak. People in the society are equal. Formality is not important. They treat others equally and choose to be treated in the same manner when they interact in school, business or social environment, and even children are often treated as adults.

China belongs to collectivist culture. Thousands of years of living and working together on the land produced the collective nature of Chinese values. Collectivism is characterized by a rigid social framework, which distinguishes between in-groups and out-groups. People, in collectivist culture, rely on their in-groups, such as relatives, clans, organization. In return, they are absolutely loyal to the group.

In collectivist society, a "we" consciousness prevails. It emphasizes the views, needs and goals of the in-group rather than the individual. They share beliefs rather than distinguish self from in-group. Cooperation is strongly encouraged.

Both of the culture values will reflect into the language using fields. Moreover they will influence on the available situations of addressing terms.

IV. Conclusion

The study on addressing terms makes us find out the cultural features. The cultural features are very useful and important to the intercultural communication. Therefore, language is very important to the study of intercultural communication. It makes people hurdle the communication barriers and get effective communication. The analysis of culture is a complex project. It needs the deep and comprehensive knowledge about language with which culture has a close relationship. One nation's morality, values, aesthetic conceptions and other cultural elements are reflected and expressed by language. The analysis of culture cannot be conducted without the research of language. The importance of language to the study of intercultural communication is clearly shown in the American poet Ralph Waldo Emerson's simple sentence "Language is the archives of history." (Essays, 2001, P.12).

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