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Thai Learners' English Pronunciation Competence: Lesson Learned from Word Stress Assignment

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Abstract—English has been a lingua franca in various domains of communication such as international business, academic conferences, diplomacy, science and technology. As a result, the demands for English skills in all aspects are crucial in response to the importance of English and the impact of globalization. Despite the constant efforts in developing English education in Thailand, a number of studies have shown that the achievement of Thai learners was unsatisfactory. Given the role of English as an international language which is used in almost domain of communication, amongst several factors hindering the success of English language learning, English pronunciation of the Thai learners should be focused. This study has two principle objectives: 1) to examine Thai learners' knowledge with regard to word stress assignment; and 2) to determine possible factors affecting the Thai learners' pronunciation competence. To achieve these objectives, 90 Thai learners of English participated in this study. The test consisting of two parts: personal information profile, and 40 selected words systematically taken from two textbooks, was employed to identify these participants' pronunciation competence. The results showed that most of the participants' English pronunciation was somewhat limited. Gender was identified to be the most significant factor contributing to the participants' test scores, while faculty and years of studying English were not. In light of the results suggested by the three variables, pedagogical suggestions were offered to help improve teaching and learning English pronunciation in general, and in focusing on the importance of teaching word stress in particular.

Index Terms—word stress assignment, Thai learners, English pronunciation

I. INTRODUCTION

Along with economic globalization, English has increasingly become the medium of communication around the world both in local and global contexts. The realization of importance of English highlights the necessity of every country to have its people become better equipped with English performance. Inevitably, this necessity is also applicable to Thailand. In response to the demands for English skills, the Thai government has made constant efforts to improve Thai learners' English performance throughout the history of English language teaching in Thailand (Kanoksilapatham, 2007) in order to improve Thai learners' competence in English, enabling them to obtain job opportunities, promotions or career advancement.

With the rise in the number of English users, English language teaching professionals has increased worldwide. The importance of English has also sparked a growing interest in the teaching of English as a foreign language (EFL). In Thailand, to meet the demands of global economics and to cope with the growing local and national demands for English skills, new initiatives have been launched in all aspects of the Thai educational system, including curriculum, materials, facilities, and professional development for teachers. However, a number of studies (e.g., Pongsiriwet, 2002; Wiriyachitra, 2001) reported that the four skills of listening, speaking, reading, and writing are far from satisfactory. The results of these studies were repeatedly substantiated by Bolton's (2008) study which reported that Thai learners' English performance was somewhat limited, compared to that of other ASEAN country members.

To improve Thai learners' English proficiency, among all the four macro language skills, speaking seems intuitively the most important because speaking includes all other skills of knowing that language (Ur, 1996). Given the role of speaking skills in learning a foreign language, teaching and learning English speaking in Thailand is somewhat limited for a number of reasons. First, for Thai students, English speaking or oral communication in English is deemed to be difficult since English is not their native language (Khamkhien, 2010). Second, most of Thai learners need their English to sound as native-like as possible which is a prestige norm of spoken English even though English is widely used in the region of South East Asia, creating a great diversity of English e.g., Malaysian English, Singaporean English, etc. This scenario seems to limit their choice of their exposure to English. Next, since English in Thailand is a foreign language, the exposure of English to authentic language input of learners of English in Thailand is limited. Lastly, another dimension which should be taken into account lies into English pronunciation of Thai teachers of English (Kanoksilapatham, 2007). These serious problems are exclusively important, leading to a large volume of studies

focusing on speaking ability of Thai learners (e.g., Jarusan 1997; Kanoksilapatham, 1992; Nimphaibule, 1996; Serttikul, 2005; Siriwisut, 1994).

Since pronunciation is a global construct which consists of segmental (e.g., consonant and vowels) and suprasegmental (e.g., stress, intonation, rhythm, rate, volume), over the past decade, a number of studies have variedly investigated the area of speaking skills, including speaking assessment (e.g., Chen, 2001; Li, 2003; Wang 2003), phonology language acquisition (e.g., Altmann, 2006; Waylan et al., 2006), problems of teaching and learning speaking skills (e.g., Goodwin, 2001; Lazaraton, 2001). Amongst these studies focusing on speaking skills, pronunciation is receiving more attention in many EFL classrooms since it is recognized that students should primarily acquire as a fundamental skill because it can effect accuracy and comprehension (Celce-Murcia et al., 2000; Derwing et al., 2006; Hahn, 2004). Although research studies on speaking skills and pronunciation are common within English as a second and foreign language, the research of this line with Thai learners seems to be marginalized. Specifically, the area of pronunciation produced by Thai learners of English studying in the field of sciences seems to be relatively less explored. In light of the shortage of this line of research, despite the importance for successful communication, this study aimed to explore pronunciation competence of Thai learners of English studying in the field of sciences by using a stress identification task. The roles of three factors: gender, faculty and years of studying English were also determined.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

This section provides a description of factors which contribute to students' pronunciation competence. Subsequently, previous studies concerning English pronunciation competence of Thai students are presented.

A. Factors Contributing to Students' Pronunciation

Although some researchers believe that all learners have the same capacity to learn a second or foreign language because they have learned their first language, a number of EFL teachers have difficulties in improving the students' pronunciation problems. As a result, in the past, several researchers have put great efforts, asserted and suggested many factors affecting students' pronunciation (e.g., Brown, 1994; Celce-Murcia et al., 2000; Gillette, 1994; Kenworthy, 1987). In this regard, these previous studies have been repeatedly substantiated that factors such as native language, age, exposure, innate phonetic ability, identity and language ego, and motivation and concern for good pronunciation ability, appeared to have an influence on teaching and learning pronunciation.

Native language

According to Avery and Ehrlich (1987), learners of a language have different ways to speak the target language. The way they speak the target language is sometimes slightly different and sometimes highly different than the native speakers' do. Kenworthy (1987) also stated that the native language is the most influential factor in accounting for students' pronunciation especially foreign accents. That is, if the students are familiar with the sound system of their native language, they will be able to effectively diagnose their own difficulties. Kenworthy suggested that many first and second language carryovers can be overcome through a focused awareness and effort on the learners' part. In this sense, as asserted by Senel (2006), it should be noteworthy that interference or negative transfer from the first language is likely to cause errors in aspiration, intonation, rhythm, and melody in the target language. To illustrate, this problem can occur when the rules for combining the sounds in forms of syllables are different in two languages.

Age

Age plays a vital role in learning or improving pronunciation abilities. As can be seen, if learners can pronounce a second language with a native-like accent, they must have probably started to learn it during their childhood since these learners start their second language learning process in target language speaking people environment (Senel, 2006). An intriguing research study conducted by Brown (1992) investigating the age factor on learning pronunciation using a traditional listen-and-repeat exercise indicated that minimal pairs in the context of the sentences, conversation and role playing, adult learners were probably able to learn second language phonology as well as children did. A recent study which has stirred the interest in the age factor affecting English pronunciation abilities is Collier's study (2003). The study revealed that the older students were faster and more efficient than younger ones in the early states of language learning. In this regard, older students and adolescents developed their second language skills continuously, but adults would diminish after the first year. However, the study did not propose any evidence for a simple and straightforward link between age and ability in pronunciation of a new language.

Experience in studying English

Lacking of opportunity to practice English pronunciation is another prominent problem to advancing in English pronunciation. Several studies compared the pronunciation accuracy of people living in English-speaking countries and those who did not, revealing the difficulty with pronunciation of learners who did not live in an English speaking country in mastering English pronunciation. For instance, Siriwisut (1994) and Serttikul (2005) indicated that language experience had an effect on pronunciation ability. In their studies, language experience meant the opportunities to use English language in daily lives. The studies suggested that students with poor pronunciation, who were regarded as less experienced, had more language transfer problem than the students with good pronunciation. For this reason, the students with good pronunciation would improve better than the poor ones. Their findings were witnessed by Haymes (2000) and Senel (2006) pointing out that learners living in an English-speaking country or community where English is

the second language would have many opportunities to listen to and to use the target language. Also, the success in learning and teaching English depended on students' ability and exposure. Teaching a conversation or a dialogue was, therefore, not enough to help students improve speaking skills. Likewise, Brown (1992) stated that the students could pronounce well if they spent time on pronunciation with full attention and interest. In short, students could simply improve the development of pronunciation competence if they were motivated and had a strong will to expose to the target language.

Phonetic ability

According to Brown (1992), phonetic ability is sometimes called phonetic coding ability. It is a common view that some people have a better listening skill for a foreign language than others. Therefore, they are able to discriminate between the two sounds more accurately than the others and are able to imitate sounds better. Although students may have had exposure to a foreign language as children and attuned to phonetic discrimination, some studies (e.g., Kanoksilapatham, 1992) have suggested that some elements of learning are a matter of awareness of the different sounds. Also, learners' pronunciation ability can be improved by putting efforts and concentration on those sounds.

Attitude and identity

Another interesting factor influencing on acquiring and improving pronunciation of the target language is one's attitude towards speakers of the target language and the extent to which the language ego identified with those speakers. As pointed out by Brown (1992), students with a positive attitude towards the people who spoke the target language were likely to learn pronunciation more successfully. They were not afraid of the second identity that may have been emerging within them. Moreover, a similar caution was sounded by Celce-Murcia et al. (2000) who noted that attitude towards the target language, culture, personal identity issues, and motivation for learning could all support or impede pronunciation skills development. Apart from these factors, as astutely asserted by Senel (2006), in general, shy or introvert students would not prefer to participate in classroom activities, leading to the lack of any opportunities to make practices and to make full use of phonological activities.

Motivation and concern for good pronunciation

The learners' motivation can be seen the strongest factor contributing to the success or failure of learning a second or foreign language. That is, it is a driving force encouraging a learner to pursue a course of action, initiating the learning, and finally sustaining the learning process (Dörnyei, 2001). Basically, if the learners' motivation is high, then they will be willing to improve their abilities by themselves. On the other hand, if they do not see the value or pay attention to their pronunciation, they may not be motivated to do well.

The previous research studies mentioned above confirm the roles of native language, age, experience in studying English, phonetic ability, attitude and identity, and motivation and concern for good pronunciation in studying a language as important factors affecting learners' pronunciation. However, there exists a rigorous on-going debate between scholars and researchers from different context of language learning and teaching, propounding various versions of implications and cautions in teaching pronunciation. This calls for more studies focusing more specifically on a specific context to support the main tenets of progressive language pedagogy.

B. Previous Studies on Pronunciation

A number of researchers focusing on English pronunciation problems of Thai learners have created their own experiment or tests. For example, an insightful study focusing on Thai learners' pronunciation of English was conducted by Kanoksilapatham (1992). The findings of her study indicated that Thai learners of English had difficulty with English pronunciation, especially in pronouncing four-syllable English words. Specifically, among four types of the words tested: nouns, verbs, adjective, and adverbs, verbs were found to be least-well pronounced, whereas the nouns with an -ity ending were most correctly pronounced. The findings were interesting, demonstrating that that incorrect placement of word stress was evident; in certain words, final syllables seemed to be stressed rather than the first syllables.

Looking at the relationship between the perception and the production of English word stress by Thai learners, Jarusan (1997) found that the learner's English experience played a vital role in the perception and the production of English word stress. The study suggested that language learning experience and the exposure to the language could help the learners to learn a foreign language and have a constant of their language ability. However, the listening ability was individualistic as constant practice and continuous exposure to the language which will help the language learners develop their language ability in a long term aspect are needed.

English loan words are considered to be a problem for Thai speakers of English. Korsuwan (2001) studied the assimilation of English loan words by Thai speakers. It was found that the problem of pronunciation occurred from background knowledge and Thais' behavior to share the phonological both in Thai and English language. Most Thai speakers decided the accuracy by imitating the phonological pattern from hearing. Moreover, the study indicated that consonant sounds, vowel sounds and clusters were problematic for Thai learners especially the final cluster consonant such as /l/ and /ch/. In a nutshell, most Thai speakers substituted to pronounce the difficult sounds by adding their own rules to pronounce easily.

Although the preponderance of previous studies focused on Thai learners' pronunciation of English, and yield congruent results that Thai learners of English had difficulty with English pronunciation, certain criticism of limitations of such studies should be taken into account. First, different scholars and researchers have investigated learning

strategies from different aspects and area of speaking skills, leading to somewhat different pedagogical implications. In addition, creating researchers' own tests and questionnaires to meet the establish objectives of previous studies lead to questions of the reliability and application of the analysis. Then, despite the enormous number of learning variables studies, many studies tend to focus on one factor to investigate in a study. Finally, in this light of this line of research, there is very little research focusing on Thai students' English pronunciation studying in the field of sciences. These reasons suggest a need for more studies in this research area.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Objectives of the Study

The current study aims to assess Thai learners' English pronunciation competence. In this study, English pronunciation competence refers to the knowledge to perform pronunciation through the word stress assignment. Specifically, the study has two main objectives: (1) to assess Thai learners' knowledge with regard to word stress assignment, and (2) to determine possible factors contributing to these learners' pronunciation competence. More specifically, this study attempted to answer the following questions:

1. What is the level of Thai learners' English pronunciation competence?
2. What is the relationship between three factors: gender, faculty and experiences in studying English, and their knowledge with regard to word stress assignment?

B. Participants

The participants were Thai learners of English ($N=90$), studying in the field of sciences, from the Faculty of Liberal Arts and Science, Engineering, and Veterinary Medicine, Kasetsart University, Thailand. All of them, at the time of study, were second year students, and were randomly selected to participate in this study. These participants were ideal for this study for several reasons. First, they were a homogeneous group of students studying in mixed-ability class. Second, Thai was their mother tongue, and they had no formal exposure to the spoken variety of the language other than that in the classroom. Finally, they were studying English courses, which contribute positively to the study, allowing certain generalizations to be made.

C. Instruments

The instrument used in the current study consists of two parts. Part one of the test is the background questionnaire eliciting personal information of the participants. The questions asked in this part represent the following variables: 1) gender, 2) faculty and major, and 3) years of studying English. As for the last factor (years of studying English), it should be noted that, in Thailand, students learn English as a compulsory subject from Grade 1 onwards. Since the participants in the current study were studying in the university level, studying English for at least 12 years was taken into account.

Part two of the test is regarded as the main instrument in this study. This part comprises a list of selected words to test the participants' word stress competence. To select the words used in this part, first, a list of 60 words was compiled from two main sources, namely *Introductory Chemistry* (Tro, 2008), and *Chemistry: An introduction to general, organic, and biological chemistry* (Timberlake, 1996). Since all of the participants were studying in the field of sciences, it was expected that these students would be familiar with the words selected from these books which were used as a main stream in the instruction. Then, in order to assure the reliability of the words listed, all of the words to be used were cross checked, referring to *Academic Press Dictionary of Science and Technology* (Christopher, 1992) which was prescribed to technical terms used in the scientific field. To assure that the words tested represent the proportion of the words used in the scientific field, related to the contents they were studying, this word list was also checked by three experts who are scientists and instructors in a subject matter.

To assure that the data obtained from the participants can be generalized, the list of 60 words was used in a pilot study with 10 students. The results of the pilot study suggested that the participants had a difficulty understanding some words on the test, and thus 20 words were excluded from the list. As a result, in the current study, a list of 40 multi-syllabic words was selected and used as the test of the word stress assignment competence of the participants. Since one of the objectives of the current study focuses on English pronunciation and as far as the syllable numbers are concerned, these 40 words are divided into four groups: two-syllable words (e.g., *process, data*), three-syllable words (e.g., *chemistry, energy*), four-syllable words (e.g., *automatic, environment*) and five-syllable words (e.g., *metabolism, antioxidant*) with 10 words each. All of these words selected were arranged in the ascending order based on their number of syllables. That is, the test begins with a group of two-syllable words and ends with five-syllable words.

D. Data Collection

The test administration took place in the second semester of academic year 2009. The test was distributed to the participants into three classes on the last day of the semester. In this regard, the author administered the test. Before the test administration, the participants were informed that the first part of the test required the participants to complete their personal information, whereas the second part asked them to identify the stressed syllable in each word by marking an X that corresponds to the syllable they perceived to place a stress on. In order to assess the real these participants'

competence, they were also informed that the test results would be kept confidentially, and the results of the test would be beneficial for the research study and improving teaching English.

E. Data Analysis

After the test administration, the data obtained from part one eliciting personal information of the participants were coded and divided into groups for statistical analysis. As for the data gained from the task of word stress assignment, the test was scored manually and dichotomously by the author. The correct answer was assigned with 1, and 0 to an incorrect one. All data were analyzed by the SPSS program, showing descriptive statistics. In order to determine the effect of the three variables: gender, faculty and years of studying English, separate *t*-tests and separate ANOVAs were performed.

IV. RESULTS

The analysis and the descriptive statistics of the test scores from the word stress assignment task showed that, in general, the mean score is 16.84. The highest score is 26, while the lowest score is 9, and the *SD* value is 3.35. In this regard, it was found that Thai learners had a difficulty with pronouncing five-syllable words most, and two-syllable words least. Based on these results, given that the words covered in the test were taken from the textbooks they must study in the classroom, it is clear that the relatively low mean score of 16.84 demonstrates that their performance on word stress assignment test is far from satisfactory.

As for the personal data elicited by the first part of the test, the number and the percentage of the participants are presented in Table 1. Further, the results on the investigation of the relationship between test scores and the variables were individually reported as follows.

TABLE1:
PERSONAL DATA OF THE PARTICIPANTS

	No. of participants	Percent
<i>Gender</i>		
Male	52	57.78
Female	38	42.22
<i>Faculty</i>		
Arts and Science	38	42.22
Engineering	30	33.33
Veterinary Medicine	22	24.45
<i>English Learning Experience</i>		
1-12 years	76	84.45
More than 12 years	14	15.55

A. Test Results by Gender

To examine how gender of the participants affects their English pronunciation competence, the data elicited by the first part of test were analyzed. A number of intriguing points were found. The results of their pronunciation competence by gender are presented in Table 2.

TABLE2:
TEST RESULTS BY GENDER

Gender	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	S.D.
Male	12.00	25.00	15.73	3.06
Female	9.00	26.00	18.37	3.14
Total	9.00	26.00	16.84	3.35

**F* = 15.90 *P*=0.00.

Of 90 participants, as shown in Table 1, most of them are male (*M* = 57.78 or 52 students), and 38 participants are female (*M* = 42.22). As for the test scores, as Table 2 illustrates, the female participants in this study could perform slightly better than the male counterparts in the identification task. The result of the analysis indicates that the mean score of 18.37 is for female participants, and 15.73 for the male ones. Therefore, there is a small difference between the female group and the male one. Although the descriptive statistics does not reveal any major different between the task scores between male and female students, the ANOVA reveals a statistically significant difference (*F* = 15.90, *p*= 0.00). This finding shows that the scores of the identification task revealed main significant effect for gender.

B. Test Scores by Faculty

The second variable explored in this study is the participants' faculty. In this case, the data from the participants were classified based on their faculty. The following table demonstrates the comparison of the test scores by faculty.

TABLE3:
TEST RESULTS BY FACULTY

Faculty	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	S.D.
Arts and Science	9.00	25.00	16.11	3.43
Engineering	13.00	26.00	17.47	3.06
Veterinary Medicine	10.00	24.00	17.85	3.48
Total	9.00	26.00	16.84	3.35

* $F = 1.65$ $P=0.20$.

Focusing on the faculty of the participants, the results demonstrated that the participants studying, in the time of study, in the faculty of Veterinary Medicine (mean score of 17.85), performed slightly better than those studying in the faculty of Engineering (mean score of 17.47), and those from the faculty of Liberal Arts and Science (mean score of 16.11). However, the lowest score of those from the faculty of Engineering is 13, followed by those from the faculty of Veterinary Medicine and Liberal Arts and Science (10 and 9, respectively). ANOVA was performed on the mean scores and yielded non-significant contrasts ($F=1.65$, $p=0.20$), demonstrating that the participants with different in their faculty did not differ in their word stress assignment scores.

C. Experiences in Studying English

In order to successfully determine and get a clearer picture of the roles of years in studying English on the scores of word stress assignment task, the data from the first part of the test were coded into two groups of students, 1-12 years and more than 12 years, particularly. The difference in the test scores by years of studying English is shown in the following table.

TABLE4:
TEST RESULTS BY EXPERIENCES IN STUDYING ENGLISH

Years of Studying English	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	S.D.
1-12 years	9.00	26.00	17.00	3.51
More than 12 years	13.00	20.00	16.00	2.22
Total	9.00	26.00	16.84	3.35

* $F = 1.06$ $P=0.31$.

The results of the analysis revealed that, incredibly, the participants who have learned English for 1 to 12 years performed slightly better than those studying English for more than 12 years, with the mean scores of the former of 17.00, and 16.00 for the latter. Again, ANOVA was performed on their mean scores, and revealed that there was no statistically significant different ($F=1.06$, $p=0.31$). This indicates that the test scores of the two student groups were not significantly different in their word stress assignment.

V. DISCUSSION

This study aimed at assessing English pronunciation of Thai learners of English. The participants in this study were studying in the field of sciences. The results of this study, generally, showed that these Thai learners' English pronunciation competence was rather limited. The results of the current study can shed light onto some practical suggestions and implications on teaching and learning pronunciation.

The results obtained from this study suggest that Thai learners of English need to be sharpened their English knowledge and paid more attention to the importance of pronunciation features. This does not mean that not only will English teachers be a decent model of pronunciation for their students, but teachers responsible for other subject matters should be a resource person in the classroom as well. Specifically, gender was identified as one of the contributing factors to the scores of the identification task, while faculty and years of studying English were not. Basically, the teachers should be aware of the individual difference which might have and effect on the students' pronunciation competence.

Although English language teaching and learning in Thailand mostly focuses on the four macro language skills, pronunciation, as mentioned earlier, is relatively neglected. The results of this study have highlighted the role of pronunciation not only in language classes in general but in specific courses, in the field sciences in particular. If the students were not able to perform or pronounce English words correctly, they might have difficulties when listening, speaking, reading and writing English textbooks, leading to serious problems in response to the needs of international demands. Given that there was no significant difference in the test scores by years of studying English of the participants, it can be said that, even though some of the students had more experience in studying English that their

counterparts, the status of English in Thailand is recognized as a foreign language. Most of the students will have no chance or opportunity to use the target language in a real environment. Therefore, teachers and learners should be aware of the necessity of being exposed to the target language by making full use of video shows, films, radio or TV programs, computer assisted language teaching programs in teaching and learning English to help boost their pronunciation competence.

To facilitate the acquisition of stress pattern, explicit instruction might be needed. Classroom instructor of English can help language learners enhance their sensitivity to stress pattern in a number of ways. For instance, teaching methods and class activities provided should make the students aware of their pronunciation problems and help them correct themselves. In this regard, authentic materials and recorders can be employed in the language classroom. Moreover, teachers should encourage recording of whatever is being studied at home. English teachers themselves should initially be aware of the expertise expected of teachers. That is, they should possess knowledge of instruction, knowledge of context, and expertise related to the subject matter, word stress assignment because the teachers' pronunciation is the major input that the learners are exposed to.

Moreover, the results of this study calls for an interest of classroom English teachers and involved parties to sharpen their sensitivity and to pay more attention to pronunciation features. This is because the awareness to enhance pronunciation competence will be beneficial to teachers in general and to students in particular. Therefore, as suggested by Kanoksilapatham (1992), to improve the practices in the subject matter, educational administrators should take some initiatives to improve the teacher preparation program to introduce and adequate skills to cope with the expected role of a resource person. Teachers themselves should be provided with the opportunities to acquire practical skills and knowledge needed to function as an effective teacher. Meanwhile, these teachers and the students should be fostered to understand their own experience when stresses are misplaced in words. Finally, these teachers should be cautioned that pronunciation should not be overlooked since it had an impact on teachers' performance and subsequently their students' performance.

VI. CONCLUSION

This study explored Thai learners' English pronunciation competence. The results in general revealed that most of the Thai learners did not possess satisfactory competence in English pronunciation. Clearly seen from the analysis, it was found that, based on the scores of 90 Thai participants, their word stress placement was somewhat unsatisfactory. To further determine which of the three variables are significantly different, ANOVAs were performed, and the statistical results revealed significant difference in gender, but not in faculty and years of studying English. Therefore, it can be said that gender is a significant predictor of Thai learners' performance in the identification task.

VII. LIMITATIONS OF THIS STUDY

The results of this study should be interpreted carefully for several reasons. First, given the limited number of the students, the findings of this study remain inconclusive and call for subsequent studies analyzing a larger group of participants. Next, as discussed in the literature, it is possible that pronunciation competence of the learners might be influenced by other pertinent variables e.g. age, field of study, phonetic ability, etc. In addition, there is a limitation in selecting words covered in the test from two textbooks used to assess the learners' word stress scores, future research, thus, should be systematically supplemented with other sources which might provide and support the ways to assess pronunciation competence of the learners. Moreover, further investigation should investigate the relationship between the learner's English language pronunciation competence and actual performance.

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Pedagogical Innovations in Language Teaching Methodologies

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Abstract—Language teachers have always been concerned about the inadequacy of conventional methods of language teaching in education systems. As a result, the language teaching pendulum is swinging from methods to post-method pedagogy, although it still remains in motion. The dual focus on both socio-cultural theories to second language acquisition (SLA) and improvements in technologies wins the attention of practitioners, curriculum designers, and students as the major stakeholders in applied linguistics. This has resulted in greater emphasis on the important role of techniques and technologies in language teaching. Many have tried to find a more innovative direction in this respect (Rodgers, 2000). This article, along with reviewing different predictions made in this direction, takes a more edu-sociocultural-technological perspective to address the potentially important issues in language teaching in future.

Index Terms—language teaching, SLA, sociocultural theories

I. INTRODUCTION

Past language teaching is associated with the “Age of Methods” (Rodgers, 2000, p.1). The language teaching pendulum has swung away from grammar translation to the direct method, and then to alternative methods (Richards & Rogers, 2003). Such shifts from one method to another only “provide ample inferential evidence of [consecutive] lack of success” (Sheen, 1994, p. 127). The result of such frustration was the shift from teacher to learner (Freeman & Richards, 1993), from outside feeding theories to inside ones (Richards, 1996), from method-based top-down to teacher-based bottom-up approaches (Richards & Rodgers, 1987; Freeman & Richards, 1993).

Frustrated by lack of success through such shifts from one method to another, scholars faced “scatter-fire approaches to language teaching” (Rodgers, 2000). The anti-method movement from beyond methods (Richards, 1990) to teachers’ sense of plausibility (Prabhu, 1990) and finally to post method era (Kumaravadivelu, 1994) is indicative of a shift in view from curriculum developer towards teacher and from teacher towards learner; teaching English is inclined to be fed from internal sources (internalization) instead of external sources (externalization). Internalization manifested in focusing more on learners’ strategic ways of learning: teacher-learner mismatches in terms of cognitive, metacognitive and affective factors; as well as moderating self-initiation in heuristic learning. In this respect, Schunk (2000) proposed six factors based on which learning issues are discussed and evaluated. These factors are about (1) the way leaning occurs, (2) factors affecting learning, (3) the role of memory, (4) the role of motivation, (5) the role and mechanism of transfer, and (6) the nature of learning anticipated by the theory . Based on these six points, he classified learning theories into three major epistemologically different paradigms of behavioral, cognitive, and constructive psychology and theories.

A. Present (Post Method Era)

Kumaravadivelu (2001) proposes the concept of postmethod pedagogy, saying that the concept rests on three parameters, namely on particularity, practicality, and possibility. Particularity refers to the belief that any language teaching program “must be sensitive to a particular group of teachers teaching a particular group of learners pursuing a particular set of goals within a particular institutional context embedded in a particular sociocultural milieu” (p. 538). This localized perspective cannot be assigned to a universally presumed concept of method. Practicality refers to the interrelationship of theory and practice. One misperception is that the West should theorize and the East should consume. The practicality issue believes in “marginalize[d] local knowledge” and that theory of practice should be generated by the practitioners. The third parameter is the parameter of possibility. Kumaravadivelu (2001), based on Freire and Giroux’s concepts of critical pedagogy, states that “pedagogy, any pedagogy, is implicated in relations of power and dominance, and is implemented to create and sustain social inequalities” (p. 542). Kumaravadivelu believes that teachers should be empowered to help learners critically reflect on the social and historical conditions that have shaped their cultural lives.

According to Kumaravadivelu (2003), postmethod pedagogy is a reaction to “method as a means of marginality” (p. 454) in the sense that pedagogy should take a bottom-up process to give the teachers power to build their own practices in the classroom based on the plausibility they develop through their personal experience, educational background and consultation with colleagues (Kumaravadivelu, 1994).

Kumaravadivelu (1994) develops the concept of principled pragmatism which is based on pedagogy in which “the relationship between theory and practice, ideas and their actualization can only be realized within the domain of application...through the immediate activity of teaching” (p. 31). Elsewhere, Kumaravadivelu (2006) depicts a three dimensional framework of language pedagogy which entails the intralingual-crosslingual dimension, the analytic-experiential dimension, and the explicit-implicit dimension. These dimensions are not dichotomized but form a continuum along which one moves from intralingual, analytic, or explicit at one end to crosslingual, experiential, and implicit at the other end. The intralingual end suggests that only L2 should be used in the classroom, no translation be allowed, and the people who learn a second language develop a kind of co-ordinate bilingualism (they develop two systems). In contrast, the crosslingual approach suggests that L1 can be used as a reference system in class that cultures and languages have some similarities, and learners who learn another language develop a compound bilingualism (single system).

Approaches at the analytic end of the continuum focus on code, on language as a medium; they incorporate observation and usage of decontextualized language, and responses are predictable and emphasize on accuracy. In contrast, the approaches from the experiential end focus on communication, are message centered, and emphasize participation and language use. They focus on contextualized language, information gaps, and fluency, and prioritize interpersonal interaction. The explicit end focuses on rationality, formality, intellectual strategies, conscious learning, cognitivism and inferencing, and systematic study. In contrast, the implicit end emphasizes the intuitive aspect of learning, subconscious acquisition, and incidental and global understanding; it is mostly behaviorist in the sense that it is empiricist.

B. Macro Strategies

As an alternative to method, Kumaravadivelu (1994) proposes a strategic framework for second language teaching which depicts many important findings of second language acquisition research, such as output hypothesis, input hypothesis, autonomy, and strategy training. He posits 10 macro strategies for language teaching:

1. Increasing Learning Opportunities: Teachers should create learning opportunities and make necessary changes.
2. Reducing Perceptual Mismatches: Teachers should minimize mismatches such as cognitive, linguistic, cultural, and instructional aspects between teachers’ intentions and learners’ interpretations.
3. Helping Negotiated Interaction: Teachers should encourage students to participate in meaningful interaction.
4. Encouraging Learner Autonomy: Teachers should help learners to learn how to learn and promote self-directing.
5. Increasing Language Awareness: Teachers should design activities that foster language awareness.
6. Activating Self Discovery: Teachers should provide rich textual data so that learners can infer underlying rules
7. Contextualizing Linguistic Input: Teachers should present linguistic input within thematic contexts reflects the natural use of language.
8. Integrating Language Skills: Language skills such as listening, speaking, reading and writing should be integrated.
9. Ensuring Social Relevance: Teachers should be sensitive to the societal, political, economic, and educational environment in L2.
10. Raising Cultural Consciousness: Learners should be encouraged to engage in a process of classroom participation that acknowledges their power and knowledge.

C. Future

With the emergence of sociocultural theories regarding learning in general and concerning language learning in particular, the realm of applied linguistics is finding a new direction. More dynamic view towards the nature of language turned scholars from static view to competence towards more interactive and dynamic view towards explicating what the nature of language is (Young, forthcoming). Moreover, the integration of technologies into language learning and teaching contexts is indicative of coral attention to the facilitative role of technology at the service of dynamicity of competence; Games, E-pet scoring, E-portfolio, Self initiating and many other activities are among those that might dominate language classroom instruction.

D. My Language is ME

Richards (2002) discussed the components of communicative curriculum as (1) language arts; (2) language for a purpose; (3) My language is ME: Personal English language use; (4) You be...I’ll Be....Theater arts; and (5) beyond the classroom. By language arts he meant whatever a teacher does (translation, syntax, morphology, and phonology) to draw learners’ attention to form. Language for a purpose refers to the variety of needs for which learners start learning English. Not all learners learn English for the same purpose. Richards states, “purposeful language is a built-in feature of the learning environment” (p. 4). My language is ME refers to the personal English language use and refers to learners’ identity. You Be, ...I’ll Be....: Theater arts refer to famous saying from Shakespeare that all the world is a stage. Teachers are coaches who provide support, strategies, and encouragement for learners as they explore new ways

of being. Beyond the classroom is the final component of a communicative curriculum. It refers to the fact that learners should be prepared for language use in the real world. Language identity, using language for personal purposes and being flexible in adopting different roles in the classroom are among those things that might be in the focus of attention in language education.

E. Rogers's (2000) Predictions

Rodgers (2000) tried to predict the future of language learning and instruction. As he describes, he used the “yesterday’s method labels” idiosyncratically to conceptualize future. He listed future of methodology and language teaching in ten statements:

1. *Teacher/Learner Collaboration*: Using matchmaking techniques to link learners and teachers who have similar styles and approaches to language learning.
2. *Method Synergistics*: Crossbreeding elements of various methods to find those practices which best support effective learning.
3. *Curriculum Developmentalism*: Viewing methodology as a component integrated in a larger view of instructional design.
4. *Content-Basics*: Assuming that language learning is a by-product of a focus on meaning, on acquiring some specific topical content.
5. *Multi-intelligencia*: Basing instruction on a “multiple-intelligences” view, in which different approaches play to different learner talents.
6. *Total Functional Response*: Reconstructing the Notional/Functional idea with some new systemic twists.
7. *Strategopedia*: Teaching learners the strategies they need so that they can learn on their own.
8. *Lexical Phraseology*: Recrafting both the nature and substance of language learning (LL) to focus on lexical phrases and collocations.
9. *O-zone Whole Language*: Engaging all aspects of language study—literature, language history, and linguistic analysis—in support of second language learning
10. *Full-frontal Communicativity*: Engaging all aspects of human communicative capacities —expression, gesture, tone, and so forth—in support of second language learning

Rodgers tried to reconceptualize what has been dominating the past to predict the future. By teacher learner collaboration he referred to the importance of learner’s and teacher’s style and strategy in the sense that any mismatch between learners’ strategies and styles and the method used in the classroom would be doomed to failure. By method synergistic, he first referred to the failure of method as a general concept. Rodgers believed that there are some commonalities among methods but they are too abstract to be noticed. He referred to such communalities as supraordinate communalities. He makes a distinction between classroom internal and classroom external. He believed that classroom internals such as teachers’ belief should be supported. Curriculum developmentalism is a new term he invented. He believed that educational design consisted of four aspects of knowledge (input and output as well as content and topic), instructional (methods, materials, programs, technologies, and educational environments, time, scheduling), learner (ages, proficiency, and developmental stages), and administrative (choice of instructional model). He stated that CLT has undergone three periods, namely Wilkins’s functional/notional, Munby’s period of needs analysis, and Prabhu’s period of techniques. He believes that the future will be an integration of these periods.

Content basics means that language learning is a by-product of a focus on form. Multi-intelligence refers to raising the teacher’s awareness of learner diversity and interest. By total functional response he meant considering genre, language functions, and text types. Strategopedia means enabling learners to initiate, control, and maintain their own learning through learning strategies. Lexical phraseology holds the idea that only a minority of spoken clauses is novel and this implies chunking issues. By chunk, we mean that certain word collocation is learned through an exemplar system (N. Ellis, 2003). O-Zone whole language refers to the idea that language incorporates literary study, authentic content and learner collaboration in language teaching. In this respect, learners, through comparing the parallel text, can focus on form through consciousness-raising tasks. Finally, full frontal communicativity means that communication involves many features of speech, including attitude, meaning, information, and every aspect of conveying the message to the listener and reader.

II. PROCEDURE

A. Gossiping as a Teaching Activity

Baw (2002) used gossiping as a way of making shy students talk in English in the classroom. He wished to give extended oral practice to students who remain rather inhibited, in spite of having a working knowledge of grammar. In other words, it is an attempt to encourage less fluent students to talk with inspiration. There are three types of involvement in conversation: (1) self-involvement of the speaker, (2) interpersonal involvement, and (3) being involved in what is being talked about. He believed that gossip is the most frequent type of communication and found that few people resist doing it. The purpose of gossiping in education is to help learners become fluent in speaking. He used the teacher as the model for being the object of gossip or a character from a story. For the first model, the students were given a note to trigger their talk or gossip in English.

For the next exercise the students get the opportunity to invent their own gossip and go through three stages to practice. The first one is a brief discussion about the plot. The second stage is to express their contempt for the main character of the story and the third stage is to prepare for giving an oral presentation.

B. Game Play either Through CALL or Face to Face Teaching Practice

Ting (2009) underlines the fact that the purpose of communicative language teaching is to prepare students for the real world activity, saying that the learners should be able to express language functions (such as requesting, congratulating, apologizing, complaining, consoling, and promising) appropriately. He offers the game of Sudoku, a kind of number puzzle, as an ideal authentic context for practicing language functions.

C. Using E-pet as Scoring E-portfolio

Tuksinarajarn and Todd (2009) used E-portfolios instead of paper-based portfolios. The E-portfolio has several advantages: they are easy to search, enable the use of multimedia projects, and allow efficient feedback on student work. It includes the following features:

An attractive, user-friendly webpage ...

A learner contract between the student and teacher that outlines a practical and concrete study plan for the completion of certain goals and activities within a set time. Involving students in decisions about assignments makes their learning more relevant.

A personal profile page resembling social networking sites, such as MySpace and Facebook that students customize with pictures and other information.

A mechanism to give students external rewards (in addition to grades) for learning new vocabulary items, grammar points, and learning strategies,

A link that lists the best student portfolios. This will motivate the model students by publicly acknowledging their achievements, and their classmates will view the model portfolios and learn from that work. (p. 23).

Teachers can use E-pet as the scoring system for children. The students are given animated eggs and can name these. These eggs will grow into pets. With the submission of quality work these pets grow and gain power so that finally they can fly.

D. More ESP and Workplace Integration

Bouzidi (2009), as well as Reilly (2001), emphasize the importance of a workplace needs analysis to be incorporated into the preparation of a syllabus. Bouzidi focuses on the hospitality industry. Through three steps, he prepares the material. The first step is the survey of employers and employees through interviews. The second step is to evaluate the ESP textbooks. In doing this, several questions should be answered, including "(1) does the textbook cover the language functions the learners are likely to use in their future; (2) does the textbook cover the topics/situations learners are likely to encounter in their future professional environment; (3) does the textbook emphasize the linguistic skills needed; (4) does the textbook content adequately reflect local and target language cultures; and (5) does the textbook take into account local teaching/learning style?" (pp. 13-15). These questions highlight the importance of considering the language functions, topics, linguistic skills, and cultural features for the language course. These considerations are localized and should be considered dialogically. Perhaps, in the future, more textbooks will integrate local situations (like workplace) in a multi-voiced framework. By multi-voiced, I mean all aspects of language and culture should be localized. The third step is supplementing the ESP textbook.

III. CONCLUSION

Based on what the researchers mentioned above, they predict the following innovations in the short- or long-term future. First, besides taking a proficiency test, students may take a matching test to be grouped with the most similar teacher and groups in terms of style and strategy. Mismatches discussed in Kumaravadivelu's article have been widely neglected although they have an important impact in developing multi-voiced competencies in learners. Second, language learning, to many post-Vygotskian scholars, is dialogic instead of dialectic. The new concepts of practicum, collaborative dialogue for output (Swain, 2000), affordance for input (Van Leir, 2000) and dynamic competence (Johnson, 2004) all indicate of such shifts in view. Third, before each language course, students might be required to be educated in self-initiation and problem posing strategies in order to create an idiosyncratic voice for self. Fourth, referring to emancipatory competence, the researchers believe that a more glocalized communicative competence which accounts for the dynamic nature of language is needed to be defined. Emancipatory competence enables the speakers to legitimize their competence in a way that allows them to adjust their pragmatic knowledge to the context they encounter. This means that a native speaker might lack this competency. Fifth, Tully (2009) explains the mind mirror project, which develops language skills through critical thinking. I believe that, in the future, critical thinking will play an important role in the English language classroom and this can be done through mind mirror projects and texts. Sixth, critical thinking has six characteristics: interpretation, analysis, evaluation, interference, explanation and self-regulation among which three features are the most important. Interpretation consists of two skills, namely, of categorization and clarifying meaning. Categorization happens when students locate appropriate elements in the story, and clarifying

meaning refers to connecting these elements together. Inferencing refers to drawing a conclusion through finding relevant information and determining the consequences in terms of data beliefs and other evidence. Self-regulation refers to learners monitoring and evaluating their work through questioning, confirming, or correcting. Seventh, the mind mirror project provides students with great opportunity to demonstrate critical thinking skills. It increases students' self-awareness and autonomy. In the mind mirror project, learners prepare two quotations, two original statements, two images and two symbols for every story they read. This way, they work on a text once individually and once in a group through reading the teachers' interpretations. Eighth, textbooks might in the future be mainly corpora based books through which learners become familiar with the authentic use of vocabulary and grammar. As Salsbury and Crummer (2008) state Corpus is a body of written and spoken language that teachers and researchers collect and analyze. Teachers compiled corpus from textbooks as well as from representative journal articles and manuals that students use in their university content courses. The students analyze the corpus to reinforce lessons with grammar, vocabulary and writing. The students identify patterns in language use that different from how they intuitively use the foreign language and even from how the language is presented and taught in their text books. (p. 28)

Ninth, Richards (2002) talk about my language is ME as one of the component of communicative language teaching. In the future, language as voice will likely be more highlighted. The concepts Englishes instead of English, both in testing and teaching, will be more highlighted. Tenth, language identity, using language for personal purposes and being flexible in adopting different roles in the classroom are among those objectives that might be the focus of attention in the language education. Eleventh, language books might look like game-based textbooks through which all micro and macro skills could be practiced. Twelfth, the E-Pet idea is a very interesting way of scoring. To us, it seems to be based on the sociocultural aspect of language learning and, this way, learners are involved in learning through self-responsibility. Thirteenth, more multi-voiced perspective is taken into account when doing needs analysis. This includes both localized features and globalized features of target language. Finally, as Rogers (2000) explicated and predicated, and as Farjami (2001) researched, misconception is an important component of language teaching which if not considered might lead to a detrimental and unexpected result. Kumaravadivelu (1994, 2006) explicates the concept in detail. What we predict is that, at the beginning of the term, a test measuring conceptions or misconceptions will be given to students. Students will be grouped in terms of the strategies and styles they use and they would be matched in this respect with their teacher and course books. Moreover, it is possible that the future classroom will be a workplace to focus on ameliorating the learners' different types of misconceptions.

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Listening Comprehension for Tenth Grade Students in Tabaria High School for Girls

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Abstract—The paper analyzes listening comprehension of English language skills for tenth grade students at Tabaria high school in the city of Irbid in Jordan. The paper answers the following questions: 1. What are the factors that determine students' interest in learning English? 2. How frequently listening educational instruments are used to improve the listening skills for student? 3. What are the common difficulties that face the respondents in the questionnaire implemented in this paper in terms of listening comprehension? Thus, the paper aims to find the factors influencing English listening comprehension and the strategies to be taken that might improve students' listening comprehension. The paper indicates that the current problems face students in developing listening comprehension skills are speed speech, limited knowledge of vocabulary, and limited knowledge of the subject in question. Further studies could be conducted to gauge the issue of listening comprehension at the university level-among university students-and the use of listening educational instruments.

Index Terms—English language, Jordan, listening comprehension, school, university

I. RELATED LITERATURE (THEORETICAL BACKGROUND)

The demand for English speaking proficiency among students is rising. More specifically, listening comprehension has recently attracted considerable attention in Jordan. Despite students having mastered the basic elements of English such as grammar and vocabulary, their listening comprehension is in general weak.

Beginning in the early 70's, work by Asher, Postovsky, Winitz and, later, Krashen, brought attention to the role of listening as a tool for understanding and emphasized it as a key factor in facilitating language learning. Thus, listening has emerged as an important component in the process of second language acquisition (Feyten, 1991).

Language learning depends on listening since it provides the aural input that serves as the basis for language acquisition and enables learners to interact in spoken communication. Listening is the first language mode that children acquire. It provides the foundation for all aspects of language and cognitive development, and it plays a life-long role in the processes of communication. A study by Wilt (1950), found that people listen 45 percent of the time they spend communicating. This study is still widely cited (e.g., Martin, 1987; Strother, 1987). Wilt found that 30 percent of communication time was spent speaking, 16 percent reading, and 9 percent writing. That finding confirmed what Rankin discovered in 1928, that people spent 70 percent of their waking time communicating and those three-fourths of this time was spent listening and speaking.

According to Howatt and Dakin (1974), listening is the ability to identify and understand what others are saying. This process involves understanding a speaker's accent or pronunciation, the speaker's grammar and vocabulary, and comprehension of meaning. An able listener is capable of doing these four things simultaneously.

In terms of language processing, it is now generally accepted that learners need access to both top-down as well as bottom-up processing strategies. Bottom-up processing strategies focus on the individual components of spoken and written messages, i.e. phonemes, graphemes, individual words and grammatical elements which need to be comprehended in order to understand messages. Top-down processing strategies, on the other hand, focus on macro-features of text such as the writer's or speaker's purpose, topic of the message, the overall structure of the text (Nunan 1991:4).

Bottom-up listening involves the listener in scanning the input to identify familiar lexical items, segmenting the stream of speech into constituents, for example, in order to recognize that (a book of mine) consists of four words. In addition, bottom-up listening helps the listener in using phonological cues to identify the information in an utterance format. Finally, bottom-up listening helps the listener use grammatical cues to organize the inputs into constituents, for example, in order to recognize that in the book which I lent you (the book) and (which I lent you) are major constituents rather than (the book which I) and (lent you). Top-down listening strategies, on the other hand, involve the listener in assigning an interaction to part of a particular event, such as storytelling, joking, praying, complaining, assigning persons, places, and things to categories, inferring cause and effect relationships, anticipating outcomes, inferring the topic of a discourse, inferring the sequence between events, and inferring missing details (Richards 1990).

In the context of English Academic Purposes (EAP), the listening skills required in a strictly academic sense are those needed for listening to lectures. However, the use of media is also of potential academic interest as news

broadcasting and documentaries are all potentially valuable learning aids (McErlain 1999).

Listening is often erroneously considered a passive skill. In fact, in order to decode a message that the speaker is delivering, the listener must actively contribute knowledge from both linguistic and non-linguistic sources. The view of listening would involve the learner in listening to the message without paying attention to its component elements. Listening to a language can be defined as the ability to receive and decode oral communication by processing a language sample (McErlain 1999). Ronald and Roskelly (1985) define listening as an active process requiring the same skills of prediction, hypothesizing, checking, revising, and generalizing that writing and reading demand; and these authors present specific exercises to make students active listeners who are aware of the "inner voice" one hears when writing. In other words, listening is a two-way process involving reception, decoding of input, and production that involves predicting and compensating.

II. OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The paper aims at identifying the reasons that make some female students in high school master the English language skills while other female students do not master it. In addition, the paper's goal is to highlight the main obstacles facing female students in acquiring listening skills. The paper also analyzes the methods used to master the listening skills.

The focus of the paper was directed toward high school students because the problems in listening have their origins in high school where few students have been the recipients of listening teaching. Thus, when these high school students move to college they find it difficult to adapt to college English teaching. During their first year of college English, the problem of listening deficiency is mostly noticeable. If this problem need to be corrected it has to be done at the high school level first.

More specifically, the paper will try to answer the following questions: What are the reasons behind attracting some female students to learn English while others do not show the same affection? What are the methods used in learning listening skills? And what are the difficulties facing those female students in learning listening skills?

III. METHODOLOGY

In this paper, the author approaches listening skills from the perspective of students in classroom. A questionnaire is used as a neutral tool so as to find out the kind of methods used in teaching English skills and the kind of difficulties students face.

The language used in the questionnaire is Arabic and as such it was straightforward for students to answer the questions in the questionnaire. For purpose of the paper, the author distributed the questionnaire among Tenth grade students in Tabaria High School for Girls in the city of Irbid, Jordan. There are 44 respondents. For the purpose of this paper, the author translated the questionnaire from the Arabic language into the English language.

Like all other Jordanian students in high schools, participants in the questionnaire started learning English as a foreign language in the fifth grade. However, nowadays, students start learning English in the first grade. Participants in the questionnaire were homogenous in terms of linguistic skills, socioeconomic background, educational system, and field of study.

The concept of this paper was given to students in the classroom through their teacher(s). The author intentionally avoided conducting personal interviews with the students to give those participants the freedom to answer the questions and express themselves without any interference by the author.

IV. DISCUSSION AND DATA ANALYSIS

By looking at the table below, it becomes clear that out of the total number of female students of (44) there are (21) who would like or have an interest in learning English language skill. In other words, these 21 female students constitute 47.7% of the total percentage of students. On the other hand, those female students do not have interest in learning English language skills amount to (23) students i.e. 52.3%. It is to be noticed that there is no big gap between those who expressed interest in learning English and those who did not show the same interest.

TABLE 1
DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENT ACCORDING TO INTEREST IN LEARNING ENGLISH

Distribution of Respondents	Number	Percentage
Those who showed interest in learning English	21	47.7%
Those did not Express interest in learning English	23	52.3%
Total	44	100%

The paper highlights that the factors that affect students' interest in learning English include:

1. Importance of English in real life. The total number of respondents who gave the English language this importance in real life is (9) out of (21) who showed interest in learning English. In other words, the percentage for those (9) students is 40%.

2. Desire to learn foreign language because it is fun thing to do. The total number of respondents for this point is (7) out of (21) which amounts to 36%.

As for female students who expressed no interest in learning English, the total number of students is (23) i.e. 52.3% of the total number of the sample (44). The author believes that this number is very high. Some of the reasons mentioned by these students for not being interested in learning English include: hardship they face in learning English; no enough time to learn; lack of continuity for learning English.

TABLE 2
USING DIFFERENT MEANS TO ENHANCE ENGLISH LEARNING SKILLS

The means	Using the means				Total	
	Answers (yes)		Answers (no)		Number	Percentage%
	Number	Percentage%	Number	Percentage%		
Radio	2	4.5	42	95.5	44	100
TV	31	70	13	30	44	100
Tape recorder	8	18	36	82	44	100

The importance of utilizing learning tools, which is the topic of this paper, in mastering English language skills cannot be underestimated. Table 2 clearly indicates that using radio as a learning tool is low when compared with other tools or methods. More specifically, the percentage of respondents who used radio was 4.5% while 95.5% of the students do not use radio. It is expected that the rationale for the former students not to use the radio as a learning method can be contributed to their weakness in listening comprehension.

TV occupies the first place among other learning methods. Around (31) students indicated that they use TV as learning method for listening comprehension. In other words, 70% of the total students use TV. The reason for this overwhelming use of TV can be contributed to the joy and entertainment one experience when watching TV so that students attention are attracted to the images displayed on TV.

According to the data displayed above, dependence on tape recorder to learn English language skills is low. As a matter of fact, just (8) students, i.e. 18%, said that they use this method to learn English. To put in a different way, 36 students said that they do not use the tape recorder method. The author believes that these statistics are disappointing as the percentage of those using tape recorder should be higher since this method is easy to use, has low cost to own, and it can be easy moved from one place to another. Moreover, using the tape recorder can help students record their own statements and hear again. It is unfortunate that the methods of radio and tape recorder are not well-used although they have so many benefits in helping students improve their listening comprehension.

The presence of a teacher in a classroom is considered among the most important tools used in learning English language skills including listening comprehension. However, according the study conducted for the purpose of this article, it becomes clear to the author that teachers never use radio or TV as learning method. Somewhat, teachers use tape recorder. It is clear that there is weakness and limitation in using the different kinds of learning methods although some of these methods are easy to use and cheap to own. Therefore, using different learning methods should be inseparable part of the teacher's way of teaching English skills.

Analyzing the data collected for this paper points out that 54% of respondents have improved their listening comprehension via the teacher while the remaining percentage have not learnt much. In addition, students' listening comprehension based on the use of radio, TV, and tape recorder was very good (54%), good (30%), and weak (16%) respectively. As to the degree of satisfaction among students for the method used to learn listening comprehension skills for English language, about 30% of students were satisfied, 43% were moderately satisfied, and 27% less or minimally satisfied.

The author is interested in knowing the issues students face in listening comprehension according to the following table.

TABLE 3
LIST OF PROBLEMS STUDENTS FACE IN LISTENING COMPREHENSION

Reasons	Yes	No	Total
1) Speech Speed:			
Number	22	22	44%
Percentage	50%	50%	100%
2) Limited knowledge of vocabulary and structures of sentences:			
Number	29	15	44
Percentage	66%	34%	100%
3) Limited knowledge in the discussed subject:			
Number	25	19	44
Percentage	58%	42%	100%

Based on the data included in the previous table, it is to be noted that:

1) Speech speed by the speaker affect 50% of students in their ability to master listening comprehension of the English language while the other 50% of students do not consider speech speed an obstacle in the face of learning. The

B) The Aids (radio, T.V, tape recorder)

Good Moderate Week

5. What is your satisfaction about the methodology of learning listening skills?

High Moderate Week

6. What are the difficulties you face in learning comprehension skills?

A) Speed Speech

Yes No

B) Limited Knowledge of vocabulary and sentence structures

Yes No

C) Limited knowledge of the subject being discussed

Yes No

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A Peer and Self-assessment Project Implemented in Practical Group Work

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Abstract—Group study which takes students as the central study pattern is of great help for English learners. Nowadays many English teachers select this kind teaching and learning method in the classroom with the aim of enhancing learner's study interest, stimulating their motivation and obtaining the better study result. But actually, the group study simultaneously exists many problems which seriously influence learning effect when it is carrying out in the classroom. However theories and previous researches prove that peer and self-assessment can make students have a clear learning target, discipline themselves and therefore generate better learning results. So peer and self-assessment was put into practical group study in the classroom. Through observing, researching and analyzing of the implementation of it in the classroom, it was found peer and self-assessment could effectively prevent the problems occurring and promoted the group study efficiency greatly.

Index Terms—group study, peer and self-assessment, feedback, learning outcome

I. INTRODUCTION

In language teaching and learning, two kinds of ability of the use of Language are involved. "One kind is the ability to select which form of sentences is appropriate for a particular linguistic context. The second is the ability to recognize which function is fulfilled by a sentence in a particular communicative situation" (H.G. Widdowson, 1978, p.6). Group work is a good way to make students know how to put English language in a communicative use. A research from Oakland University told us that compared to students taught traditionally, students taught in a manner that incorporate in small-group learning achieve higher grades, learn at a deep level, retain information longer (Oakley, et al., 2004). In terms of speaking, sufficient practice enables students to achieve fluency. Group work can increase the frequency and efficiency of interaction and expression. First and for most, it is conducive to develop student oral communication and problem-solving capabilities. In an easy setting, students have more and better opportunities for freedom to speak. As McCroskey (1984) said students tend to be willing to communicate with others in the target language because of a feeling of comfort, high self-esteem, low anxiety and a desire to take moderate but intelligent risks. Group work provides a communicative environment in which students ultimately have to use the language, productively and receptively, in unrehearsed contexts (Brown, 1980). Group work does provide every team member full opportunities to give play their capability and establish good relations of cooperation. But at the same time group study exists many problems which seriously affect students' learning effect and outcome. The problems are as following: in group study, some students are not centralized when they are in the discussion. They often get off the subject, discussing some contents which have nothing to do with the subject. Some students remove themselves outside the group--study by themselves, or do something else. Some do not listen attentively when their classmates are making presentation, as if it has nothing to do with his or her. In addition, students ignore the chances of learning from each other in group discussion or group presentation. Moreover, individual student's performance and the development are neglected easily by the teacher who is more directed his or her attention on group progress in the process of group learning. Obviously, all of the above problems hinder the smooth development and efficiency of group learning and individual student learning outcome.

However, Peer and self-evaluation assessment is an important way of solving the problems existed in group learning. Peer assessment is an assessment of students by other students, both formative reviews to provide feedback and summative grading (Stephen Bostock, 2000). If something is not assessed it can be seen by students and by staff to be of lesser importance than those aspects of a course which are assessed. Students' attention is therefore focused on those course goals which appear to be assessed over others which are not (David Bound, 1999). Richard G. Sober (2009) stressed self and peer assessment can make students reflect on their own contribution to the team and also voice their opinions on their co-workers and it is essential they have confidence that a sense of fairness will prevail in the marking process. Eddy White (2009) found that peer assessment process did indeed help support and promote student learning about constructing, delivering and judging effective presentations. Luo Shaoqian (2003) suggests assessment is not only

consistent with the syllabus, but also consistent with the known learning strategies. In peer assessment, students have the opportunity to observe the whole process of learning of their peers, and often the details they observed are more than that of teachers. Peer assessment also promotes autonomous learning, reflective learning and less dependence on the teacher as the supposed expert (Brindley and Scoffield, 1998). It helps students to become more autonomous learners, better able to recognize the strengths and weaknesses of their own work; it enables assessment to become part of the learning process rather than an adjunct to it; Involving students in the assessment process. Andrew Sabaratnam (2006) finds students learn a great deal from each other, and with large student numbers, the importance of student feedback increases as the availability of tutor feedback decreases. Setting up and facilitating student peer-assessment can provide students with deep learning experiences as well as a wealth of feedback to evaluate. Other research concludes students can become better language learners when they engage in deliberate thought about what they are learning and how they are learning it. In this kind of reflection, students step back from the learning process to think about their language learning strategies and their progress as language learners. Such self assessment encourages students to become independent learners and can increase their motivation (Winnie Cheng and Martin Warren, 2000). Allowing students to assess the performance of other group members may therefore provide a more justifiable means of assessment. In a research report from Gu Ying (2006), it shows that partner evaluation methods in the Chinese university classroom in teaching spoken English has a certain validity. Most students hold a supportive attitude of positive evaluation methods; and partner evaluation and teacher evaluation scores are very close. This assessment method can stir up interest in learning, learning motivation and sense of responsibility, to establish a friendly and active benign. In Su Xiuguan's (et al., 2005) action experiment research, she proved that show that students' involvement in developing evaluation criteria and peer assessment promote their studies. She suggested peer assessment should be introduced into the courses and allow students to participate in the making assessment standards in order to benefit student learning and future employment.

From the above statements, we can see peer and self-assessment plays an essential part in our teaching and students' learning process. Through peer and self-evaluation evaluation students can promote mutual supervision among members of the group and learn from each other. It helps stimulate students' motivation.

II. THE ASSESSMENT RUBRICS DESIGNING

How to assess student oral English ability is an important aspect of concern. If criteria is too strict and too demanding, it easily leads to students a sense of tension and anxiety and students real standard can't be assessed efficiently; if standard is too low, even without request, it will become a mess and greatly reduce the efficiency of the assessment, all of which will affect the improvement of students learning outcome. In order to mobilize learning enthusiasm of students which is the basic purpose, to improve learner participation, to minimize anxiety, to low self-esteem of students and to strengthen classroom learning process control, the criteria is the key point in assessments.

The assessment rubric for students' practical group learning was made basing Bloom's taxonomy, which helps us determine teaching and assessment of goals. His cognitive objectives in the field include six main categories: knowledge; comprehend; use; analysis; synthesis; evaluation (Nitko, 2007). From low to high ,the Goals not only emphasizes the knowledge, memories and, more importantly emphasize the cultivation of student's intelligence and reflects the cumulative nature of knowledge and level of classification, namely high-level teaching goal is to be achieved through a low-level goals. Bloom's taxonomy is the student behavior is from simple to complex according to the order of arrangement and, therefore, educational objectives are of continuity and cumulative. He focuses on the evaluation of the learning process and looks evaluation as part of the learning process. He advocates teaching should be more use of alternative evaluation methods-formative evaluation. As our students were graduates, they had high cognitive ability, the ability of controlling and the ability of analysis and criticism. Therefore, our main purpose was to assess students' high order thinking--the ability of solving problems by using English and the communication ability in making oral presentation in a real context.

When making particular educational decisions, effective peer evaluation needs a reasonable evaluation principles, they are:

Be clear about the learning targets you want to assess.

Be sure that the assessment techniques you select match each learning target.

Be sure that the selected assessment techniques serve the needs of the learners.

Be sure to use multiple indicators of achievement for each learning target

Be sure that when you interpret the result of assessment you take their limitation into account (Nitko, 2007)

Basing on the above the principles, the peer assessment rubric was made. In order to let students understand and acknowledge the purpose, the importance and the usefulness of the peer and self-assessment, the expectations of them as members participating in group work and how they should contribute towards group work. During the process of making the rubric, students were asked to be involved in the particular assessment decision. Firstly, assessment criteria was presented to students and asked them to give suggestions. Students put forward reasonable some suggestions to the criteria. Then the teacher moderated it according to students' suggestions. Finally evaluation criteria was produced with the involvement of students' work. See Appendix I (Amy Hamilton, 2010) and Appendix II.

The join of discussion of assessment rubrics not only have students to get a clear understanding of the assessment of

the implementation of standards, operating methods, but also enhance the communication and interaction between teachers and students and promote effective learning and teaching.

III. THE IMPLEMENTATION AND PEER AND SELF-ASSESSMENT IN PRACTICAL GROUP WORK

The assessment activity was held twice. The twice assessments activity was anonymous.. 33 students involved in the group and assessment work was divided into 8 groups--4-5 students as a group. All of them were non-English major graduates. For the first time, the assessment was taken within the scale of each group. Each group was given two hours to design and discuss a project of group presentation. The rubric was distributed to each student. See appendix I. After group work, students rated the contribution of each group members and gave comments. The teachers talked with students who were rated low and gave comments in the whole class. The comments were mainly praising and encouraging. Then the peer rating results were feedback to each student. The second time of assessment was held within the scale of the whole class. Each group did a 20-minute presentation with a further 3 minutes for questioning. Each presentation centered around the topic with group members' previous discussion. After each group presentation, student audience had 5 minutes to rate the performance of each group and gave comments, and then to the next round. Each student rated 3 group's performance. The specific requirements were provided to students ahead of two weeks in order to enable students to understand the learning targets and have better learning results. The rubric handout was explained in details in case students made unfair scoring due to ambiguous about the meaning of the rubrics. After all groups' presentation and peer assessment were completed, the evaluation of the results of each group was returned to each group being evaluated to let them get a more comprehensive and evaluation results. Then a face-to-face talk between the teacher and each group members was given and the feedback from the teacher's was provided at the same time. Finally, each student carried out a written self-assessment to enhance a better and complete learning task motivation.

After the peer assessment activity, the teachers had an interview with every group. Students express their opinions of the assessment activity frankly. One said: "I feel it interesting and like it." "I learned a lot from my classmates by rating them." "It makes me excited to be rated and to rate others." There were students spoke frankly:"In the past I usually turned a deaf ear when my classmates were doing presentation. Now I can't. I have to focus my attention on their performance." "Because my classmates were assessing my performance, I forced myself to speak more." a shy student said. One student said: "By reading the comments my classmates gave me, I know I should make my pronunciation clearer and correct afterwards, otherwise the audience do not understand what I'm talking about." Students also said:" Rating is like a mirror which allows us to see our own mistakes and know which mistakes could be avoided." "With the evaluation task, I cannot be distracted. It trains my listening and reminds of myself: Don't make the same mistake as theirs."

After talking with each group students, the teachers' feedback was given to each group both as encouragement and as an instruction for their improvement of future learning. Then each student was asked to make a self-assessment--rating himself and write down their reflections of their performance in the group activities such as advantages, disadvantages and future improvement strategies, and then handed them to the teacher. In their own writing-down assessment, every student made an objective judgment for himself. Some of them said they liked this kind of learning style and hoped other similar English course, such as writing, listening and reading, should adopt it too.

IV. THE ANALYSIS OF IMPLEMENTATION PEER AND SELF-ASSESSMENT IN GROUP WORK

By implementation of peer and self- assessment in group work students, evaluators and students who were evaluated were all involved in the evaluation process felt the benefits of peer and self-assessment. Peer and self assessment also enhanced the sense of students' responsibility and initiative. D. Sluijsmans (et al., 1998) self-assessment, used in most cases to promote the learning of skills and abilities, leads to more reflection on one's own work, higher quality of products, responsibility for one's own learning, and increasing understanding of problem solving Somervell (1993) found that peer assessment engages students in making judgments about the work or the performance of other students. Students views of peer and self assessment clearly showed that a peer rating did stimulate greater participation and responsibility, establish a clear assessment structure, and improve learning skills and provide more feedback. The performance also proved that students more enthusiastically and actively participated in the group discussion than before. Rare students were found to be distracted away from the group discussion. They performed better in public speaking, they got a good listening habit, and more cooperative. It could be seen from their carefully listening and keep taking notes from the beginning to the end in order to make the assessment well-founded. Implementation peer and self-assessment allowed students both to exchange learning and experience from the performance of fellow students. Self and peer assessment nurture students to learn how to correctly assess their own learning results and learn to be responsible for their own learning. For the evaluators, the adoption of evaluation of others provides a more in-depth look at their own work and found their own inadequacies. It is also the process of promoting evaluators themselves. In the classroom, the process of timely rating and comments made students have timely reflection of their own learning. As Rob East (2008) noted that one of the most obvious benefits of self assessment is that it relates very closely to the aims of personal development planning. This involves students engaging in critical self reflection, focusing on obtaining a clearer idea of the features of effective learning and thereby increasing their understanding of the subject matter being

studied. Besides, students' assessment provided the teacher valuable information of having a deep understanding of each individual student learning so that the teacher could design a better teaching syllabus and made teaching and learning more targeted and rate students final grades more fair and objective. Because the assessment marks would put into final grades, all the students were extremely carefully and diligent when they were doing group work, assessment and presentation.

Peer and self-assessment is an important component of formative assessment which is often used to set the speed of learning for students to ensure that students to engage in a targeted learning task, to enhance the role of learning, to reveal where the problem lies. It not only changes the previous single interaction between teachers and students, but also greater emphasizes the interaction between peers.

V. VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY

Whether the assessment is valid or not, it depends on "how the results are interpreted and used" (Nitko, 2007, p.38). Validity was ensured basically in peer and self-assessment implemented in this practical group work. Because this assessment was implemented based on the requirement of curriculum and was carried out in a real communicative context. Students' ability of solving problems was fully assessed in a real communicative context in which students fully embodied their ability to using English of solving problems and the ability of cooperation etc. The basic purpose of the evaluation was achieved. Another embodiment of validity of peer and self-assessment was it provided a good guide. It inspired the enthusiasm of students learning and very helpful for teachers to design next teaching program. Of course, one time's assessment couldn't determine the actual English proficiency of students. In the future the same assessment should be implemented in classroom teaching at least three times. If the assessment results are consistent, it will be more valid. Reliability is not the assessment instrument itself, it refers to "the consistency of an assessment results if and when they are repeated" (Nitko, 2007, p.57). This assessment has its reliability. Because the evaluation rubric was uniform for all the students who were involved in the assessment. They were from the same profession, the range of their English proficiency differences was the same, and each group assessors was random chosen. All of these avoided the bias in the process of assessment and ensure the results consistent.

VI. CONCLUSION

As peer and self-assessment is based on student-centered, most students expressed their liking of it. It mobilizes students' enthusiasm, motivates students in their learning, multi-directionally increases their participation in classroom activities, thereby it enhances their oral communicative competence. And as learning is built on the concept of problem-based learning, student cognitive awareness is raised. They are aware of where their strong points are and where their weak points are through peer and self assessment and get to learn how to solve their learning problems. The implementation of peer and self-assessment makes final assessment more rational and convincing, makes teachers better understanding students' learning. Timely, clear and objective feedback provided makes teachers in peer and self-assessment ensure student effective learning and provide encouragement to enhance communication and exchange between teachers and students more powerful learning ability will be reinforced. It also shows that the positive comments from teachers can protect students' self-esteem, self-confidence so as to enhance their learning enthusiasm and initiative.

Potential problems may occur when students doing assessment. For example, some students may rate unfairly because of some personal subjective reasons, but with careful attention, arrangement and implementation, the problems can be avoidable to a great length. Anyhow, the implementation of peer and self assessment really a good way to promote group work efficiency and it is valuable to be popularized in group work.

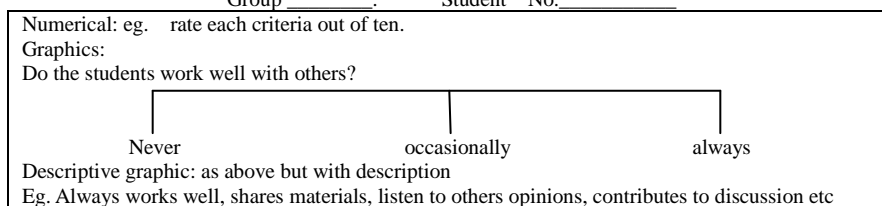
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APPENDIX I

Rating Scales

Group _____ Student No. _____



(Amy Hamilton, 2010)

APPENDIX II

Group _____		Peer Assessment Rubric		
	articulation	coherence	Flexibility and relevance	Total score
100-85	Plenty vocabularies, correct grammar, good pronunciation	a long and coherent speaking, occasional pause when speaking	Natural and active participation in talking, use proper words	
84--75	Plenty vocabularies. There're mistakes in grammar and pronunciation, but doesn't affect communication.	Short and simple speaking, long time pause, complete the communication basically	Active participation, sometimes not keep the point, properly use words basically	
74--60	Less vocabularies, mistakes in grammar and pronunciation, affect communication	Short and simple speaking, longer time pause, complete communication basically.	participate in the discussion, sometimes unable to suitable for new topic	
59--0	Much less words, more mistakes in grammar and pronunciation so that block communication	Very short and simple speaking, no coherence, almost no communication	Almost unable to join in the discussion,	

Comments: _____

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The Impact of Instruction on Iranian Intermediate EFL Learners' Production of Requests in English

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Abstract—The present study investigated the extent to which two instructional paradigms—explicit vs. implicit instruction—affect learners' ability to use the speech act of request in English. Ninety homogenous adult Iranian intermediate EFL learners attending a language school in Isfahan, Iran, were randomly assigned to three groups: Explicit Group (EG), Implicit Group (IG) and Control Group (CG). A pre-test was given to the three groups to measure the participants' ability to use requests prior to any treatment. Then, all the groups were exposed to short conversations (audio and script) including certain requests. However, while the EG received explicit and deductive instruction by means of direct awareness-raising tasks and metapragmatic explanations, the IG was provided only with typographical enhancement of the request strategies in focus. The students in the CG did not receive any instruction. The results of the post-test, administered after the treatment, indicated that both explicit and implicit instruction exert a significant effect on the learners' production of request strategies in English. It was also found that participants who received explicit instruction outperformed those in the implicit group; however, the observed difference was not statistically significant. Accordingly, it can be claimed that an implicit and unobtrusive method such as input enhancement can be as effective as explicit instruction which requires the execution of various awareness-raising tasks and explanation of metapragmatic information.

Index Terms—explicit language instruction, implicit language instruction, pragmatic development, speech acts, requests

I. INTRODUCTION

A few decades ago research in interlanguage pragmatics (ILP) focused mainly on the interaction norms employed in different languages and cultures. Mostly, such research aimed at comparing second language (L2) learners' speech act realization with those of native speakers (Kasper, 1989). More recently, however, research findings indicate that there are considerable differences between L2 learners and native speakers with regard to their perception and production of speech acts (Bardovi-Harlig, 2001). Accordingly, the linguistic area of pragmatics in the context of second language acquisition (SLA) has witnessed a surge of interest in studies that examine L2 learners' pragmatic competence in their interlanguage. More specifically, research in the last decade has focused on the role of instruction in pragmatic development (for reviews, see Martinez-Flor et al., 2003; Kasper, 2001; Kasper and Rose, 2002), and it has been found that learners who receive instruction on different aspects of pragmatics are at a distinct advantage (Olshtain and Cohen, 1990; Takahashi, 2001; Rose and Ng Kwai-Fun, 2001, Safont, 2005 among others).

Two main trends are recognizable in research on instructed ILP. One group of studies has placed more emphasis on examining the teachability of pragmatic features, pragmatic routines, conversational implicature, discourse strategies, politeness in requests, as well as speech acts (Billmyer, 1990; Eslami-Rasekh et al., 2004; Fukuya, 1998; Kondo, 2001, 2004; Rose and Ng Kwai-Fun, 2001; Yoshimi, 2001, to mention a few). These studies have employed an explicit focus on forms (FonFS) approach and they have investigated the effects of explicit teaching of pragmatics by providing metapragmatic information. Another group of studies on instructed ILP has focused mainly on comparing the effects of explicit and implicit instruction on L2 pragmatic awareness and development (House, 1996; Pearson, 2001; Takahashi, 2001; Tateyama, 2001, Tateyama et al., 1997).

Following this line of inquiry, the present study aimed at investigating the potential effect of instruction on Iranian EFL learners' production of a certain number of request strategies in English. Moreover, this study sought to compare the facilitative effect of explicit instruction with that of implicit instruction on the production of requests.

II. BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

A. Research on ILP

Findings of research conducted on the effects of instruction on pragmatics in SLA have indicated positive effects of such efforts (Kasper, 2001). Most of these studies, which employed explicit instruction where learners were provided with explicit metapragmatic information through explanation, description and discussion of speech acts, have lent support to facilitative effects of explicit instruction (Billmyer, 1990; Takahashi, 2001; Rose and Ng Kwai-Fun, 2001; Tateyama, 2001). In other words, it has been concluded that receiving explicit instruction promotes learners' ability to express more native-like speech acts.

Nevertheless, fewer studies, focused on how implicit instruction leads to pragmatic learning, have presented inconclusive results. For instance, while Martinez-Flor (2004) has demonstrated how L2 learners can benefit from implicit instruction in their pragmatic development, Fukuya and Clark (2001) and Fukuya et al., (1998) have reported insignificant effects of certain types of implicit instruction on pragmatic learning.

B. *Implicit vs. Explicit Instruction and Noticing*

Long (1991) has distinguished between focus on form (FonF) and focus on forms (FonFS). In his view, the latter refers to decontextualized, highly metapragmatic, teacher-centered instruction in which the main objective is to assist learners to accumulate individual language items. The former, however, refers to meaning-focused activities in which learner's attention is drawn to target forms as they arise incidentally in the input. In fact, FonFS employs explicit awareness-raising activities, whereas FonF methods such as input enhancement indirectly and unobtrusively draw learners' attention to target forms.

Moreover, an increasingly well-established line of work has underscored the role of noticing and attention in SLA (Schmidt, 1990, 1995, 2001; Tomlin and Villa, 1994; Robinson, 1995). Emphasis has been placed on the legitimacy of a FonF approach to language teaching (Doughty & Williams, 1998) as well as on the importance of indirectly drawing learners' attention to certain linguistic features which might otherwise go unnoticed (Sharwood Smith, 1991, 1993, 1994). However, since most of these studies have addressed grammatical development, more research is needed on the effect of implicit FonF approaches on pragmatic development. Thus, along the same line of research, this study had an eye on the effects of both explicit and implicit instruction on Iranian EFL learners' production of a certain number of request strategies in English.

III. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The research questions to be investigated and answered were as follows:

1. Does explicit instruction exert a significant impact on Iranian EFL learners' production of linguistically accurate and pragmatically appropriate requests?
2. Does implicit instruction have significant impact on Iranian EFL learners' production of linguistically accurate and pragmatically appropriate requests?
3. Is there a significant difference between explicit and implicit instruction with regard to the influence these two approaches to teaching exert on EFL learners' production of linguistically accurate and pragmatically appropriate requests?

IV. METHOD

A. *Participants*

The participants in this study were 120 Iranian intermediate EFL learners, age 19-27, attending a language center in Isfahan, Iran. In order to make sure in objective terms that these learners were truly homogenous with regard to their English proficiency level, a Nelson English Language Proficiency Test (Fowler and Coe, 1976) was given to them. Having obtained the proficiency test results, the researchers decided to choose those participants whose score range fell one standard deviation above and below the mean (i.e. mean \pm 1). This being so, 90 students met this homogeneity criterion and were thus selected to serve as the participants of this study. Later, they were randomly assigned to the three groups (two experimental and one control) involved in the study (30 students each).

B. *Instructional Foci*

The instructional foci in this study were ten different structures to perform the speech act of request. These target forms were selected from three English teaching series: New Interchange, 3rd Edition (Richards et al. (2005)); American Headway (Soars and Soars (2001)), and Top Notch (Saslow and Ascher, (2006)). The ten request patterns in focus were classified into two categories according to the sociopragmatic factor of status:¹

Equal status patterns (equal status between a speaker and the interlocutor) included: *Will you open the door?*; *Can I use your pen?*; *Could you lend me ten bucks?*; *Is it OK if I use your pen?*; *Do you mind if I use your camera?*

Higher status pattern (higher status of an interlocutor than that of the speaker) included: *Would it be OK if I borrowed your car tomorrow?*; *Would you mind if I used your cell phone?*; *Would you mind opening the door?*; *I wonder if I could borrow some money?*; *I was wondering if you'd mind lending me your car?*

¹ The target forms in focus are in italics.

C. Procedures and Treatment

The experimental sequence of the study was carried out over a period of around twelve weeks. As noted earlier, 90 homogenous learners were randomly assigned to three groups: an explicit group (EG), an implicit group (IG) and a control group (CG). One week prior to the first treatment session, all the participants took the pre-test which was a ten-item Discourse Completion Task (DCT) designed to elicit the request speech act in different situations and assess the learners' knowledge of these prior to any type of treatment (see Appendix A for sample items of the pre- and the post-test). Then, every group underwent ten different treatment sessions. There was an interval of around 5 or 6 days between the treatment sessions, and the post-test (another DCT with different items) followed the last teaching session a week later. In an attempt to control for outside exposure to the target form, after completing the post-test, the learners were asked whether they had consulted with anyone or anything about the target form. The data from those who reported having done so were discarded. For this reason, the groups slightly differed in size; there were 28, 26, 25 participants in EG, IG and CG, respectively.

The instruction for the explicit group was characterized by explicitness and deduction following the principles of a FonFS approach. This group first listened to a short conversation including the requests in focus. Then, they received a scripted version of the conversation, and participated in a series of direct awareness-raising (i.e., listening to teacher's explanations about grammatical rules involved and the metapragmatic information on appropriateness of requests) and productive (i.e., role-plays) activities. In other words, students in EG received explicit instruction on grammatical accuracy of the target forms and metapragmatic information about their appropriate use as well as tasks on the themes in the conversations (see Appendix B for examples of activities used with EG).

The treatment for the implicit group employed a FonF technique—visual input enhancement. After listening to the same conversations, the students in IG received the script in which the target forms (i.e., requests in focus) appeared in bold (See Appendix C for sample excerpts). That is, unlike the EG students for whom the target forms appeared in plain text-type, IG students were provided with typographical enhancement of the target forms. The purpose of using input enhancement was to indirectly draw learners' attention to forms, function and appropriate usage without embarking on explanation about grammar or metapragmatic information about appropriate use.

Those in the control group listened to the conversations and were provided with the scripts in plain text-type. Needless to say, they received neither implicit nor explicit instruction on requests.

D. Tests and Scoring Procedure

Since this study was designed to focus on the pragmatic learning of certain requests by EFL learners after certain types of treatment were employed, a pre-test and a post-test (see Appendix A for sample questions) were constructed by the researchers to assess the participants' knowledge of requests prior to and after the treatment phase of the study. Both tests were DCTs constituting ten different situations to which the students were required to respond by providing a request. It should be noted that the situations in the pre- and post-test were all different and since the pre- and post-test utilized in this study were researcher-made ones, they were both piloted prior to use and an alpha Cronbach method was applied to guarantee their reliability. Reliability indexes revealed that the researcher-made tests were acceptable for the purpose of the study.

Participants' responses to pre- and post-test items (their use of requests) were scored considering the type of language used; that is, each linguistically accurate and pragmatically appropriate request was given a single point. Answers which were grammatical but not pragmatically appropriate or vice versa were given half a point, and answers which were neither grammatical nor appropriate were given zero. All the correct answers added up to a total sum. It should be noted that following Trosborg's proposal (1995) on request realization strategies, the appropriateness of requests was decided upon considering two variables: social distance of the interlocutors and the size of the favor.

V. STATISTICAL ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

A. Pre-test of the Study

For the groups to be comparable and for an experiment like this to be meaningful, the researchers had to make sure that the learners in the experimental and control groups enjoyed the same level of knowledge regarding the linguistic forms under investigation (i.e. request patterns). To meet this requirement, a pre-test was given to all three groups to measure their knowledge of the requests in focus. Table 1 shows the descriptive statistics of the participants' mean scores on the pre-test across the three groups.

TABLE 1.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR THE PRE-TEST

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
EG	28	2.50	7.50	4.8036	1.17331
IG	26	3.00	7.00	4.8654	1.08220
CG	25	3.00	7.50	4.9400	1.10227
Valid N (listwise)	25				

It can be seen in the above table that the mean scores for the three groups are statistically very close (4.8036~4.8654~4.9400). Therefore, it can be concluded that the learners in the three groups did not differ greatly from one another in terms of their knowledge of the target forms in question. That is, the participants' prior knowledge of the target forms was statistically almost equal.

B. Research Question 1

The first research question asked whether explicit instruction exerts a significant influence on the acquisition of requests by Iranian intermediate EFL learners. To investigate the impact of explicit instruction on the participants' production of requests, a paired-samples t-test was run. The t-test was intended to compare the obtained mean scores of the participants in EG on the pre- and post-test to indicate the effectiveness of the treatment. The descriptive statistics, along with the results of the t-test for EG, are presented in Tables 2 and 3, respectively.

TABLE 2.
PAIRED SAMPLES DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR EG

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	EG Posttest	7.8393	28	1.16312	.21981
	EG Pretest	4.8036	28	1.17331	.22173

TABLE 3.
PAIRED SAMPLES T-TEST RESULTS FOR EG

	Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
				Lower	Upper			
Pair 1 EG Posttest EG Pretest	3.03571	1.50264	.28397	2.45305	3.61838	10.690	27	.000

Given the information in Table 2, one can clearly see that the mean score obtained on the post-test (7.8393) is higher than the one obtained on the pre-test (4.8036). However, a paired-samples t-test was run to ensure that the observed difference was significant. Table 3 shows that there is a significant difference in the scores obtained from the pre- and post-test because the probability value is substantially smaller than the specified critical value (0.000<0.05). Accordingly, it can be claimed that explicit instruction was shown to exert a positive effect on the acquisition of the given requests.

C. Research Question 2

The second research question asked whether input enhancement has a significant effect on the acquisition of requests by Iranian intermediate EFL learners. To answer this question, a paired-samples t-test was conducted. Tables 4 and 5 provide the descriptive statistics, along with the results of the given paired-samples t-test.

TABLE 4.
PAIRED SAMPLES DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR IG

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	IG Posttest	7.5962	26	1.00019	.19615
	IG Pretest	4.8654	26	1.08220	.21224

TABLE 5.
PAIRED SAMPLES T-TEST RESULTS FOR IG

	Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
				Lower	Upper			
Pair 1 IG Posttest IG Pretest	2.73077	1.21021	.23734	2.24195	3.21958	11.506	25	.000

On a closer inspection of the mean scores given in Table 4, one can clearly see that the participants in IG gained a higher mean score on the post-test after receiving the treatment (Pos-test=7.5962>Pre-test=4. 8654). However, the

researchers had to go further to find out whether or not the observed difference was significant. Therefore, the results of the t-test were taken into account. It can be concluded from the information presented in Table 5 that there is a significant difference in the performance of the participants on the pre- and post-test. This conclusion can be drawn because the probability value in Table 5 is observed to be 0.000 which is less than the critical value (0.05). In sum, it can be maintained that input enhancement has a positive impact on the Iranian intermediate EFL learners' production of requests.

D. Research Question 3

The last research question asked whether there is a significant difference between explicit methods of instruction and input enhancement as an implicit method of instruction with regard to the influence these two approaches to teaching exert on the production of certain request patterns by Iranian intermediate EFL learners. The descriptive statistics of the scores obtained from the post-test demonstrate that the members of the experimental groups (EG and IG) outperformed those of the control group (CG). In fact, one can see in Table 6 that the mean score obtained by EG (7.8393) exceeds the mean score obtained by IG (7.5962) which is, in turn, higher than the mean score belonging to CG (5.1600).

TABLE 6.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR THE POST-TEST

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
EG	28	6.00	10.00	7.8393	1.16312
IG	26	6.00	9.00	7.5962	1.00019
CG	25	3.00	8.00	5.1600	1.43411
Valid N (listwise)	25				

Having gained some rudimentary information about the differences in the performance of the members of the three groups on the post-test, the researchers had to determine whether or not the observed differences were significant at the critical value (Sig.) of $p < 0.05$. Therefore, a one-way between-groups ANOVA was conducted. Table 7 provides the results of the ANOVA.

TABLE 7.
THE RESULTS OF ANOVA ON THE POST-TEST

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	114.862	2	57.431	40.346	.000
Within Groups	108.182	76	1.423		
Total	223.044	78			

On a closer inspection of Table 7, one can conclude that the three groups differed significantly with respect to their mean scores on the post-test because the significant value is observed to be 0.000, which is less than the critical value (0.05). Although the information presented in Table 7 is very revealing, it does not show where the observed differences lie. The researchers, therefore, had to run a Scheffe Post-hoc test. This post-hoc test indicates where the differences among the three groups (i.e. sets of scores) occur. Table 8 provides the results of the post-hoc test.

TABLE 8.
THE RESULTS OF THE POST-HOC TEST

(I) Groups	(J) Groups	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
EG	IG	.27885	.32494	.693	-.5325	1.0902
	CG	2.71500 *	.32829	.000	1.8953	3.5347
IG	EG	-.27885	.32494	.693	-1.0902	.5325
	CG	2.43615 *	.33419	.000	1.6017	3.2706
CG	EG	-2.71500 *	.32829	.000	-3.5347	-1.8953
	IG	-2.43615 *	.33419	.000	-3.2706	-1.6017

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

As mentioned above, the post-hoc test was employed to show where exactly the differences lie. In the above table, where there is an asterisk (*) next to the values listed in the second column, this means that the groups being compared are significantly different from one another at the $p < 0.05$ level. In the first row of the table, the asterisk next to 2.71500 indicates that the difference between EG and CG is significant. Likewise, the difference between IG and CG appears to be significant because an asterisk can be seen next to 2.43615 in the second row of the table. In a nutshell, it can be claimed that CG is significantly different from EG and IG, but there seems to be no significant difference between EG and IG. As a result, it can be claimed that there is no significant difference between explicit and implicit instruction in terms of the influence they exert on the production of requests.

VI. DISCUSSION

This study was an attempt to investigate three research questions: (1) whether explicit instruction exerts a significant influence on the production of requests by Iranian intermediate EFL learners; (2) whether implicit instruction (input enhancement, in particular) has a significant effect on the production of requests by Iranian intermediate EFL learners; and (3) whether there is a significant difference between explicit and implicit instruction with regard to the influence these two approaches to teaching exert on the production of requests by Iranian intermediate EFL learners. In brief, it was revealed that both explicit and implicit instruction have a positive impact on the acquisition of the target forms. Moreover, the findings indicated that these two methods were not significantly different with regard to the influence they exert on the acquisition of the target forms.

Firstly, the fact that learners who received explicit instruction did significantly better on the post-test suggests that explicit instruction was effective in leading learners to produce linguistically accurate and pragmatically appropriate requests. This is in line with previous studies that report the benefits of explicit instruction for L2 pragmatic development (Billmyer, 1990; Bouton, 1994; Rose and Ng Kwai-fun, 2001; Safont, 2003, 2004, 2005; Takahashi, 2001). More specifically, findings with regard to the first research question in this study lend further support to those studies on the positive effects of explicit instruction which employed explanation and discussion of rules as their approach to provide learners with metapragmatic information (Kubota, 1995; LoCastro, 1997; Trosborg, 2003; Yoshimi, 2001; Wishnoff, 2000). The present study, in line with the aforementioned studies, concludes that learners' ability to express more native-like speech acts will improve with explicit instruction, although whether or not that knowledge is retained over time is questionable. Moreover, the significant improvement of the EG in the production of requests in this study can be justified considering Bialystok's position (1993) on two cognitive components of language processing—analysis of knowledge and control of processing. Since EG learners received explicit explanation of rules regarding both accuracy and appropriateness of requests, their pragmatic knowledge must have been developed in terms of metalinguistic knowledge and the relations between forms and appropriate use.

Secondly, the results demonstrating that the learners who received implicit instruction made significant gains with regard to the production of requests concurs with the general findings in earlier studies on the facilitative effects of input enhancement (Shook, 1994; Doughty, 1991; Leeman et al., 1995; Williams, 1999). Studies on the effects of implicit instruction on L2 learners' pragmatic development have produced mixed results. Fukuya et al. (1998) reported that implicit instruction was not efficient in comparison with explicit instruction. However, the present findings lend further support to those studies which have demonstrated the positive effects of input enhancement on the acquisition of speech acts (Fukuya and Clark, 2001; Martinez-Flor, 2004; Alcon, 2005).

Thirdly, in relation to the effects of explicit versus implicit instruction on learners' production of request, it should be noted that the present findings run counter to those of several other studies (House and Casper, 1981; Takahashi, 2001; Rose and Ng Kwai-Fun, 2001; Alcon, 2005) which have reported that the EG has had an advantage over the IG. In line with the results reported by Martinez-Flor (2004), this study revealed that those students who received explicit instruction outperformed those in the implicit group; however, the observed difference was not statistically significant. Accordingly, it can be claimed that an implicit and unobtrusive method such as input enhancement can be as effective as explicit instruction which requires the execution of various awareness-raising tasks and explanation of metapragmatic information.

VII. CONCLUDING REMARKS

This study examined the effects of instruction on learners' linguistically accurate and pragmatically appropriate production of certain requests in English. The results contribute to previous research on the facilitative effects of instruction on second and foreign language learning in general (Norris and Ortega, 2000; Doughty, 2003), and the benefits of instruction on the development of learners' pragmatic competence in requests in particular. In light of the present findings which reveal that an implicit method of instruction can be as effective as an explicit one in teaching requests, certain pedagogical implications may be proposed. First, a more direct link should be made between ILP research and the field of second language acquisition. In other words, materials developers and instructors should integrate pragmatics into their second and foreign language instruction to better develop learners' pragmatic competence in second and foreign language settings. Second, awareness-raising tasks and input enhancement

techniques should be operationalized and implemented by language instructors to equip learners with a better knowledge of pragmatics.

APPENDIX A. SAMPLE SITUATIONS FROM THE DCT PRE-/POST-TEST

Write a dialogue for each of the following situations. In each situation you are making a request to a specific person and you are asking different types of favors.

Situation A: You are in class and you want to borrow your friend's notes.

Situation B: You are going on a trip and you can't take your pet with you. You want to ask your friend's parents to take care of him. You know they don't like animals.

Situation C: You are in class. You really need the bathroom and you ask your teacher for permission to leave the class.

Situation D: You need to take some photos on your brother's birthday and you want to borrow your friend's digital camera.

Situation E: You want one of your professors at university to extend his deadline for a term project. You know he is not a good-tempered person.

APPENDIX B. EXAMPLES OF SOME OF THE ACTIVITIES USED WITH THE EG

Sample teacher's explanation of rules on how to make linguistically accurate and pragmatically appropriate requests:

Modals 'can' and 'could' are used with a following base verb to make a request. They are usually used when one of the interlocutors is higher in position or they know each other very well. For example, in excerpt A, in making his request, Jack says: "Can you lend me a couple of dollars?", which shows that he knows Bill very well.

The structure "Would it be OK if..." is followed by an if-clause containing a past tense verb. It is usually used when one of the interlocutors tries to be more formal and polite because either the favor is a big one or s/he doesn't know the other person well. For instance, in excerpt B, Mary needs to borrow his friend's car, so she says: "Would it be OK if I borrowed your car for the weekend?"

Sample productive activities undertaken by the EG learners after teacher's explanations:

Play the roles of a clerk and her boss. She wants to take a week off from work and needs to make a request and get her boss's permission.

Write a short dialogue making a request for the following situation: "A teacher wants one of her students to open the class window".

APPENDIX C. SAMPLE EXCERPT OF SCRIPTS WITH TYPOGRAPHICALLY ENHANCED INPUT USED WITH THE IG.

Conversation on the phone:

Rod: Hello.

Jana: Hi, Rod. This is Jana.

Rod: oh, hi Jana. What's up?

Jana: I'm going to my best friend's wedding this weekend. I'd love to take some pictures for his Website. **Would you mind if I borrowed your digital camera?**

Rod: Um, no. That's OK, I guess.

Jana: Thanks. **Is it OK if I pick it up on Friday night?**

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The Effect of Context on Meaning Representation of Adjectives such as Big and Large in Translation from Different Languages such as Russian, Persian and Azeri to English Language Texts

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Abstract—People’s understanding of the meaning of sentences is far more reliable than their understanding of the meaning of words. Since what people know when they know the meaning of a word is important, but the skill of incorporating that word appropriately into meaningful linguistic contexts is more important. Our interest here lies in the shift of emphasis from referential or dictionary meaning to contextual meaning of adjectives such as *big* and *large* in translation to English language texts or vice versa. Since *big* and *large* are synonyms, it is not surprising that they can be used to describe many of the same nouns. However, they are not perfect synonyms, and there are some differences in the distribution of these adjectives which make some problems for translators especially from those languages which these kinds of differences are not so obvious. Therefore, a comparison of the lists of the words which occurred only with *big* and those which occurred only with *large* in English should reveal some differences in translations.

Index Terms—large, big, English, referential and contextual meaning

I. INTRODUCTION

Translation, as an activity, has been a task which has been performed for centuries. This is an activity whose main concern is to facilitate the communication process. The professional of translation reaches this goal by translating the information received in a foreign language into the language of the person who required his services, and vice versa. When this complex process is carried out in a factual communicative situation, then, it is possible to say that translation has reached its ultimate goal. Translation studies (TS) relies so heavily on a concept of meaning, that one may claim that there is no TS without any reference to meanings. However, different approaches in TS refer to different types of meaning: some researchers are looking for lexical patterns in source texts and their translations (Nilsson, 2002), while other scholars concentrate on how the text utterances function within their immediate contexts (Nord, 1997). Or while some studies are investigations of the impact of the text as a whole on its audience or even society (Venuti, 1998), others refer to philosophy of language as a means to look at meaning in translation (Malmkjær, 1993). If we assume that the goal of both learning a L2 and translating into another language is to transmit appropriate meaning linguistically, semantically, and pragmatically, then learning a L2 should be linked to translation exercises.

Some researchers explicitly talk about meaning as a cognitive concept and say, for instance, that translators and interpreters construct or assemble meaning (Dancette, 1997; Setton, 1999). Others regard it as a textual characteristic. In the latter view, texts themselves hold meanings, so translations can be compared in terms of meanings with each other, with source texts or with a comparable corpus. Taking into account the lexicological aspect, a translator should be knowledgeable of the formation of words in the languages he works from and into, and the semantic relations held among these words, above all in specialized contexts. Sometimes, translators, as linguistic mediators, may face the situation of solving lexical problems, that is, translators are not able to find an appropriate linguistic resource in the target language which properly transmits the message. As Zohrevandi (1992) points out “translation now deals with communicative needs and purposes for stretches of written or oral discourse [...] what Dell Hymes calls communicative competence” (p. 182).

On the other hand, another term for clarifying the meaning in translation is contextualization. Contextualization is not exclusively linguistic, of course; using context to determine linguistic meaning is simply a special case of a general cognitive ability. Contextualization has been defined as the use of context to determine meaning and to resolve potential ambiguities. When contextualization is linked so closely to meaning, of course, it inherits all the uncertainties associated with the concept of meaning. But it also inherits the broad scope of meaningfulness. Wherever experience is meaningful, context must be considered and language provides one of the best avenues to approach a study of the

remarkable human capacity to use context. A contextual approach to lexical semantics might assume that the meanings of a word form are fully reflected in appropriate aspects of the relations it contracts with actual and potential contexts (Cruse, 1986, p.1).

The easiest place to study contextualization is surely in the relation between words and their contexts of use. Knowing a word involves knowing its meaning and therefore, in my view, knowing a word involves knowing its contexts of use. Consequently, people communicate via sentences, seldom via isolated words. Their intuitions about the definitions of the words they utter and understand are fragmentary at best.

II. DISCUSSION

Our interest here lies in the shift of emphasis from referential or dictionary meaning to contextual meaning. The meaning of a given word or set of words is best understood as the contribution that word or phrase can make to the meaning or function of the whole sentence or linguistic utterance where that word or phrase occurs. The meaning of a given word is governed not only by the external object or idea that particular word is supposed to refer to, but also by the use of that particular word or phrase in a particular way, in a particular context, and to a particular effect. Thus, there is a difference between the referential meaning of a word and the contextual meaning of the same word. Let us consider, for example, a couple of lexical items, *big and large* which are considered synonymous in the world of non-linguistic reality, but are not simply used alternatively in free variation on each other.

Thus in most cases if the translation or the interpretation was carried out only on a word level it would either produce utterances that sound very unnatural to the native speaker of the target language or it would distort the meaning. On the other hand, since *big and large* are synonyms, it is not surprising that they can be used to describe many of the same nouns. However, they are not perfect synonyms, and there are some differences in the distribution of these four adjectives which make some problems for the translators. On the other hand when the translation is taking place across two different languages that do not have culture in common, it is often difficult to obtain even the lexical equivalent of a given items in translation. In order to elaborate these differences in detail, we will try to give the translation of given examples in different languages namely Russian, Persian and Azeri. As mentioned above, the main question here is that since there are not any differences between the mentioned adjectives in some other languages, how translators can make a distinction between them in English or vice versa. For answering these kinds of questions, comparing the list of the words which occurred only with *big* and those which occurred only with *large* in English should reveal some differences and may put an end to some confusing.

Large but not *big* is used with the nouns *amount, number, and quantity*, so it would be surprising to find these nouns on the list of nouns which occur significantly often with *big*, and the words that occurred significantly often with *big* but not *large*, shows that *big* does not occur significantly often with any *Quantity Nouns*. Other categories which occur significantly often with *big* but not with *large* are *Actions words, Popular Things, Important, Serious Things and Head of Idioms*. With all of these nouns, *big* is describing something other than physical size. For example, with the nouns listed under *Actions*, *big* describes the intensity of the action, that is, the amount of energy involved and / or the strength of the effect. *A big lift* is one that lifts something very high and *a big push* is one that involves a lot of energy and which moves something a long way. The meaning of *big* with the *Action* nouns is quite similar to the meaning with some of the *Amount* nouns, such as *change* and *drop*. For example:

You could notice when the little change began so that you would be better prepared for the big change that might be coming.

(in Russian) Вы могли заметить, когда небольшие изменения начались так, чтобы Вам быть лучше подготовленным к большим изменениям, которые могли бы произойти.

(in persian) Agar motevajehe shoroe tagirate kuchek va joz bashid baraye tagire bozorgi ke ehtemalan dar rah ast behtar amade mishavid.

(in Azari) Ki çik dəyişiklik baş verməyə başladığı anda siz onu hiss edəcəksiniz, odur ki, siz gələcək böyük dəyişikliyə daha da yaxşı hazır olmalısınız.

In fact, most of the *Amount* nouns which occur with *big* could probably be considered *Actions* rather than (or in addition to) *Amounts*. I have distinguished the two types here mainly because the *Amounts* are somewhat more abstract in meaning than the *Actions* and because some of the *Amounts* (e.g. *cut, drop, increase*) also occur significantly often with *large*, but *large* does not occur significantly often in the corpus with any *Actions*. Although there are some contexts in which *large* may be able to modify some of the *Action* nouns (e.g., *a large boost in the polls*), it sounds quite strange with most of them (e.g. *?a large jump, ?a large splash*).

The nouns listed under *Important, Serious Things* name things which are not necessarily important or serious in themselves, but which are interpreted as such when modified by *big*; in other words, it is *big* that contributes the meaning of *important* or *serious* to phrases such as *big news* and *big factor*. *Project*, one of the nouns seems to belong to this category--a *big project* is a project that is important. *Project*, of course occurred significantly often with *large* as well as *big*.

Unlike *project*, most of the nouns categorized as *Important, Serious Things* cannot easily be quantified in terms of dollars or other units of measurement, which may explain why phrases such as *?large news* and *?large test* do not occur. The same kind of explanation can account for the fact that *large* does not sound especially awkward with a few *Action*

nouns such as *large boost* and *large impact*; in some contexts, at least, these nouns describe things that can be easily quantified

Another category which occurs with *big* is *Heads of Idioms*. While *large* did not occur significantly often in any idiomatic *adjective+noun* phrases, *big* forms idioms with several nouns, for example, *big band* (a band that plays a particular kind of music, not a band with a lot of members) and *the big bang* (the explosion that is supposed to have created the universe). Some nouns have both literal interpretations (usually as *Physical Objects*) and idiomatic interpretations with *big*. For example, *big picture* can be used to refer to a drawing, painting or photograph which is large in size, and it also has two idiomatic interpretations; it can mean something like 'an overall view or understanding of a situation', and it can be used to refer to a successful movie. Obviously, *large* cannot take the place of *big* in any of the idiomatic phrases. With many of these nouns *large* sounds extremely awkward, e.g., *??large bucks*, *??large name*, *??large talk*; In the cases where *large* sounds fine, the noun is always interpreted literally (e.g., *large fish*, *large band*, and *large business*). In some of the idiomatic phrases, the meaning of *big* is quite similar to its meaning with the *Important, Serious Things*. For example:

A big head has a big ache.

(in Russian) *У большого человека-большие проблемы.*

У большого человека и проблемы большие.

(in Persian). *Sare bozorg darde ziyadi ham darad. "harke bamash bish barfash bish"*

(in Azari). *Böyük başın böyük də ağrısı olar.*

However, as it mentioned, there are many nouns from these categories which occur only with *big* or only with *large*. Perhaps the most striking pattern is that *large* occurs significantly often with many more *Physical Objects* than *big* does. This is somewhat surprising given the dictionary descriptions of *big* and *large*; since the basic meaning of both *big* and *large* seems to involve physical size, it might be expected that all of the *Physical Objects* nouns on the *large* list could also occur with *big*. Certainly, *big* does not sound as awkward with these nouns as it does with the *Quantity Nouns*. That is, although *bag*, *bowl*, and *buildings* do not occur on the *big* list, the phrases *big bag*, *big bowl*, and *big building* do not sound very strange, and they sound more natural than *big quantity* or *big degree*. The question here, then, is why *large* is preferred with nouns of this type. In many cases, it may be because *large* is used (along with *small* and *medium*) to describe a standard size of food and household items. Many of the nouns which occur with *large* but not *big* fall into this category (e.g., *bowl*, *eggs*, *onions*, *skillet*, and *tomatoes*), while none of the *Physical Objects* nouns which occur with *big* do. However, this does not explain why *large* is preferred with nouns such as *flowers*, *garden*, and *rock*. Register differences may play a role here; if, as dictionaries suggest, *large* is more formal than *big*, then perhaps *large* is chosen over *big* because this written corpus is relatively formal.

Another difference between *big* and *large* with the *Physical Objects* nouns is that many of the nouns that occur with *big* but not *large* seem to be describing something other than purely physical size. Many of these nouns describe people (*boy(s)*, *guard*, *guy(s)*, and *kid*) or parts of people's body (*mouth* and *toe*). While *big* can describe purely physical size with these nouns, all of them except *guard* also have idiomatic interpretations, e.g., *big kid* meaning 'older kid', *big toe* referring to 'a particular toe', and *big mouth*, in sentences such as *He's got a big mouth*, used to talk about someone who says something he should not say. With *grin* and *smile*, *big* seems to be describing intensity rather than, or in addition to, physical size, so these two nouns seem similar to the nouns in the *Actions* category. If all of these nouns are weeded out, there are only a few nouns with which *big* have a purely physical interpretation, i.e., *bar*, *boats*, *gap*, *guard*, and *tent*. For example:

In earlier times, they used to go after these giant in a boat hardly bigger than a canoe.

(in Russian) *В прежние времена, они отправлялись за гигантами в лодке, едва больше чем каное.*

(in Persian). *Dar zamanhaye naxostin anha adat dashtand beravand be donbale in golha dar gayegi ke benodrat bozorgtar az yek zorag bood.*

(in Azari). *Əvvəllər onlar kanoedən bir az böyük qayıqda gedərdilər.*

Large, in contrast, occurs with many nouns of this type, which strengthens the impression that in this corpus at least, *large* is preferred over *big* for describing purely physical size, especially for non-human things. Both *big* and *large* occur with *Amounts*, but the additional data suggests a slight semantic distinction between *big* and *large* when used with nouns of this type. The amount nouns which occur with *big* but not *large*--*change*, *difference*, *discounts*, and *rise*, are "dynamic" in meaning in that they describe *changes* in an amount; in contrast, most of the amount nouns which occur with *large* describe amounts of money or products which are relatively "stable" (although they can potentially undergo an increase or decrease), e.g., a *fee* is a set amount of money that is charged for a service, and an *inventory* is a listing of the amount of products that are in stock at a particular time. This difference between *big* and *large* is not absolute--as was shown above, *big* occurred with "stable" amounts such as *profits* and *stakes*, while *large* occurred with "dynamic" amounts such as *cut* and *increase*---but there is a tendency for *big* to be used to describe amounts of change.

It has been shown so far that when the overall uses of *big* and *large* are compared, they have many uses in common, but there are also a lot of differences; in particular, there are entire semantic categories of nouns which occur with *big* but not *large* and vice versa.

Another basic option in the system Measure – type is [class – property], which does not specify a measurable parameter, like [quantity], but the class of objects that are semantically considered as large or small. This feature covers

uses of little thing in the example as well as big names, low achievers, deep feeling, etc. In several cases, the feature controls the choice between near-synonymous lexical items. For instance, a large fish refers to the physical size of a particular fish, while a big fish belong to the class of big fishes. The expression a large city is not idiomatic. It is normally used in expressions referring to the number of people living in it or the area it occupies uses of a big city are different. The big city is used to refer to a large city which seems attractive to someone because they think there are many exciting things to do there, and opportunities to earn a lot of money. So in the case of [non-directional] size specifications, the feature [quantity] is preferably realized by large, while the feature [class-property] by big. Pay attention to these examples:

(1) *In the eighteenth century, cities became larger and more crowded.*

(in Russian) *В восемнадцатом столетии, города стали большими и более густо населенными.*

(in Persian) *Dar garne hejdahom, shahrha bozorgtar va shologtar shodand.*

(in Azari) *On səkkizinci əsrdə şəhərlər daha böyük və daha sıx əhalili oldu.*

(2)..... *tidings of this spreaded to all big cities, outskirts places, small villages as well.*

(in Russian)*новости об этом распространились в большие города, окраины а также в маленькие деревушки.*

(in persian)*Sedaye in masale be tamatiye shahrhaye bozorg, homeye shahr va rostaha paksh shode bood.*

(in Azari)..... *bunun əks- sədası bütün böyük şəhərlərə, ucqar gu çələrə, xırda kəndlərə də yayıldı.*

By comparing the translations of the given examples in other languages it can be seen that both big and large are translated to *большие* in Russian, *bozorg* in Persian, and *böyük* in Azeri. But there is another fact about the translation of mentioned adjectives in Russian which is different from their translation in Persian and Azeri. In spite of the lack of differences between *large* and *big* in Persian and Azeri, these two adjectives sometimes can be translated differently in Russian language. Although in all of the given examples the mentioned adjective have been translated to *большие* (*boljshoj*), they can be also translated to *Krupnyj* which expresses the meaning of [non-directional big]. As for differences between uses of *boljshoj* and *krupnyj*, *boljshoj* is used in a wider range of free constructions than *krupnyj* and most typically refers to the physical size of an arbitrary object. When *krupnyj* refers to the size, it is mostly restricted to certain types of objects, like the size of human persons (especially children), or body parts, or certain animate objects. The major groups of terminological collocations with *krupnyj* concern the font size, amount of money, or elements of a quantifiable object.

In translation, consequently, the translator ought to translate the communicative function of the source language text, rather than its signification. Thus for more considering pay attention to the following examples:

(1) *She and her husband Peter had a large farm on an island.*

(in Russian) *У нее и ее мужа Питера была большая ферма на острове.*

(in Persian) *O va shoharash, Piter, mazraeye bozorgi dar jazire dashtand.*

(in Azari) *O və onunun əri Peterin adada böyük bir ferması vardı.*

(2) *I felt inside the bag a gain and found a big hole.*

(in Russian) *Я думал, что в сумке будет нажива, а нашел большую дырку.*

(in Persian) *Do bar toye pakat ra gashtam va fagat yek sorakhe bozorg yaftam*

(in Azari) *Mən çantanın içində kəsik hiss etdim və yekə bir deşik olduğunu gördüm.*

(3) *Mary has become a big girl. She is growing up fast.*

(in Russian) *Мэри стала взрослой девушкой. Она растет быстро.*

(in Persian) *Mery dokhtare bozorgi shode ast. O sari bozorg mishavad.*

(in Azari) *Meri böyük qız olub. O, çox tez böyüyür.*

To sum up, the translation task becomes a complex process where either linguistic or non-linguistic elements provide the text with that nuance that makes it unique. For this reason, translators should demonstrate that they have developed both linguistic and communicative competence in the languages involved in their translating exercise in order to solve possible problems they may face during their professional practice. A translator must, therefore, look for a target-language utterance that has an equivalent communicative function, regardless of its formal resemblance to original utterance as far as the formal structure is concerned. In other words, translation should operate or take place on the level of language use, more than usage.

III. CONCLUSION

The study reported in this paper shows an approaching for describing lexical semantics from the viewpoint of their uses in texts. This research showed that although both *big and large*, are near synonyms, this does not mean they are identical in meaning, and translator can choose each of them without paying attention to their contextual meaning; they are synonyms by virtue of the fact that they are associated with the same semantic dimension, but they are differentiated by the fact that they modify different kinds of nouns.

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A Pragmatic Account of Anaphora: The Cases of the Bare Reflexive in Chinese^{*}

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Abstract—Most, if not all, of the existing research on anaphoric constructions containing the bare reflexive ‘ziji’ in Chinese has been done on a formalist basis and some found in the literature has as it were not given a cogent explanation. The present article, largely based on some discourse and/or pragmatic principles and following a close examination of data drawn from various texts, describes and analyzes its anaphoric uses in two domains: the local and the long-range. The findings suggest that in either case, this bare or simplex reflexive occurs, anaphorically, much more frequently than an alternate complex reflexive or a plain pronoun, which results from the fact that it serves a twofold role, as an alternative to a complex reflexive, on one hand, to minimize communicative reference and to a pronoun, on the other, to save time for discourse understanding. Such anaphora facts are regulated by a neo-Gricean-like pragmatic principle re the uses of third-person pronouns in Chinese: (a) where the grammar permits the occurrence of both a bare and a complex reflexive, the speaker intending locally bound anaphora tends to use the bare to produce the minimal linguistic information enough to achieve the communicational ends, unless motivated otherwise; (b) where the context permits the occurrence of both a bare reflexive and a pronoun, the speaker intending long-range coreference tends to use the bare reflexive to ease discourse interpretation, unless prevented doing so by other considerations.

Index Terms—reflexive, locally bound anaphora, long-range anaphora, pragmatic principle

I. INTRODUCTION

Reinhart and Reuland (1993, pp. 658-9) assume a definition of anaphors along the lines of the proposals in Chomsky (1986) and Keenan (1987): Anaphors (of both simplex and complex reflexive type) are referentially defective NPs, which entails that they cannot be used as demonstratives, referring to some entity in the world; and binding may be viewed as the process assigning the content necessary for their referential interpretation. Specifically, anaphors cannot be interpreted independently of the antecedent, because they need to inherit Φ -features (number, gender, person) from their antecedent for that purpose. As further noted in Reinhart and Reuland (1993, p. 685), reflexives differ from pronouns in that they lack Φ -features; although they may preserve person features in many languages (e. g., Dutch ‘*zich*’, Norwegian ‘*seg*’, Italian ‘*s’è*’, etc.), they always lack number and gender features. So they do not project an argument that can be interpreted independently. Lack of Φ -features is taken to be the property responsible for their anaphoric nature. Then, ‘ziji’ in Modern Standard Chinese (hereinafter ‘Chinese’ for short) is just an anaphor of bare/simplex reflexive type which purely lacks Φ -features. In that case it cannot be entirely interpreted without inheriting those features from its antecedent.

This paper is intended to explain anaphora patterns, analyzing the use of this Chinese reflexive in indirect discourse (cf. Culy 1997, p. 845)¹ from a pragmatic, particularly the neo-Gricean pragmatic, perspective. Before that, we are supposed to have a discussion of some existing accounts.

II. EXISTING ACCOUNTS

In the literature there are a number of accounts of Chinese reflexives, three of which will be sketched out below in light of the difficulties for their analyzing of the reflexive in question.

A. *The Thematic Hierarchy*

Xu (1994) argues that Chomsky’s (1981, 1982) GB Theory does not give a good explanation of the reference of ‘ziji’. Thus he proposes a thematic hierarchy of ‘Agent >Experiencer >Theme >Patient’, hoping to capture the referential nature of this reflexive. The hierarchy stipulates that a θ -role (thematic role) on the left is preferable for antecedency to the one coming

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¹ Generally, I do not cover first and second person reflexives except in Section II. The reason is that most linguists and scholars tend to take a negative view of the endophoric/anaphoric use of first and second person pronouns including reflexives. For example, Hoeksema and Napoli (1990, p. 422) note that first and second person pronouns are always interpreted deictically. Halliday and Hasan (1976, p. 18) and Halliday and Matthiessen (2004, p. 551) claim that “first and second person pronouns as speech roles of speaker and addressee, are typically exophoric and secondarily anaphoric (speaker and addressee in quoted speech); [...] This type of reference we call EXOPHORA, since it takes us outside the text altogether. Exophoric reference is not cohesive /anaphoric, since it does not bind the two elements together into a text.” Fang (2004, p. 236) also says that first and second person pronouns in Chinese more often than not have no antecedent within the discourse, so that we do not identify them as co-referential pronouns. Additionally, I will exclude the case where ‘ziji’ occurs in generic reference, e.g., ‘*Ziji zuo shi ziji dang*’ ‘Be responsible for whatever you have done.’ (Battistella and Xu 1990, p. 223)

after and thus to all the ensuing roles on it. One of Xu's examples is (1).

- (1) *Hao dongxi dou bei ta₁ na dao le ziji₁ de wuli.*
 'All the good things were taken into his₁ room by him₁.'

According to Xu (1994), the pronoun 'ta' 'he', which is not subject, can be regarded as agent, and it is a qualified antecedent of 'ziji'. This seems reasonable. But following Shi and Hu's (2005) analysis, we may still treat 'ta' 'he' in (1) as subject in structural terms, since the sentence may be considered, grammatically, to be a variant of the active sentence, as given in (1)' where 'ta' 'he' is viewed as an imbedded subject of the *Bei*-construction (passive sentence construction), outdoing as it were Xu's θ -role approach.

- (1)' *Hao dongxi dou bei* [_S [_{NP} ta₁] [_{VP} na dao le] [_{COMP} [_{NP} ziji₁ de wuli]]].

Consider two more examples given in Xu (1994).

- (2) *Li Xiansheng₁ de yinmou hai le ziji₁.*
 'Mr Li's₁ conspiracy did harm to himself₁.'

- (2)' *Li Xiansheng₁ de aoman hai le ziji₁.*
 'Mr Li's₁ arrogance did harm to himself₁.'

- (3) ?? *Weile ziji₁ de liyi, shui ye zudang buliao ta₁.*
 'For the sake of his₁ interests, anyone cannot stop him₁ (doing so).'

Xu's (1994) argument is as follows. In (2) 'Li Xiansheng' 'Mr Li' is antecedent of 'ziji', because 'Li' is an agent or indirect agent (i.e., a person who plots a conspiracy). In (3) the verb 'zudang' 'stop' does not assign 'ta' 'he' a role of agent, but 'ta' 'he' can be in fact seen as an indirect agent in semantic terms.

However, the accounts offered by Xu will, we find on second thoughts, run into problems. Granted that 'Li Xiansheng' 'Mr Li' in (2) may be viewed as an indirect agent, there is no reason for treating 'Li Xiansheng' in (2)' (which I specially give in contrast to (2)) as an indirect agent, due to the replacement of 'aoman' 'arrogance' for 'yinmou' 'conspiracy'. In other words, 'Li Xiansheng' 'Mr Li' in (2)' cannot be (indirectly) assigned the same role of agent (or experiencer) as in (2). A second problem is with (3): as 'ziji' in the prepositional phrase cannot be coreferential with 'ta' 'he' in the object position, this sentence is ill-formed.

Xu's thematic hierarchy, therefore, does not seem to hold water in the presence of the above-stated problems. What makes it worse is that the hierarchy 'Agent-Experiencer-Theme-Patient' does not substantialise in terms of the 'priority order' by which a reflexive picks its antecedent, or of 'constraints' on the coreference between two entities. This results in an undermining of the effectiveness of such an approach in theory and application.

B. The Prominence Computing Algorithm

Hu and Pan (2002) point out that the existing non-syntactic approaches to 'ziji' such as Chen (1992), Xu (1994) and Huang (1994) have some limitations in accounting for the reference of it as a long-range reflexive, since they do not take into consideration various factors that may influence the interpretation of reflexives. They argue that the reference of 'ziji' cannot be determined by a single factor. So they've worked out an algorithm for calculating the Prominent NP to be the antecedent of it, based on their idea about multi-factorial determination.

This NP-prominence computing algorithm takes into account several factors, namely syntactic, semantic, discursive /pragmatic. Altogether the algorithm involves six kinds of prominence hierarchy by which to find out the antecedent of a reflexive. These are grammatical, thematic, structural, animacy, person and locality hierarchy, as stated in (4) and some of their combinations are given in (5).²

(4) Prominence Hierarchy

- a. grammatical hierarchy: [+subject] > [-subject]
- b. thematic hierarchy: [+agent] > [-agent] ([+agent] includes [experiencer] and [-agent], [theme])
- c. structural hierarchy: [+dominating] > [-dominating]
- d. animacy hierarchy: [+animate] > [-animate]
- e. person hierarchy: [+first/second person] > [-first/second person]
- f. locality hierarchy: [+local] > [-local]

(5) [+prominence] NP

- | | | | |
|----|-------------------------|---|-------------------------|
| | | > | [-prominence] NP |
| a. | [+subject, +agent] | > | [+subject, -agent] |
| b. | [-subject, +agent] | > | [-subject, -agent] |
| c. | [+subject, -agent] | > | [-subject, -agent] |
| d. | [+dominating, +animate] | > | [+dominating, -animate] |
| e. | [-dominating, +animate] | > | [-dominating, -animate] |
| f. | [-dominating, +animate] | > | [+dominating, -animate] |

They add a definition of a mechanism for searching the antecedent of 'ziji', as in (6) and of locality, as in (7).

(6) A mechanism of searching the antecedent of 'ziji'.³

a. Where there is an NP inside XP, the maximal projection c-commanding the reflexive, and this NP and other NPs inside the maximal projection XP form a NP-sequence, i.e., NP= ($\alpha_n, \dots, \alpha_2, \alpha_1$), then a comparison of [+/-prominence] features, as

² See Hu and Pan (2002, p. 56) for a detailed description of the combinations of various 'prominence features'.

³ My translation based on the original in Chinese.

shown above, between (the closest) α_i and α_{i+1} is conducted, successively, for ascertaining the NP with [+prominence] as the antecedent of 'ziji'.

b. (omitted, since it will not be referred to.)

c. Once an NP is ascertained as antecedent, its feature [+prominence] will not be annulled.

(7) 'Locality' in (4f) is equal to 'closeness', defined as in Pan (1998): α is closer to the reflexive X than β , iff the path between X and the minimal maximal projection dominating α is a true subset of the path between X and the minimal maximal projection dominating β .

It would seem right that the 'NP-prominence algorithm' approach is operationally more simple and viable in identifying the antecedent of a long-range reflexive. Take Hu and Pan's (2002) exemplar sentences as in (8).

(8) a. *Zhangsan₁ yiwei Lisi₂ xihuan ziji_{1/2}.*

'Zhangsan₁ thinks Lisi₂ likes him₁/himself₂.'

b. *Zhangsan₁ shuo Lisi₂ de baogao hai le ziji_{1/2}.*

'Zhangsan₁ said Lisi₂'s report did harm to him₁/himself₂.'

In (8a) the potential antecedent of 'ziji' can be both the locally imbedded and the matrix subject, since one may compare, following (6), the 'prominence' features of the two NPs and find both to be with the feature [+prominence] by (5). In (8b), inside the maximal projection XP c-commanding 'ziji' are three NPs: 'Zhangsan', 'Lisi' and 'baogao' 'report'. First, we compare 'Lisi' and 'baogao' 'report' in terms of the 'prominence' feature: by (5e) 'Lisi' is with the feature [+prominence] and 'baogao' 'report' with [-prominence], so 'Lisi' can be picked as the antecedent. Then, compare 'Lisi' and 'Zhangsan' for deciding on their prominence. By (5b) 'Lisi' continues to retain [+prominence] and thus its antecedentship remains. Similarly, 'Zhangsan' is by (5) with the [+prominence] feature and can be the antecedent of 'ziji' as well.

In actual discourse, however, there are often instances difficult for this 'NP-prominence algorithm' approach to cope with. Example (9) is a case in point.

(9) [_{IP} Su Xiaojie₁ [_{VP} huran mingbai [_{CP}, [_{IP} Fang Xiansheng₂ [_{VP} zhidao [_{CP} [_{IP} ziji₁ [_{VP} ai]] de]] [_{VP} shi ta]]]]]]]. [Qian]

'Miss Su₁ suddenly realized that Mr. Fang₂ knew that the one (who) she₁ loved was him.'

Observing (6) for searching the antecedent of 'ziji' in (9), we may find by (5) both NP₁ 'Su Xiaojie' 'Miss Su' and NP₂ 'Fang Xiansheng' 'Mr. Fang' to be with the features [+subject, +agent/experiencer] and [+dominating, +animate], so no definitive result can be achieved in these algorithms. Then one needs to make use of (7) to determine which is closer to 'ziji'. Evidently NP₂ is found by (7) to carry [+local] information and NP₁ [-local], since NP₂ is found to be closer to X ('ziji') when (7) is applied to the two NPs. Therefore NP₂ should have been taken to be picked as the antecedent. But unfortunately, the antecedent of 'ziji' in (9) is actually NP₁, which shows that the 'prominence computing algorithm' does not hold therein.

C. The Blocking Effect

It is observed that studies found in the literature on 'ziji' are frequently concerned with the issue of blocking effect in long-range binding /anaphora, including for instance Battistella (1989), Battistella and Xu (1990), Huang and Tang (1991), Huang (1994), and Hu and Pan (2002). These scholars generally tend to reach the like conclusion that long-range binding of bare 'ziji' to the matrix subject is blocked where a first- or second-person pronoun comes between them and that an intervening third-person pronoun does not prevent embedded 'ziji' from taking as its antecedent a first- or second-person pronoun occurring in the root subject position. This is illustrated by the examples in (10).

(10) a. *Zhangsan₁ jude wo (ni)₂ dui ziji_{*1/2} mei xinxin.*

'Zhangsan₁ thinks that I (you)₂ have no confidence in himself_{*1}/myself (yourself)₂.'

b. *Wo (Ni)₁ jude Zhangsan₂ dui ziji_{1/2} mei xinxin.*

'I (You)₁ think Zhangsan₂ has no confidence in me (you)₁/himself₂.'

Huang (1994, p. 197), though, provides counterexamples, such as (11), to show that the blocking effect is at least partly pragmatic in nature and a long-range binding interpretation can be occasionally be forced even if there is an intervening first- or second-person pronoun.

(11) *Zongtong₁ qing wo₂ zuo zai ziji₁ de shenbian.*

The president₁ asked me₂ to sit beside (next to) him₁.'

As a reflexive, 'ziji' has to be referentially dependent. In (11), however, it cannot be locally bound by 'wo' 'me' given our knowledge about the world. Consequently, 'ziji' is forced to be long-distance bound to the matrix subject.

Moreover, unlike (10a) there are cases where an intervening third-person pronoun may block long-range binding of 'ziji' to a first- or second-person pronoun used in the matrix clause. This is evidenced by (12) in which 'ziji' cannot be construed as referentially dependent on the subject 'wo' 'I' or the object 'ni' 'you', given our knowledge about the background as well as the meaning of the sentence per se.

(12) *Wo₁ gaosu guo ni₂ Zhangsan₃ zai 'Wenge' qijian diaoshi le ziji_{*1*2/3}.*

I₁ told you₂ that Zhangsan₃ hanged me_{*1}/you_{*2}/himself₃ during the Cultural Revolution.'

The evidence seen here leads us to come to interim, inevitable conclusions that the so-called blocking effect in long-distance binding results from mixing up 'ziji's' which are distinct in kind and in discourse-type, and this is on the wrong track. As it can be used in any form of person, 'ziji', just like first/second person vs. third person pronoun, has dissimilar uses, namely (situationally) deictic vs. (textually) anaphoric reference (cf. footnote 1). The distinction between pronoun and bare reflexive is that the latter is not manifest in feature or reference-type presentation to the extent that it has to be identified either as anaphorically parasitic on some NP within the text or as deictically dependent on the speaker /addressee outside the text.

So it can be claimed that there does not seem to be the so-called blocking effect in natural language and it is the proper function of ‘ziji’ that matters in effecting anaphoric or deictic reference. Deictic reference is situational or at any rate quasi-situational and happens in ‘direct speech’, and anaphoric reference is text-parasitic and occurs in ‘indirect discourse’. (13) and (14) are good examples of deictic reference. In (13) ‘ziji’ refers to ‘addressee’, and in (14) it refers to ‘*ni shushu*’ ‘your uncle’, ruling out the blocking effect which should have been engendered by the first-person pronoun ‘*wo*’ ‘I’ (speaker) based on the context thus stipulated.

(13) *Yao haohao guanshu ziji.* (Dialogue in telefilm)

‘(You) should strictly restrain yourself.’

(14) *Ruguo ni shushu₁ zhidao wo₂ shi yong zhe zhong banfa jiu ziji₁ chulai de, ta shi si ye buhui chulai de.* (Dialogue in telefilm)

‘If your uncle₁ knew I₂ had helped him₁ out in this way, he would never yet have willingly come out.’

Let us return to the examples in (10). (10a) is narrated in the form of first person and the embedded clause is nothing less than ‘direct speech’, and ‘ziji’ refers to the speaker (addressee) and no ambiguity arises in that context. (10b) is like a direct-speech sentence comprising a clause of reported type. So ‘ziji’ can be understood as both deictic and anaphoric. As a deictic item, ‘ziji’ points to the speaker (addressee) and may be substituted by ‘*wo*’ ‘I’ (‘*ni*’ ‘you’). As an anaphor, ‘ziji’ is bound by or coreferential with ‘*Zhangsan*’, and may be changed into ‘*ta ziji*’ ‘himself’. As matters stand, there are hardly ever sentences like this in naturally occurring discourse. The reference of a linguistic item in an ad hoc context is unique and unambiguous, or else the speaker will surely choose to employ either a first- /second-person pronoun to effect deictic reference or a third-person complex reflexive to yield anaphoric reference accordingly, if there is any possibility that ambiguity arises as in (10b).

To sum up, the argument that for some speakers the presence of an intervening first- or second-person pronoun blocks long-distance of binding of ‘ziji’ to the matrix subject results from blindly confusing the deictic with the anaphoric use of ‘ziji’, hence vulnerable.

III. A PRAGMATIC ACCOUNT OF THE BARE REFLEXIVE "ZIJI" IN SENTENCE AND DISCOURSE

As noted in Section I, being ‘bare’ (for lack of Φ -features), ‘ziji’ is an *ad hoc* anaphor which needs special treatment. In actual discourse ‘ziji’ is not referentially independent, since it utterly lacks Φ -features. It functions as both a complex reflexive and a pronoun; in other words, it serves as a bound anaphor as well as a long-range anaphor. To see what the relationship of it with a complex reflexive/pronoun would be, let us look at the following analysis of the features of the three types of anaphoric expression, which is adapted on the basis of, but different from, Reinhart and Reuland’s (1993, p. 692) analysis.

	Complex reflexive Pronoun+ziji	Bare reflexive ziji	Pronoun ta ‘he/she’ etc.
Reflexivizing function, RF	+	+ / -	-
Referential independence, RI	- ⁴	-	+

Judged from above and also in the spirit of the proposal by Everaert (1991), ‘ziji’ may be viewed as both a locally bound and a pronominal anaphor. This dual function can be formally expressed as in (15), based on the descriptive summary of its properties.

(15) a. ‘ziji’ as a bound anaphor

[_{NP (+RF)} ziji (pronoun+ziji)]

b. ‘ziji’ as a pronominal /long-distance anaphor

[_{NP (-RF)} ziji (pronoun)]

(15) means that where ‘ziji’ patterns with a complex reflexive, it is referred to as a bound anaphor; where ‘ziji’ patterns with a pronoun, it is referred to as a long-range anaphor. What is distinctive between ‘ziji’ and a pronoun is that it lacks Φ -features and must be parasitic on its antecedent, hence marked with the –RI property, whereas a pronoun is characterized by +RI and may not necessarily have its antecedent in discourse.

Given the properties we have looked at above, I confirm my definition of ‘ziji’ as (i) bound anaphor and (ii) long-range anaphor, which correspond with ‘True anaphor’ vs. ‘Pseudo-anaphor’ (pronominal anaphor) in Pollard and Sag’s (1992) terminology. WHERE NECESSARY in the following text, ‘ziji’ will be marked ‘ziji₁’ and ‘ziji₂’ respectively, designating its two anaphoric uses.⁵

A. Bound Anaphora

Bound anaphora, something often referred in the literature to as ‘coindexation’ by UG scholars, is common in syntactic structure. The ‘local domain’ specified here for the use of the Chinese reflexive would be informal and loose, and will be in a way wider than the governing category /binding domain as defined in the classic Binding Theory (Chomsky 1982, p. 78; see

⁴ I claim that in Chinese a complex reflexive (‘pronoun+ziji’) in object position should be taken to have the –RI property and that those in non-object position may have the +RI property and should not be as a whole subsumed under the category of anaphoric expressions. For instance in the sentence ‘*Shazi si de ta ziji xiao le.*’ ‘He who seemed simple-minded started giggling by himself’, ‘*ta*’ ‘he’ is head and ‘ziji’ serves as an adverbial element emphasizing ‘*ta*’ ‘he’.

⁵ Note that subscripted ‘ziji₁’ and ‘ziji₂’ when used in the text stand for the two different anaphoric uses of the reflexive at issue, but they have nothing to do with the subscripted reflexives in the examples.

also Haegeman 1994, pp. 192-216). The ‘local domain’ that should be singled out as having a special status following an analysis of the data collected from various texts and where ‘ziji’ is locally bound mainly includes three types of syntactic structure: (Co)argument structure, ECM-like structure, and Binding prepositional structure. In these structures ‘ziji’ has a bound anaphoric use, and it patterns with a complex reflexive and is complementary to a pronoun in reference.

The first type ‘(Co)argument structure’, where ‘ziji’ is often found to occur as a ‘prototypical’ bound anaphor, refers to a domain which is undoubtedly subject to Binding Condition A.⁶ In that case ‘ziji’ is internal argument and bound by external argument, the subject, and the two clausemate co-arguments are coreferential. The sentences in (16) illustrate structure of this type where ‘ziji’ is locally bound.

(16) a. *Ta₁ kankan ziji₁, zai kankan luotuo.* [Lao]
‘He₁ looked at himself₁, and then looked at the camel.’

b. *Keshi, ta₁ kelian le ziji₁.* [Lao]
‘But he₁ took pity on himself₁.’

The second type ‘ECM-like structure’ may be regarded as a variant or a sub-category of Coargument structure. A reflexive in such a structure, though not an archetypical argument of the matrix verb, is still obligatorily bound by the matrix subject. This is shown in the examples of (17) where ‘ziji’ in the ECM-like position takes as its binder the subject of the sentence.

(17) a. *Ta₁ zhufu ziji₁ buyao zai bi shang yan.* [Lao]
‘He₁ told himself₁ not to close his eyes once again.’

b. *Chang Hao₁ zhongyu shi ziji₁ baituo le ‘qian nian lao er’ zhi ming.* (ex. from the Internet)
‘Chang Hao₁ finally enabled himself₁ to cast off the name of “No. 2 of the Millennium”.’

The third type, so-called ‘Binding prepositional structure’, refers to prepositional structures/phrases headed by such prepositions as ‘wei’ ‘for’, ‘ti’ ‘for’, ‘dui’ ‘to’ or the causative preposition ‘ba’ in Chinese. These structures frequently, if not always, come after the subject; and as the object of the preposition, ‘ziji’ is necessarily bound by the subject. So ‘ziji’ as it is might well be analyzed as ‘indirect patient-object’ (semantic object), on which the sentential subject as either agent or experiencer has an impact. As illustrative examples take (18):

(18) a. *Ta₁ wei ziji₁ gandao zihao.* [Guo]
‘He₁ felt proud of himself₁.’

b. *Ta₁ ti ziji₁ taohui le gongdao.* [Guo]
‘He₁ got back the justice for himself₁.’

c. *Ta₁ dui ziji₁ shuo, ...* [Guo]
‘He₁ said to himself₁, ...’

d. *Tamen₁ bu hui ba ziji₁ fengxian gei laogong he haizi.* [Wang L.]
‘They₁ will not devote themselves₁ to (their) husbands and children.’

Examples (18a-d) show that the prepositions such as ‘wei, ti, dui, ba’ and the like, behave themselves much like a verb, since they imply some function or action of a verb. For instance ‘ti’ ‘for’ actually performs a function as useful as that the verb ‘bang’ ‘help’ does, while the causative preposition ‘ba’ can fulfill any role just as a causative verb (e.g. ‘shi’ ‘make’, ‘rang’ ‘let’) does. It follows that for example, (18b) ‘*Ta₁ ti ziji₁ taohui le gongdao*’ may be changed into ‘*Ta₁ bang ziji₁ taohui le gongdao*’ ‘He₁ helped himself₁ get back the justice’ without changing the basic meaning of the sentence, and (18d) can be re-expressed as ‘*Tamen₁ bu hui shi/rang ziji₁ fengxian gei laogong he haizi*’ ‘They₁ will not make/let themselves₁ devoted to their husbands and children’. As to ‘dui’ ‘to’, it itself bears a verbal meaning and may be referred to as a ‘verbal preposition’, evidenced by the fact that it cannot be replaced with the preposition ‘duiyu’ ‘concerning’. So these facts can be said in justification of the argument that the prepositional phrases headed by ‘wei, ti, ba’ etc. seem to serve a grammatical function of ECM-like structure, making up a good bound anaphor out of ‘ziji’ in what we call ‘Binding prepositional structure’.

Let me state the principle of the interpretation of ‘ziji’ as a bound anaphor below:

(19) ‘Ziji₁’ is interpreted as bound by or coreferential with the matrix subject, providing that it occurs in a given local (syntactic) domain such as (Co)argument structure, ECM-like structure, Binding prepositional structure and can be analyzed as having a prototypical or hidden (co)argument-relation to the subject.

The rationale underlying the interpretation of ‘ziji₁’ in bound-anaphoric use is attributable to what Levinson (1991, 2000) calls either the ‘B-first’ account or the ‘A-first’ account. For the sake of simplicity, I attempt to base the reading of ‘ziji’ as bound anaphor on the ‘B-first’ pragmatic analysis.⁷ Levinson (1991, 2000), following in the spirit of proposals by Farmer and Harnish (1987) and Huang (1987), develops the ‘B-first’ account (as an alternative to the earlier ‘A-first’ account) within the neo-Gricean pragmatic framework. In this analysis the pattern predicted by Condition B is taken to be the basic pattern, out of which the patterns regulated by Conditions A and C will then be derived ‘for free’ by the systematic interaction of neo-Gricean principles of inferential enrichment, viz. Q-, I- and M-inferences.

As noted in Levinson (2000, p. 328), on one hand the stabilized pattern of interpretation where clausemate NPs are preferentially construed as distinct in reference would be thought of as a matter of grammatical stipulation—Condition B (or

⁶ Chomsky’s Binding Condition A: Anaphors must be bound in its governing category (see Haegeman 1994, p. 228).

⁷ It is certain that the ‘A-first’ account (Levinson, 1987a/b, 1991, 2000) will also be useful for doing this job, if my handling of ‘ziji₁’ as bound anaphor or ‘real anaphor’ is on the right track. As Levinson (2000, p. 328) put it, “[...] because the (B-first) account uses the same pragmatic apparatus, there is no theoretical inconsistency between our ‘A-first’ and what we may call a ‘B-first’ account.” The ‘A-first’ account simply means that Condition A of the GB Theory is accepted as a rule of grammar and incorporated into the neo-Gricean pragmatic theory of conversational implicature, with Conditions B and C being pragmatically predicted respectively by the Q-principle and the Q-principle plus M-inference.

C) as part of Universal Grammar surfacing as an inferential presumption; on the other the core B-like pattern could itself be pragmatically motivated: it is motivated by a pragmatic Disjoint Reference Presumption (DRP) as the basic datum for pronominal anaphora, advanced by Farmer and Harnish (1987). The DRP holds that ‘the arguments of a predicate are intended to be disjoint, unless marked otherwise’ (Farmer and Harnish, 1987, p. 557). Levinson (2000) relates this pragmatic presumption to his GCI (Generalized Conversational Implicature) framework in its further justification, considering that its origin is left unclear under their account. ‘Under a classification of actions of central human interest, agents normally act upon entities other than themselves; the prototypical action—what is described by the prototypical transitive clause—is one agent acting upon some entity distinct from itself. If that is how the world stereotypically is, then an interpretation of an arbitrary transitive sentence as having referentially distinct arguments is given to us by the I[informativeness]- principle, which encourages and warrants an interpretation of the stereotype’ (2000, pp. 328-29).

The argument of the ‘B-first’ account goes roughly as follows: assuming that the pattern characterized by Binding Condition B is given by the I-principle,⁸ and assuming also that reflexives and lexical NPs are prolix, marked expressions, use of a reflexive or a lexical NP where a pronoun or zero anaphor could have been used will M[anner]-implicate the negation of the interpretation associated with the use of that pronoun or zero anaphor (see for an utter version of the M-principle Levinson 2000, pp. 136-37).

We now turn back to the case of ‘ziji₁’ for illustration. Note that ‘ziji₁’ is a marked expression and tends to be longer, more morphologically complex than a pronoun (cf. ‘ziji’ with ‘ta’ ‘he/she’).⁹ Thus, what ‘ziji₁’ demonstrates is that the normal, stereotypical scenario associated with a transitive clause does not in fact obtain. In other words, if the stereotype is disjoint reference for arguments, then the M-implicature is (by Horn’s 1984 division of pragmatic labor, see Levinson, 2000, p. 331) to the complement of that interpretation, namely to coreference, as illustrated before in the three types of syntactic structure in Chinese where ‘ziji’ and its antecedent behave in a certain mode of coarguments, a phenomenon that results from M-principle overriding the DRP, or from M-implicatures canceling any rival I-implicatures in accordance with the hierarchy Q>M>I. This is how the ‘B-first’ approach works associated with the use of ‘ziji’ as a bound anaphor.

B. Long-range Anaphora

As a long-range anaphor, ‘ziji₂’ differs greatly from ‘ziji₁’ in distribution in discourse. One of the main differences between ‘ziji₂’ and ‘ziji₁’ is that the former does not contrast in reference with a pronoun whereas the latter does. Given that fact, ‘ziji₂’ can be viewed in kind as a sort of pronominal anaphor noted above, or non-clause bounded reflexive anaphor (Sells, 1987) or ‘locally free reflexive’ (Baker, 1995) that may be bound by, or co-referential with, an antecedent element outside the clause and beyond the sentence. For ease of exposition I will consider the anaphoric patterns of ‘ziji₂’ in two aspects: intrasentential (inter-clausal) anaphora and cross-sentential anaphora.

1. Intrasentential anaphora

Levinson’s (1991; 2000, chap. 4) close scrutiny of the anaphoric usage (in particular long-range anaphora) of reflexives shows that long-range anaphors (‘ziji₂’ is a case in point) and pronouns remain in Q-contrast in logophoricity or subjective point of view, though not in reference. This conclusive observation is theoretically based on what he calls the ‘B-then-A’ account—synthesis of the ‘A-first’ and ‘B-first’ accounts.

This synthesis of the ‘A-first’ plus ‘B-first’ account involves two pragmatic principles at work, cited below.

(i) The presumption of clausemate coargument disjointness, the DRP, a stereotypical presumption that can be attributed to the I-principle.

(ii) A scalar Q-implicature contrast between reflexive and pronoun, based on the differential semantic strength of the reflexive and the pronoun, the one being necessarily referentially dependent, the other only optionally so; the one suggesting subjective perspective and emphasis, the other lacking such suggestions.

What the synthesis says is that where antecedent and anaphor are coargument clausemates, the I-presumption (i) will ensure there is always a contrast in reference; outside these positions a long-range reflexive is, warranted by the Q-presumption (ii), contrastive in subjective perspective rather than (necessarily) contrastive in reference.

Obviously, as far as ‘ziji₂’ is concerned, it is the resultant scalar Q-presumption-based contrast (Horn scale) in logophoricity from the combination of the ‘A-first’ and ‘B-first’ analyses that matters much. As a result, a Horn scale formed with ‘ziji₂’ and ‘ta’ ‘he/she’ by Q-presumption is like <ziji₂ [+logophoric], ta [-logophoric]> (the ‘referential dependence’ property aside) and suggests a contrast in logophoricity. It follows that ‘ziji₂’, used inter-clausally (intrasententially), may well be referred to as ‘logophoric pronoun’ or ‘logophor’, after Hagège’s (1974) and Clements’s (1975) (cf. Sells, 1987) original treatment of some such sort of pronouns in African languages. The antecedent of a logophor must in principle be the one ‘whose speech, thoughts, feelings, or general state of consciousness is reported’; hence, logophors appear predominantly with sentential arguments of predicates of communication and mental experience (Sells, 1987, p. 445). ‘Ziji₂’ (not ‘ziji₁’) in Chinese is precisely an instantiation almost, if not completely, characteristic of a logophoric pronoun so depicted, as is illustrated by the examples in (20)-(22) below. In contrast to ‘ta’ ‘he/she’, ‘ziji₂’ always carries this marked, logophoric information. As a logophor and its antecedent are connected by way of predication, ‘ziji₂’ is very often found to appear in two types of sentence construction which I refer to as ‘logophoric construction’ and ‘general indirect sentence construction’

⁸ The related content of the I-principle is that: ... (b) Assume that stereotypical relations obtain between referents /events; ... (d) Assume the existence/actuality of what a sentence is about if that is consistent with what is taken for granted (Levinson 2000, pp. 114-115).

⁹ ‘Ziji₁’ is by definition a weaker form of, and has the same anaphoric function as, a complex reflexive.

respectively, though both being indirect in nature. Note that I treat ‘ziji’ as a logophor informally at sentence level and do not strictly distinguish its occurrences in the two types of construction, although the one occurrence in logophoric domain may be viewed as ‘standard logophor’ and the other in general indirect sentence construction as not.

As summarized in Huang (1994, pp. 187-88), logophoric domains in Chinese are usually triggered by logophoric verbs such as speech verbs: ‘shuo’ ‘say’, ‘gaosu’ ‘tell’, ‘baogao’ ‘report’, ‘biaoshi’ ‘express’, ‘zhichu’ ‘point out’; epistemic verbs: ‘xiangxin’ ‘believe’, ‘renwei’ ‘think’, ‘huaiyi’ ‘suspect’; perceptive verbs: ‘kanjian’ ‘see’, ‘tingdao’ ‘hear’, etc. A logophor invariably comes in an object clause introduced by such a verb and picks the matrix subject as its antecedent, in whatever syntactic slot it occurs. Consider the examples in (20):

(20) a. *Budao yi dun fan shi, Xianglin Sao₁ bian huilai le, gaoxing side dui Si Shen₂ shuo, ziji₁ yijing zai tudi miao juan le menkan.* [Lu]

‘In less than a meal’s duration of time, Sister Xianglin₁ then returned and said, as if cheerfully, to Fourth Aunt₂ that she₁ had already donated to the village temple money for “making a threshold for atonement”.’

b. *Sun Li₁ zhidao ta₂ zheyang zuo shi hao rang ziji₁ likai ta.* [Wang Y.]

‘Sun Li₁ knew that what he₂ did was to let her₁ leave him simply.’

c. *Sun Xiaojie₁ yixin na ge ren₂ bushi dui zhaopian, shi zai jianshang ziji₁.* [Qian]

‘Miss Sun₁ suspected what that man₂ was doing was not checking her photo but appreciating her₁.’

The examples of (20) comprise ‘standard’ logophoric contexts and describe some reported speech events. In this discourse setting the reflexive, whatsoever grammatical role it assumes (in (20a) it serves as the embedded subject, in (20b) an element of the ECM clause and in (20c) the object of ‘jianshang’ ‘appreciate’ in the embedded clause), invariably takes as its antecedent the root subject which represents the sentence-internal protagonist.

‘General indirect sentence constructions’ are non-logophoric constructions, those without logophoric verbs triggering logophoric domains as in (20). But still such structures are ‘subject-oriented’: the matrix subject being antecedent of the reflexive in an overwhelming majority of cases; occasionally with its sub-constituent (modifier) being antecedent, which is forced to happen by semantic and contextual constraints but does not in principle violate the general antecedent-anaphor linkage pattern—antecedent occurring in the subject position vs. anaphor (reflexive) in the predicate. Let (21) and (22) be such examples: ‘ziji’ picks as its antecedent the subject in (21) and in (22) the modifier of the subject due to the head (subject) being inanimate.

(21) a. *Jiashi yi ge fan xiao gui de n i xuesheng zhang de hen piaoliang,*

Gao Xiaozhang₁ zhiyao ta₂ xiang ziji₁ qiuqing rencuo, yexu hui congkuan chufen. [Qian]

‘If a girl student who disobeyed school rules looked very beautiful, Principal Gao₁ would perhaps give her lenient treatment as long as she₂ pleaded with and apologized to him₁.’

b. *Danshi ta₁ hai neng kongzhi ziji₁ de ganqing.* [Xia]

‘But she₁ could still control her₁ emotion.’

(22) a. *Ta₁ de yan₂ fangfu shi lao kan zhe ziji₁ de xin.* [Lao]

‘His₁ eyes₂ seemed to be always looking at his₁ heart.’

b. *Ta₁ de biaoqing he hanyi₂ xia de Fang Hongjian bu gan kai kou, zhi aohui ziji₁ qifen zhuang de tai xiang le.* [Qian]

‘Her₁ facial expression and implication₂ so frightened Fang Hongjian that he did not dare say a single word; and she only regretted she₁ had pretended to be too truly angry.’

In this section we have seen two types of sentence construction where ‘ziji’ functions to effect intrasentential (long-range) anaphora, encouraged by the Q-principle-based contrastive implicature in logophoricity which arises from the combination of the ‘A-first’ and the ‘B-first’ account (Levinson, 2000). The examples in (20)-(22) indicate that long-range reflexive ‘ziji’, albeit serving syntactic purposes of a wide variety, behaves in some consistent way: it definitely comes in the predicate, frequently with the root subject and occasionally with its sub-constituent as the antecedent.

2. Cross-sentence anaphora

So far, much less work seems to have been exclusively done on ‘ziji’ used cross-sententially in Chinese. As a special long-range anaphor occurring cross-sententially, ‘ziji’ is regularly more distant from its antecedent than in the intrasentential (inter-clause) case, in terms of syntactic structure. The above-said Q-presumption-based contrastive implicature in logophoricity, therefore, does not seem to capture cross-sentential anaphora patterns in actual discourse. To account for anaphoric patterns of this type, we can easily adjust and extend that resulting apparatus from the interaction of neo-Gricean pragmatic principles, which is to be attempted soon. We first of all turn to the analyses by Zribi-Hertz (1989) and Baker (1995), since they are useful for tackling the issue of cross-sentential anaphora in Chinese.

Zribi-Hertz (1989) offers a corpus-based survey of occurrences of English reflexive pronouns which are shown to be largely against Chomsky’s Binding Principle A in a productive way. Her data suggests that English reflexives (for instance ‘himself’) have been sub-classified into two sets: emphatic vs. non-emphatic reflexive. Based on the data gathered for her study she (1989, sec. 4) proves that nonemphatic reflexives should strictly respect Binding Principle A which is decomposed into six distributional constraints and that emphatic reflexives which might violate the c-command or binding constraints may have no antecedent at all (be actually free) within their sentence and may be bound beyond the minimal governing category, hence called LDB (long-distance bound) reflexives. Zribi-Hertz (1989) proposes a discourse principle justifying the long-distance binding of LDB reflexives, as summarized in (23).

(23) A discourse principle regulating LDB reflexives:

In English a reflexive pronoun may occur in violation of some stipulation with respect to the Binding Principle A, iff it refers back to the Minimal Subject of Consciousness.

The concept 'Subject of Consciousness' (SC) is defined as a category of discourse grammar, a semantic property assigned to a referent whose thoughts or feelings are conveyed by a portion of discourse. The SC is then understood along the lines as stated in (24).

(24) The Minimal SC (for a given pronoun in discourse) = either (a) or (b):

- a. the nearest available NP (or combination of NPs) which occurs in discourse to the left of the pronoun and is read as logophoric (referring back to the Minimal SC);
- b. the speaker or the addressee (or a group including either one or both), whether or not explicitly mentioned in discourse.

Baker (1995), however, questions the truth of Zribi-Hertz's argument that there is this strong correlation between SC and emphatic reflexive. As Baker (1995, pp. 66-67) put it, as regards logophoricity one indeed finds (in novels and other works) many examples where an LFR (locally free reflexive) refers to an SC, but he also finds (in some novels) many examples of LFRs that are clearly not logophoric; in some of them the SC is the omniscient narrator while in others it is a character different from that denoted by a reflexive. As regards emphasis, he notes that the typical LFR occurs in a situation in which the character it refers to is being contrasted with some one or more other characters. Given such observations, Baker proposes two conditions dominating English intensive NPs: (i) contrastiveness and (ii) discourse prominence, and argues that LFRs should be best analyzed as intensified non-nominative pronouns subject to the 'contrastiveness' as well as the 'discourse prominence' requirement.

As far as the Chinese reflexive in question is concerned, it seems that either Zribi-Hertz's principle or Baker's proposal alone will not be thoroughly in order, but some of their proposals are pretty helpful for our discussion. For one thing, in Chinese 'ziji' as a long-range reflexive is nonemphatic, and Zribi-Hertz's principle is mainly intended to regulate LDB reflexives which are taken to be emphatic.¹⁰ In addition, 'speaker' or/and 'addressee' is/are regarded as a case of the SC, but I exclude both in this article, since they generally have no anaphoric function (see footnote 1). For another, 'ziji' can often occur in nominative case in Chinese discourse, contrary to Baker's (1995) treatment of LFRs in English as intensified 'non-nominative pronouns'. Yet, I would believe that both of them have contributed insightful thoughts to the interpretation of Chinese reflexive. Zribi-Hertz's treatment of 'the nearest available NP' as a 'minimal SC', for one, may bring to light a large set of occurrences of 'ziji' in discourse which have not been so directed by any other approach. And the 'discourse prominence' or 'contrastiveness' requirement proposed by Baker also captures most of the cases where 'ziji' appears as a cross-sentential /discourse anaphor: our data shows that the entities referred to by 'ziji' tend to be more prominent and marked in discourse in contrast to those denoted by ordinary pronouns.

Given the situations so depicted, we follow the lines of the relevant proposals by both Zribi-Hertz (1989) and Baker (1995) and attempt to formulate a discourse principle governing 'ziji' used in cross-sentential anaphora pattern. However, we need to advance beforehand the notion of 'D-logophoricity' to cover the occurrence of 'ziji' different in nature than that characterized by 'logophoricity': the term 'D-logophoricity' is particularly invented here and defined as the quality of the discourse-internal protagonist's point of view associated with the use of 'ziji', in view of the fact that the concept 'logophoricity' as it stands cannot capture the cases of cross-sentential anaphora, especially where 'ziji' occurs as the subject of a sentence.¹¹

I propose in (25) a discourse/pragmatic principle governing the use of 'ziji' in cross-sentential anaphora pattern.

(25) As a cross-sentential reflexive, 'ziji' occurring in a given portion of discourse is interpreted as referring back to the Minimal Discourse-internal Protagonist.

'Minimal Discourse-internal Protagonist' (MDP for short), to be frank, may be seen as a partial clone of Zribi-Hertz's 'Minimal Subject of Consciousness', notwithstanding there are some dissimilarities in nature between the two concepts. Similarly, MDP is generally treated as some referent whose thoughts or feelings are reported by part of a discourse. For an occurrence of the reflexive in discourse, the MDP is to be understood according to the definitions stated in (26).

(26) The MDP is instantiated and construed as the closest matrix subject NP (including a pronoun) which is prominently available and prior to the reflexive in discourse, and is read as D-logophoric (cross-sententially coreferential with 'ziji').

We can now account for cross-sentence anaphoric patterns in actual discourse. To illustrate, take (27)-(29):

(27) *La qi che lai, ta₁ buneng zhuanxinyizhi de pao, haoxiang lao xiang zhe xie shenme, yue xiang bian yue haipa, yue qi bubing. Jiaruo lao zheme xiaqu, jishi cai neng mai shang che ne? Weishenme zheyang ne? Nandao ziji₁ hai suan ge bu yaoqiang de?* (MDP=ta₁ 'he'/Xiangzi) [Lao]

'During the course of rickshaw-pulling, he₁ could not concentrate his attention on running, as if always pondering over something; the more he pondered, the more he was scared and indignant over the injustice. If he always continued like this, when could he afford to buy a rickshaw? Why like this? Wasn't he₁ counted as excellent enough yet?'

(28) *Ta₁ xiang Han Xueyu de wenping jia bu jia, guan ta ganme. Keshi, you yi jian shi, Han Taitai jiang Niu Yue de shihou, Han Xueyu dui ta zuo ge yanse, zhe yanse meiyou taoguo ziji₁ de yan, dangshi jiu you yi ge yinxiang, fangfu touting dao renjia beihou jiang ziji₁ de hua.* (MDP=Ta₁ 'He') [Qian]

'He₁ thought that as for whether or not Han Xueyu's diploma was false, for what he cared about it. But there happened one thing: at the time when Mrs Han talked about New York, Han Xueyu tipped her a wink; this wink did not escape his₁ eyes and at that moment he instantly had an impression that he seemed to overhear what others said of him₁ behind his backs.'

¹⁰ Generally, only a complex reflexive in Chinese like 'ta ziji' 'himself/herself' can be on a par with an emphatic reflexive in English.

¹¹ 'D-logophoricity', where 'D' stands for 'discourse-internal', is thus coined after 'logophoricity'.

(29) *Hongjian*₁ *qinggan xiang ge xuanwo. Ziji*₁ *mei qian dao, keyi fangxin. Dan tingshuo Sun Xiaojie he pangren hao, you cixin nanshou. Ziji*₁ *bingwei ai shang Sun Xiaojie, heyi bu yuan ta gen Lu Zixiao yaohao?* (MDP=Hongjian₁) [Qian]

'Hongjian'₁'s feeling seemed an eddy. He₁ was not involved in it, and could feel relieved. But when hearing that Miss Sun was on good terms with others, he was also in great pain. He₁ did not love Miss Sun; why not hope that she was friends with Lu Zixiao?'

Let's analyze how the reflexive 'ziji' performs a cross-sentence anaphoric role under the viewpoint of the MDP in (27)-(29). First, it is clearly seen in (27) that there is only the pronoun 'ta' 'he' (referring to the protagonist 'Xiangzi') which qualifies by (26) for the MDP, and it is naturally understood as D-logophoric associated with the use of 'ziji'. Then in (28) there are five potential antecedent NPs, occurring sequentially as: 'Ta' 'he', 'Han Xueyu', 'Han Taitai' 'Mrs Han', 'Han Xueyu', 'ta' 'she'; and 'ziji' (used twice) does not refer to 'ta' 'she'/'Han Taitai' 'Mrs Han' or 'Han Xueyu' in the same sentence or 'Han Xueyu' embedded in the nearer object clause of the first sentence, but refers to 'Ta' 'he' (i.e. 'Hongjian') in the very beginning of the first sentence which remains prominent in the discourse. Finally in (29), apparently, the subject of the first sentence (also topic of the discourse) 'Hongjian' is the MDP referred to by 'ziji' used in the subject positions of the second and fourth sentences. Besides, it seems to show us that the first, topical sentence serves as what may be called the 'minimal D-logophoric trigger' in such a larger portion of discourse, much like the use of a 'logophoric verb' such as 'shuo' 'say' or 'zhidao' 'know' etc. as in the examples of (20).

I base these anaphora patterns on some theoretic presumption which results from the neo-Gricean pragmatic accounts, noted before. On the basis of the combination of I-presumption and Q-presumption, just as we had the Q-presumption-based contrast (Horn-scale contrast) in logophoricity resulting from 'A-first' plus 'B-first' approach, we have a like contrastive Horn scale, viz. a scalar Q-implication-based contrast in D-logophoricity. Specifically, as can be seen from (27)-(29), the use of 'ziji' as a cross-sentence anaphor, also known as 'D-logophor' after 'logophor', may be taken to be promoted by contrast to the use of a pronoun, and the two form a Horn scale <ziji [+D-logophoric], PRONOUN (e.g. 'ta') [-D-logophoric]>. This scale denotes that there is a contrast between the strong assertion (A(S)) (=the one with a reflexive) and the weak assertion (A(W)) (=the one with a pronoun) in terms of D-logophoricity, to the effect that the reflexive is obligatorily D-logophoric, whereas the pronoun not so. In each of the examples of cross-sentence anaphora provided above, the speaker used the strong 'reflexive', making clear that he/she intended to construct a cross-sentence anaphoric pattern which is subject to the principle stated in (25). As a D-logophor, 'ziji' is then held to be in perspective related to its antecedent: it occurs within the perspective of the MDP (the antecedent).

C. Summary

Thus far, I have provided various examples of sentence and discourse structure to indicate that the reflexive 'ziji' has at least a twofold function: on one hand it is used to serve the purpose of composing locally bound anaphora patterns; on the other, it serves to produce long-range anaphoric reference at the level of either intra- or cross-sentence structure. This is the outcome of the nature of this reflexive: for lack of Φ -features, 'ziji' has to be parasitic on its antecedent and the antecedent is supposed to occur within the discourse. In summary, I give the details of the anaphoric properties of 'ziji' in Table 1.

TABLE 1
THE ANAPHORIC PROPERTIES OF 'ZIJi'

Anaphors	Domain			How related to antecedent			In what way contrasted with pronoun			Remarks
	LOC	IS	CS	ARG	PRE	PER	REF	LOG	D-LOG	
ziji ₁	+	-	-	+	-	-	+	-	-	As a weak form of complex reflexive
ziji ₂	-	+	+	-	+	+	-	+	+	As a strong form of pronoun

Notes: LOC= (informally) local domain; IS= intrasentence; CS= cross-sentence; ARG= (co)argumenthood; PRE= predication; PER= (discourse-internal protagonist's) perspective; REF= reference; LOG= logophoricity; D-LOG= D-logophoricity.

Table 1 presents general information on the anaphoric characteristics of this reflexive. As a bound anaphor, 'ziji₁' is restricted to the local domain—some syntactic structures, as informally defined in Section 3.1. It is related to the antecedent by way of (co)argumenthood in a certain mode: it is bound in such structures, since reflexive and antecedent may be analyzed as either prototypical (syntactic) or hidden (semantic) clausemate co-arguments. It is used as a weak form of complex reflexive and is complementary with a pronoun in reference. As a long-range anaphor, 'ziji₂' allows its antecedent outside the 'local domain': it allows the antecedent to occur beyond both the clause and the sentence. As it can be viewed as pronominal distinct in kind from 'ziji₁', 'ziji₂' serves as a strong form of pronoun, and contrasts with a pronoun in logophoricity, as in the case of intrasentence (inter-clause) anaphora, or in D-logophoricity, as in the case of cross-sentence/discourse anaphora. Intrasententially, the reflexive is connected with its antecedent by way of predication: it definitely comes in the predicate and its antecedent in the subject; cross-sententially, the reflexive is absolutely within the perspective of the antecedent (the MDP).

IV. ADDITIONAL FACTS AND CONCLUSION

The anaphoric uses of 'ziji' differ widely in discourse. To find out about its overall, different uses, I have analyzed the distributional data of its anaphoric configurations in two noted Chinese novels '*Wei Cheng*' '*Fortress Besieged*' (Qian,

1946/1980) and '*Luotuo Xiangzi*' '*Camel Xiangzi*' (Lao, 1936/1982). In an analysis of 852 examples in respect of 'ziji', extracted from the novels, I have found that only 85 occur in the case of bound anaphora, accounting for proximately 10% of the examples (85/852), while as much as 58% of the examples (498/852) occur in intrasentence (inter-clause) anaphoric pattern and 32 % (269/852) in cross-sentential anaphora, the total percentage of the long-range anaphoric occurrences being overwhelmingly high—90%! In addition, I have a comparison of the instantiations of 'ziji' vs. an alternative complex reflexive and an alternative pronoun, in order to discover the contrastive ratios in frequency between these distinct items¹². The data reveals that in the corpus the percentage of the occurrences of 'ziji₁' is 93.4% in striking contrast with 6.5% of the occurrences of the complex reflexive, in the case of bound anaphora, while 77% of the uses of 'ziji₂' vs. 23% of the uses of the pronoun are found to be in the case of long-range anaphora at sentence level.¹³

Notwithstanding that I confined this cursory, data-based survey to the aforementioned novels, I believe the general findings would not have been much altered concerning the uses of bare vs. complex reflexive and pronoun in Chinese, even if a larger corpus had been covered in such a study. It follows that in Chinese the uses of the (third-person) bare reflexive 'ziji' as a (locally) bound anaphor are of low frequency while those of 'ziji' as a long-range anaphor are of high frequency, and in any case the proportion of 'ziji' in discourse is much higher than either that of an alternative complex reflexive or that of an alternative pronoun.

Given the two distinct functions it serves, 'ziji' plays an indispensable role in improving communicative reference. To put it plainly, as a bound anaphor, 'ziji' is in a position to serve as a weak form of complex reflexive to economize on discourse production on one hand; as a long-distance anaphor, it serves as a strong form of pronoun to ease discourse understanding on the other. The survey conducted in this study, therefore, has led to the conclusion that there prevails in discourse production in Chinese a neo-Gricean-like pragmatic principle facilitating the achievement of communicational ends, as stated in (30), which is revised from Liu (2008).

(30) A pragmatic principle regarding the use of third-person pronouns in Chinese:

a. Where the grammar permits the occurrence of both a bare and a complex reflexive, the speaker intending locally bound anaphora prefers to use the bare (ziji₁) to produce the minimal linguistic information enough to achieve the communicational ends, unless motivated otherwise (e.g., motivated to suggest "emphasis").

b. Where the context permits the occurrence of both a bare reflexive and a pronoun, the speaker intending long-range coreference prefers to use the reflexive (ziji₂) to ease discourse interpretation, unless prevented doing so by other considerations (e.g., avoiding suggesting the "protagonist's point of view").

It is particularly worth noting that (30) may be taken upon the whole to count as a practical approach actualizing the relevant, core theoretical principles of the neo-Gricean framework of conversational implicature. For as can be seen from (30), we can, no doubt, owe (30a) immediately to the I-principle and (30b) to the Q-principle (Levinson, 2000)¹⁴.

APPENDIX SOURCES OF TEXTUAL EXAMPLES

[Guo] Guo Guangyun. 2004. 'Wo Gao Cheng Weigao' 'My story of suing Cheng Weigao' (newspaper serial). *Yangcheng Evening Paper* (issues in April, 2004).

[Lao] Lao She. 1936 /1982. *Luo Tuo Xiang Zi 'Camel Xiangzi'* (also translated into *Rickshaw Boy*) (extracted from the Chinese literature website: www.chinawx.com).

[Lu] Lu Xun. 1995. 'Zhu Fu' 'Blessings'. In *the Complete Works of Lu Xun*. Beijing: Chinese Literature Press.

[Qian] Qian Zhongshu. 1946 /1980. *Wei Cheng 'Fortress Besieged'*. Beijing: Chinese Literature Press (also: www.chinawx.com).

[Wang L.] Wang Lili. 2004. 'Shanghai Nü Ren' 'Women from Shanghai'. *Yangcheng Evening Paper* (16 January, 2004).

[Wang Y.] Wang Yi. 2004. 'Bu Gui Zhang Fu Zao Che Huo, 15 Zai Di Yu Hun Yin Wu Chu Tao' 'Her lecherous husband disabled in a traffic accident, she cannot escape her 15-year hell-marriage.' *Family* (a Chinese magazine) 4, 30-32.

[Xia] Xiamen University Corpus. <http://www.xmuoc.com/gb/hanyu/hanyu/data/corpus/index.htm>.

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¹² An alternative complex reflexive refers to one which overlaps in distribution with 'ziji₁' (bound anaphor) and an alternative pronoun refers to one which overlaps with 'ziji₂' (long-range anaphor). I give an example for each of them as in (i) and (ii), where coreference is marked with boldfacing. (i) '*Xiangzi kan wan le ta ziji* (\approx ziji₁), hui tou kan le kan luotuo.' '**Xiangzi** had looked at **himself**; then turned round and took a look at the camel.' (ii) '*Xia Taitai buhui liu zhe ge zhidao ta* (\approx ziji₂) de lishi de puren.' '**Mrs Xia** would not keep on a maid who knew about **her** life story.' Note that in (i) '*ta ziji*' 'himself' differs in a way from 'ziji₁' in that it carries additional information of "emphasis" and that in (ii) '*ta*' 'her' differs from 'ziji₂' in that the latter suggests obligatory logophoricity while the former does not, though each of the two pairs is not distinct in reference.

¹³ Constrained by operational difficulties, I did not compare the use of 'ziji₂' with that of the pronoun in the case of cross-sentence anaphora in the corpus.

¹⁴ Levinson's (2000, p. 114) I-principle: Speaker's maxim: say as little as necessary, i.e. produce the minimal linguistic information sufficient to achieve your communicational ends, and Levinson's (2000, p. 76) Q-principle: Speaker's maxim: Do not provide a statement that is informatively weaker than your knowledge of the world allows, unless providing a strong statement would contravene the I-principle.

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Proverbs from the Viewpoint of Translation

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Abstract—Undoubtedly passing the world of translation opens new windows toward getting familiar with literature, language and culture of those who think, behave and look at the world in a similar and/or different manners. Although going through many linguistic features seems much less problematic, catching what is going to be transferred through non-linguistic ones is the most problematic to deal with. Among those non-linguistic features, including figurative devices, proverbs are going to be examined in this paper. First some definitions are represented, then proverbs' characteristics and classifications are given and at the end we examine strategies suggested for translation of proverbs by different theorists. Examples of English and Persian proverbs are presented and compared in order to clarify language differences and/or similarities and translating strategies.

Index Terms—proverb, translation strategies, culture

I. INTRODUCTION

The study of proverbs is called paremiology (from Greek *παροιμία* - *paroimía*, "proverb") and can be dated back as far as Aristotle (Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia). According to Kindstrand (1978) & Russo (1983) "the definition of a proverb has caused scholars from many disciplines much chagrin over the centuries. Many attempts at definition have been made from Aristotle to the present time, ranging from philosophical considerations to cut-and-dry lexicographical definitions" (in Meider, 2004:1).

Meider (1985: 119) has defined the proverb as "a short, generally known sentence of the folk which contains wisdom, truth, morals, and traditional views in a metaphorical, fixed and memorable form and which is handed down from generation to generation".

He also points to some proverbs which refer to the definition of proverbs for example; "Proverbs are the children of experience," "Proverbs are the wisdom of the streets," and "Proverbs are true words." "Proverbs obviously contain a lot of common sense, experience, wisdom, and truth, and as such they represent ready-made traditional strategies in oral speech acts and writings from high literature to the mass media" (ibid: 3-4.)

Mollanazar (2001: 53) has defined the proverb as "a unit of meaning in a specific context through which the speaker and hearer arrives at the same meaning."

And the last but not the least Norrick (1985:78) has proposed the following definition for the proverb: "The proverb is a traditional, conversational, didactic genre with general meaning, a potential free conversational turn, preferably with figurative meaning."

Characteristics of proverbs

Different characteristics have been proposed for proverbs by various scholars in the field of paremiology. Here the ideas of two influential scholars will be referenced. Norrick (1985: 32-34) gathering the disperse features proposed by various scholars, has proposed the following characteristics which help us to identify the proverbs from other similar items. These characteristics are as follow:

Proverbs are self-contained: Seiler has argued that proverbs must be self-contained by which he means that none of their essential grammatical units may be replaced. In Norrick's words "Seiler introduces this definitional criterion solely to distinguish proverbs from proverbial phrases. With reference to these characteristics in Norrick's words "proverbial phrases like "to face the music" and "Brown as a berry" are immediately excluded from the class of proverbs because they lack precisely essential grammatical units, which can thus be substituted into them at will".

Proverbs are (propositional) statement: Abrahams is perhaps more precise in requiring the proverb to be a full statement.

Proverbs are (grammatical) sentences: Taylor determines that proverbs must be complete (if elliptical) sentences. Besides, writers such as Abrahams, Holneck, and Meider, also accept complete sentence status as a property of the proverbs.

Proverbs are tradition: The traditional nature of proverbs correlates closely with their status as items of folkloric.

Another theorist who has mentioned some characteristics of proverbs is Trench (1853). He states that three things go to the constituting of a proverb, i. e. shortness, sense, and salt. These characteristics are elaborated on briefly (16-17):

1. Shortness (Brevity): According to Trench "a proverb must have shortness; it must be succinct, utterable in a breath". He points out that "it is, indeed, quite certain that a good proverb will be short-as is compatible with full and forcible conveying of that which it intends. Brevity, "the soul of wit", will be eminently the soul of a proverb's wit. Oftentimes it will consist of two, three, or four, and these sometimes monosyllabic words". This characteristic is obvious in proverbs such as *extremes meet; forewarned, forearmed* and a thousand more. Furthermore he mentions that:

Shortness is only a relative term, and it would perhaps be more accurate to say that a proverb must be *concise*-cut down, that is, to the fewest possible words; condensed, quintessential wisdom but that, if only it fulfill this condition of being as short as possible, it need not be absolutely very short, there are sufficient examples to prove this.

2. Sense: Trench states that the sense is sometimes sacrificed to alliteration.

3. Salt: Trench asserts that "a proverb must have salt, that is, besides its good sense it must in its manner and outward form being pointed and pungent, having a sting in it, a barb which shall not suffer it to drop lightly from the memory".

Regarding this characteristic Marvin (1916, in Trench, 1855: 17) declares that:

Wit and humor in proverbs are common with men who live in favored lands. There is wisdom as well as pleasures in quoting an adage for instructions that is likely to be received with a laugh or a smile, and it is no wonder that in countries where there are liberty and opportunity a large number of such adages should be in use. It is, however, different where misrule and oppression depress the spirits of the people, or where the struggle for existence is so severe that life is filled with anger. In such places there is an incongruity in pleasantries of speech, and wit and humor seem out of place. Yet even under such circumstances nature is true to herself, and in the face of the most adverse conditions men will sometimes quote an amusing aphorism and droll sayings will suddenly spring into popularity; indeed some of the wittiest phrases had their origin in times of distress and suffering. Proverbs have been called "the tears of humanity," not because they are sad, for many are joyous; not because they are depressing, for many are filled with laughter, but because so many have made appearance when the lives of people were embittered by hard toil or made perilous by threatened injury and loss.

Arora (1984) in her article has investigated the stylistic features of proverbs which are as follow:

Alliteration (*Forgive and forget*)

parallelism (*Nothing ventured, nothing gained*)

rhyme (*When the cat is away, the mice will play*)

ellipsis (*Once bitten, twice shy*)

She also proposed some internal features of proverbs which are as follow:

hyperbole (*All is fair in love and war*)

paradox (*For there to be peace there must first be war*)

personification (*Hunger is the best cook*)

II. CLASSIFICATION OF PROVERBS

Different categorizations of proverbs have been proposed by different scholars. For the purpose of the present article two main categorizations will be presented.

The first categorization is one outlined by Norrick (in Honeck, 1997:130-135) who analyzed a sample of the proverbs from the oxford dictionary of English Proverbs. He developed a more empirically oriented and less grandiose schematization that categorizes proverbs according to the type of figuration they use. He distinguished five types of figurative proverbs: synecdoche, metaphoric, metonymic, hyperbolic, and paradoxical. It must be mentioned that in Norrick's words figurative proverbs have figurative meanings that differ from their literal meaning. These types will be explored on briefly:

A. Synecdoche Proverbs

The proverbs in which the literal reading and standard proverbial interpretation or SPI "stand in a relation of macrocosm to microcosm" (ibid: 108). This includes examples such as *the early bird catches the worm, make hay while the sun shines, and Fair words break no bones*. In these proverbs, the literal meaning is quite different from the figurative meaning.

B. Metaphoric Proverbs

In metaphoric proverbs, a nominal becomes metaphoric due to its interaction with another proverb constituent, or the nominal symbolizes some characteristic attribute. An example of the first is, *Favor will as surely perish as life*, and of the second, *Fair play is a jewel*.

C. Metonymic Proverbs

This type of proverb is based on association between something literally named and the thing intended. One example of a metonymic proverb is "who has a fair wife needs more than two eyes" in which the eye stands metonymically for the "sight".

D. Hyperbolic Proverbs

According to Norrick (ibid: 131) "hyperbole has traditionally been considered a rhetorical figure along with, if not quite of the same importance of synecdoche, metaphor and metonymy." In fact hyperbole counts as amplification. Amplification says more than necessary. For example the proverb "faint heart never won fair lady" is a hyperbolic proverb due to the existence of *never* in it.

E. Paradoxical Proverbs

Proverbs in which there is a contradiction or whose interpretation entails a logical contradiction are considered as paradoxical proverbs. In fact paradoxical proverbs have a "second interpretation". An example of paradoxical proverb is "*fair is not fair, but that which pleases*". The first clause of this proverb asserts a clear logical contradiction. The proverb "*a man's house is heaven and hell as well*" is a paradoxical proverb as well.

What is called proverb, parable or idiom in Persian is divided into some categories in western cultures. Of course these categories are to somehow overlap (Moosavi, 2000: 1-10). Proverbs are divided into the following classifications:

A) Adage

An old saying that has been accepted as true. It is a fable.

English proverb: "look before you leap"

Persian equivalent: "bi godar be aab nazan" (Don't go near the water until you learn how to swim).

B) Aphorism: A short, cleverly phrased saying which is intended to express a general truth, short explanation, aphorism.

English proverb: "Experience is the name every one gives to their mistakes."

Persian equivalent: "tajrobeh esmist ke hark as ruye eshtebahatash migozarad"

C) Apothegm: "A short, pithy, and instructive saying".

English proverb: "Beverity is the soul of wit".

Persian equivalent: "kam gooy o gozideh gooy chon dor" (speak little and use valuable words).

D) Axiom: "A principle that needs no proof because its truth can be plainly seen".

English proverb: "No one lives for ever".

Persian equivalent: "bashasssr fani ast"

E) Cliché: "A worn-out idea or a trite expression (an expression that has become stale from too much use).

English proverb: "As quick as a wink".

Persian equivalent: "dar yek cheshm be ham zadan" (just in a moment when you close and open your eyes).

F) Expression: A word or group of words used in a particular situation or by particular people. Expressions are divided into colloquial, idiomatic or slang expressions.

English proverb: "Can of words".

Persian proverb: "kaare doshvaar, masaleye por dardesar".

G) Idiom: "A phrase or expression that has a meaning different from what the words suggest in their usual meaning".

English proverb: "Have bitten off more than you can chew".

Persian proverb: "loghmeye bozorgtar az dahaan bardashtan" (take a gulp much bigger than your mouth).

H) Maxim: "short saying that has become a rule of conduct. A brief statement of a general truth."

English proverb: "Smaller is always better."

Persian proverb: "felfel nabin che rizeh beshkan bebin che tizeh" (don't look at the small size of pepper crack it open and see how bitter it is).

I) Proverb: "An old and familiar saying that tells something wise. A frequently used saying that gives advice or makes a philosophical observation."

English proverb: "The appetite grows eating".

Persian equivalent: "eshtehaa zire dandaan ast" (your appetite is under your teeth).

J) Saw: "A wise saying".

English proverb: "A stitch in time saves nine."

Persian equivalent: "alaajeh vaaghe'e ghabl az voghu' baayad kard" (event should be taken before it happens).

k) Saying: "A well known and wise statement, which often has a meaning that is different from the meaning of the words it contains."

English proverb: "Wast not, wont not".

Persian equivalent: "tabzir nakon keh dar namaani" (don't waste in order not to be needy).

L) "Informal language, which might include words and meanings which are not polite and which might say in use only for a short time. It is used by particular groups of people who know each other and is usually spoken rather than written. They are appropriate for formal writing.

In Persian the word "joojeh (chicken) is used to show coward persons."

M) Truism: A statement that almost everybody knows is true.

English proverb: "You are only young once."

Persian equivalent: "Javaani kojaaee ke yaadat beh kheir "(O' youth ! where are you , we bless you).

III. FUNCTIONS OF PROVERBS

All or virtually all cultures possess a repertoire of formulations and use them mainly as rhetorically effective means of transmitting accumulated knowledge and experience. Proverbs are speech entities that can be used in every aspect of discussions such as poetry, wise saying, and contemplative argument as well as daily lives of all cultures to address situations or just in leisurely discourse. Mieder (2004: 108-9) mentions that "proverbs are found in many parts of the world, but some areas seem to have richer stores of proverbs than others (such as West Africa), while others have hardly any (North and South America). As far as the functions of proverbs are concerned, Honeck (1997:26-29) has proposed the following functions for the proverbs:

A. *Literary Function*

Proverbs are used in prose, poetry and song. The reasons vary with the genre. Poetry and song tend to follow certain rhythmic structures, so the poetic and balanced syntactic structure of some proverbs can be appealing. In addition, they pack a great deal of information into a short statement and poets and song writer often have verbal economy as a goal. For writers of prose and some poetry, the goals may be different, with a shift in a focus to the rhetorical, sometimes indirect, distant style that typifies proverbs. Perhaps the most fundamental reason why proverbs appear in literary sources is that they pack an emotional and aesthetic punch. This effect can be traced not only to their frequent use of poetic devices, but to their common omnitemporal (timeless) form and their arousal of affect-laden universal ideas about human affairs. Writers such as Shakespeare, Emily Dickinson and Bernard Shaw have applied proverbs in their works.

Then, Honeck (ibid, 27) makes this hint that "one can ask whether there is anything unique about the proverbs genre that makes for its use in literature. One hypothesis is that proverbs are detachable from their original context of use, but nevertheless can remind a reader of the social norms they embody that is, the proverbs can retain its general significance in spite of its being resituated in some text".

B. *Practical Function*

The other function which Honeck (ibid) clarifies for the proverbs is their use in practical situations. Proverbs have characteristic properties that make them useful for everyday purposes. They are relatively short, poetic, typically concrete, and used as indirect comments. They have the power and wisdom of many people behind them, and they perform categorization and pragmatic functions. These properties strongly suggest that they can be used to facilitate memory, teach and persuade. Of course, these properties are precisely why many proverbs develop in cultures in the first place. Regarding the practicality of proverbs he adds "the proverbs are also used for treatment for sociopsychological problems such as substance abuse, psychotherapy, tests of mental status, as a way of teaching children to think more abstractly, as an imaginary mnemonic by the elderly, as a means of assessing workers' attitudes about work and life, and even as tests of a defendant's competency to stand trial.

According to Moosavi (2000: 8-10) proverbs might be used for either of these functions;

1. Proverbs are used as a title of a book or title of a literary work on the whole (e.g. Shakespeare's *measure for measure* whose Persian equivalent is "kolukh andaz raa paadaash sang ast")
2. In press, hot news is circulated through a proverb in the heading or text of it which reflect news topic.
3. Statesmen and government authorities use proverbs in their speech in different occasions.
4. Proverbs might attract consumers' attention in ads (either commercial or political).

IV. IMPORTANCE OF PROVERBS

Disraeli (quoted in Trench 1853:4) points out the importance of proverbs in the following way:

"Proverbs embrace the wide sphere of human existence, they take all the colors of life, they are often exquisite strokes of genius, they delight by their airy sarcasm or their caustic satire, the luxuriance of their humor, the playfulness of their turn, and even by the elegance of their imagery, and the tenderness of their sentiment. They give a deep insight into domestic life, and open for us the heart of man, in all the various states which he may occupy; a frequent review of proverbs should enter into our readings; and although they are no longer the ornaments of conversation, they have not ceased to be the treasuries of thought."

Regarding the importance of proverbs, Mieder (2004:1) asserts that:

Of the various verbal folklore genres (i.e., fairy tales, legends, tall tales, jokes, and riddles), proverbs are the most concise but not necessarily the simplest form. The vast scholarship on proverbs is ample proof that they are anything but mundane matters in human communication. Proverbs fulfill the human need to summarize experiences and observations into nuggets of wisdom that provide ready-made comments on personal relationships and social affairs. There are proverbs for every imaginable context, and they are thus as contradictory as life itself.

He adds that "proverb pairs like "*Absence makes the heart grow fonder*" and "*Out of sight, out of mind*" or "*Look before you leap*" and "*He who hesitates is lost*" make it abundantly clear that proverb do not represent a logical

philosophical system. But when the proper proverb is chosen for a particular situation, it is bound to fit perfectly and it becomes an effective formulaic strategy of communication".

Regarding the importance of proverbs at the present time he points out that:

Contrary to some isolated opinions, proverbs have not lost their usefulness in modern society. They serve people well in oral speech and the written word, coming to mind almost automatically as prefabricated verbal units. While the frequency of their employment might well vary among people and contexts, proverbs are a significant rhetorical force in various modes of communication, from friendly chats, powerful political speeches, and religious sermons to lyrical poetry, best-seller novels, and the influential mass media. Proverbs are in fact everywhere, and it is exactly their ubiquity that has led scholars from many disciplines to study them from classical times to the modern age. There is no doubt that the playful alteration of the proverb "If the *shoe* fits, wear it" to "If the proverb fits, use it" says it all! (Mieder, 2004:2).

Honeck (1997: 4) has argued that the history of proverbs within the species is sketchy, it is clear that the proverb has fascinated the lay person as well as the scholar. Paremiology, the study of proverbs, is practiced by many different kinds of people including cultural anthropologists, psychologists, folklorists, linguists, sociologists, educators, psychiatrists, historians, students of religion, literature buffs, and even lawyers, advertising executives, management consultants, and an occasional proverb aficionado. All these sentences imply the importance of proverbs.

As Honeck (1997:5-6) points out all these interest in and resulting vast literature on the proverb has yielded different goals, perspectives, assumptions, methodologies, findings, and theoretical conclusions in such a way that there is "no overarching theory of proverbs". Instead different views regarding have emerged. He himself refers to seven reasonably distinguishable of such views which have been presented below:

Personal: The proverb is treated from a subjective viewpoint based purely on personal experience and understanding.

Formal: This is a scientific approach that primarily uses the methods and concepts of linguistics, logic, and semiotics to define, classify and semiotics to define, classify and otherwise analyze proverbs.

Religious: Religious teaching and wisdom are examined in texts.

Literary: Proverbs in prose and poetry re analyzed in terms of their literary value and what they tell us about the writer, their times, and so forth.

Practical: The many uses of the proverb in intelligence testing, psychotherapy and other areas are examined.

Cultural: This is a scientific approach to the proverb that treats it as a multifunction from of folk literature that arises from and is embedded in a sociocultural context.

Cognitive: this is a scientific approach based on cognitive science that attempts to explain how individuals use and understand proverbs.

Each of these views has something unique and positive to contribute to our knowledge of proverbs. As it was said the vast area in which proverbs has been investigated by different scholars imply the importance of proverbs as an integral part of all or virtually all cultures and languages.

Learning culture through proverbs:

According to Samover et al (2009: 29) in nearly every culture, proverbs-communicated in colorful, vivid languages and with very few words- offer an important set of values and beliefs for members of the culture. They also reflect the wisdom, biases, and even superstitions of a culture. Proverbs go by many names (such as maxims, truisms, and even sayings), yet they all are intended to carry the truths and accumulated insights of the culture. Proverbs are so important to the learning process that there is even a German proverb that notes, "A country can be judged by the quality of its proverbs."

Proverbs are learned easily and repeated with great regularity. Because they are brief (a line or two), their power as a teacher is often overlooked. These proverbs survive so that each generation learns what a culture deems significant. As Sellers tells you, "proverbs reunite the listener with his or her ancestors". Samovar et al (2009: 30) also mentions that because all people, regardless of their culture, share common experiences, many of the same proverbs appear throughout the world. For example, in nearly every culture some degree of thrift and hard work is stressed. Hence in Germany the proverb states, " *One who does not honor the penny is not worthy of the dollar.*" In the United States people are told, " *A penny saved is a penny earned.*" Because silence is valued in Japan and China, a Japanese proverb says, " *The quacking duck is the first to get shot.*" In addition to numerous universal proverbs, there are also thousands of proverbs that each culture uses to teach lessons that are unique to that particular culture.

Roy (quoted in Samover et al, 2009: 30) offers a summary as to why the understanding of cultural proverbs is a valuable tool for students of intercultural communication.

"Examination of these orally transmitted values offers an excellent means of learning about another culture because the oft-repeated sayings fuse past, present, and future. These sayings focus our attention on basic principles accepted within the culture."

Yet, each culture has proverbs that are unique to it. The saying, 'If you want to know a people, know their proverbs' illustrates this. For example, as Zona, (1994, quoted in Schuster) mentions "sayings from various Native American tribes often reflect their view of the land as sacred: " *Take only what you need and leave the land as you found it*" and the importance of spirituality: " *Wisdom comes only when you stop looking for it and start living the life the Creator*

intended for you". Japanese proverbs often refer to morals: "*An evil deed remains with the evildoer*" and discretion: "*The tongue is like a sharp knife, it kills without drawing blood*".

V. THE ORIGIN OF PROVERBS

According to Marvin (1922:4) "the origin of most proverbs is unknown. 'They were anterior to books,' says Disraeli, 'and formed the wisdom of the vulgar, and in the earliest ages were the unwritten laws of morality.' As a nation's proverbs predate its literature it is impossible to trace them to their beginnings. They spring from an unknown source, increase in volume as they roll on and are adopted by all as unconsciously as they have sprung into existence."

He also points out that in youth we thought that the proverbs quoted by our elders were mere "ways of speaking," borrowed from others of their own generation. As we grew older and sought to discover from whence they came we were surprised to learn that many, if not all of them, had been used for centuries not only by our forbears but all over the world.

Regarding the origins of the proverbs Meider (2004), the famous paremiologist, states that:

Proverbs, like riddles, jokes, or fairy tales, do not fall out of the sky and neither are they products of a mythical soul of the folk. Instead they are always coined by an individual either intentionally or unintentionally, as expressed in Lord John Russell's well-known one-line proverb definition that has taken on a proverbial status of sorts: 'A proverb is the wit of one and the wisdom of many' (9).

He also explains how a statement can turn into a proverb. He believes that if the statement contains an element of truth or wisdom, and if it exhibits one or more proverbial markers, it might "catch on" and be used first in a small family circle, and subsequently in a village, a city, a region, a country, a continent, and eventually the world. The global spread of proverbs is not a pipe dream, since certain ancient proverbs have in fact spread into many parts of the world. Today, with the incredible power of the mass media, a newly formulated proverb-like statement might become a bona fide proverb relatively quickly by way of the radio, television, and print media. As with verbal folklore in general, the original statement might well be varied a bit as it gets picked up and becomes ever more an anonymous proverb whose wording, structure, style, and metaphor are such that it is memorable.

Furthermore, Meider (ibid: 10-13) mentions that it is usually quite difficult to trace the origin and history of a proverb in a particular language. So, studying European languages he proposes four sources for the distribution of European proverbs. Of course he clarifies this point that similar issues have occurred in the dissemination of proverbs in Asian, African, and other linguistic and cultural groups. Here these four sources will be outlined briefly:

1. There is no doubt that a considerable corpus of common European proverbs can be traced back to classical times (Greek and Roman antiquity). Since they were loan translated from the same sources, they exist in the many languages of Europe in identical forms. Little wonder then that exact equivalents of the classical proverb "Where there is *smoke*, there are fire" can be found in 54 European languages.

2. A second source of proverbs for the entire European continent and beyond is the Bible, whose proverbs date back to classical antiquity and early wisdom literature. As a widely translated book, the Bible had a major influence on the distribution of common proverbs since the various translators were dealing with the same texts. Several dozen biblical proverbs are thus current in identical wordings in many European languages, even though speakers might not remember that they are employing proverbs from the Bible.

3. The third source for common European proverbs is Medieval Latin. It must not be forgotten that the Latin language of the Middle Ages had the status of a lingua franca, and as such it developed new proverbs that cannot be traced back to classical times. Many Medieval Latin proverbs in their exact translations have spread to European languages, and they certainly belong to some of the most popular proverbs today. Many Medieval Latin proverbs in their exact translations have spread to European languages, and they certainly belong to some of the most popular proverbs today. A well-known example is: "Crows will not pick out crows' eyes".

4. The fourth source for common European proverbs reverses the historical move of proverbs from Europe to the United States. They are modern texts that have been disseminated since the middle of the twentieth century Proverbs throughout Europe by means of the mass media. A few American proverbs that are already spreading across the European continent either in the new lingua franca of English or in new loan translations are "A *picture* is worth a thousand words," "It takes two to *tango*," and "Garbage in, garbage out" (from the world of computers).

As far as the origins of proverbs in Persian language is concerned Moosavi (2000: 4) in his book, mentions two origins from which proverbs emerge. These two are as follows:

Religion:

{In these kinds of proverbs we can find words, expressions or meaning which have their origin in one religion. Their equivalents in another language may be a religious one, non-religious one or none}. Some examples of Persian are given whose equivalents in English are as follows:

- 1) PP: "Hamisheh Sha'boon yekbar ramezon"(always the month of Sha'ban once Ramezan (Sha'ban and Ramezan are respectively the eighth and ninth lunar months)).

EP: "Always the bride's maid never the bride".

- 2) PP: "Har keh raa kholghash nekoo nikoo shomar"(every one who is good-tempered, consider him as a good person)

EP: " Handsome is that handsome does"

Literature:

{The proverbs with this origin are those that have originated from literary works written in one language. These might be one line of a poem, one sentence or phrase taken from a fable or mythological story or from a moral exhortation}.

1)"Har kas tohi kisetar aasudetar"(Emptier sack, more comfortable).

EP: "Small riches hath most rest".

2)"Hezaar va'deye khubaan yeki vafaa nakonad"(good person with thousands promises only does one)

EP: "He that promises too much means nothing".

3)"Nushdaaru ba'd az marge Sohraab"(Nushdaaru after the death of Sohrab(one mythological character in Persian literature)).

EP: "While men go after a leech, the body is buried."

4)"omr barf ast o aaftabe tamooz" (life is like snow against summer sunshine.)

EP: "The shades of time are running out."

VI. ON THE TRANSLATION OF PROVERBS

Translating proverbs, the translator should know linguistic and non-linguistic features of both languages. By linguistic features we mean those elements which are not conveyed only through words, what is important here is culture. Each proverb conveys specific meaning in a specific context of situation. Therefore, a proverb should be rendered with care to carry the same cultural conventions in the original proverb. It is not reasonable to translate a proverb while just looking at the first meaning of its words in a dictionary.

Mollanazar (2001: 54) emphasized that proverbs cannot be translated literally (word-for-word) and they may sometimes have no natural figurative equivalents in TL. Thus, he proposed two strategies in translating proverbs:

a) Some similar proverbs can be found in the two languages with more or less similar form, vocabulary and meaning and;

b) Many proverbs may be found in the two languages which have similar meanings and can be applied in the same contexts, but they have different form and vocabulary.

Beekman and Callow (in Gorjian, 2006) suggested three ways to translate a proverb which are as follow:

1. The words following the proverb could be introduced as the meaning of the proverb;

2. It can be replaced with an equivalent local proverb; and

3. Its non-figurative meaning could be stated straight forwardly.

As far as the translation of proverbs is concerned Falk (1978: 44) says that "since idioms, proverbs and certain nonproductive compounds must be entered in the lexicon of a grammar as single units as if they were single morphemes, it is not surprising that these items pose difficulties when translation from one language to another is involved".

Baker (1992:65) has proposed four strategies for the translation of idioms and fixed expressions including proverbs which are as follow:

1. Using an idiom of similar meaning and form of SL one.

2. Using an idiom of similar meaning but dissimilar form of SL idiom.

3. Translation by paraphrase, and

4. Translation by omission

Duff (in Gorjian, 2006) cited that "idiomatic expressions are notoriously untranslatable. These include similes, metaphors, proverbs and sayings (as good as jargon, slang, and colloquialisms)." Duff also noted that if these expressions have no equivalents in TL, the translator may approach to TL equivalents as follows:

1. Literal translation,

2. Original word in inverted commas,

3. Close equivalents, and

4. Non-idiomatic translation.

Finally, Duff (ibid) emphasized that if there is not an appropriate equivalent in TL, the translator should not force it into the translation. Vinay and Darbelnet (1995: 342) believed that the TL equivalents should "replicate the same situation as in the original, whilst using completely different wording." This approach can be used to maintain the stylistic impact of the SL text in the TL text. According to them, an equivalent is the ideal method when the translator has to deal with proverbs, idioms, clichés, nominal or adjectival phrases and the onomatopoeia of animal sounds.

VII. CONCLUSION

Proverbs are interesting, important, and complex. That is why so many different views have evolved to analyze them: the personal, formal, religious, literary, practical, cultural and cognitive views. These views have different goals that have been persuaded with different techniques, so they provide us with different information. Proverbs have been and remain most powerful and effective instrument for the transmission of culture, social morality, manners and ideas of a people from one generation to another. The reason behind the efficacy of them has been and remains a most powerful and effective instrument for the transmission of culture, social morality, manners and ideas of a people from one

generation to another. The reason behind the efficacy of the proverb is that it is an aphorism, a wise saying based upon people's experience, and is a reflection of the social values and sensibility of the people.

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Utilizing the Analysis of Social Practices to Raise Critical Language Awareness in EFL Writing Courses

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Abstract—Language can be used as a means to control and influence people. EFL students need to realize that the language they interact with may contain ideological assumptions and propositional meanings. By increasing critical language awareness, students may come to recognize ideological assumptions within the language. Fairclough (2003) suggests that one of the ways to increase critical language awareness is to identify social practices, defined as rules and structures that limit human actions and interaction within a context. The elements of order of discourse—genre, discourse, and style—are the linguistic rules of social practices. The goal of this study was to provide a method for EFL teachers to increase students' critical awareness through writing. The participants consisted of 16 teacher trainees and 10 university students who performed a journal-writing task over 10 sessions. Feedback, based on the elements of order of discourse, was provided after each session, and the participants were asked to consider the feedback for their next journal entry. After 10 sessions, the journals were quantified and regression analysis was used to calculate the slope polarity of the best fitting line. The results indicate that the scores of the majority of the participants increased.

Index Terms—critical language awareness, critical discourse analysis, social practices

I. INTRODUCTION

Language can be used as a means to control people and to influence what they think and do (see Bolinger, 1990; Bourdieu, 1991; Fairclough, 1995). The choice of words, sentence structure, register, or discourse structure can radically alter people's perceptions toward a method, a belief, or an ideology. For example, a choice of lexis might either justify police brutality as an appropriate method of suppressing a dangerous criminal, or render the police officers as vicious law officials who abuse power. A classic example of manipulation is changing the structure of a sentence by using the passive voice, which is used to conceal facts. For example, if a politician says, "mistakes were made," we might not immediately ask "what mistakes exactly?" or "how many mistakes are you talking about?" or even "who made the mistakes?"

Critical discourse analysis (CDA) is a type of research which attempts to reveal the connections between language use, power, and ideology. CDA recognizes that languages uses can influence and be influenced by language. One of the research objectives of CDA (see Fairclough, 1992b) is analogous to a goal of critical language awareness, which is to raise students' awareness of how language is used so that others cannot easily manipulate them. In other words, students need to be aware that in some cases language is used to satisfy a secondary or hidden agenda. Raising critical language awareness enables students to understand issues regarding power and control as well as the role that language plays in these issues.

According to van Lier(1998; 2004), language awareness develops through social interaction. He asserts that focusing on certain linguistic elements in the environment is required to raise critical language awareness. Fairclough (2004) suggested a framework that explains what aspects of language should be focused on to increase critical language awareness.

Fairclough's (2004) framework was developed by studying human interactions in society via the science of social ontology. Social ontology assumes that what can exist (or is possible) in a society is abstract, also referred to as abstract social structures. What is, or what already exists in a society is concrete, labeled as social events.

Social structures are a set of potentials that include some possibilities and exclude others (Fairclough, 2003). For example, the beliefs and values of a Muslim religious family could be construed as a social structure. Such a family will choose to eat only Halal foods. Although this choice will entitle them to a wide range of food, it also excludes certain foods. Likewise, language is an element of social structure; it allows for a set of possibilities and excludes others. For example, "a book" is a possible phrase in English, "book a" is not.

Football games, university class lectures, or symposiums are all social events. In other words, they exist in our society. People interact in these social events, and these interactions are either spoken or written. Fairclough (2003) calls these interactions texts. In some social events, a great deal of text is required and in others, very little text is created. For example, a football game produces little text because this social event requires minimal linguistic action (except maybe yelling for the ball). A classroom lecture is also a social event, but the actions in the classroom are usually linguistic in nature; what the lecturer says, what is seen on the video projector, and what students write down are all considered to be texts.

Social events and their texts do not happen randomly. There are factors that shape the events and texts. Fairclough (2003) believes there are two causes that form social events and their texts. The first cause is the social agent, or people who are involved in the social event. Social agents are not free to say or write anything they want because of social, ideological, or personal constraints. The second cause is limitations and sets of intermediate rules that regulate how texts are produced. In other words, these rules are selected from what is possible in social structures. Fairclough (2003) refers to these rules as social practices. Social practices are formed over long periods of time, and there are many types of social practices that govern a social event. The different types of social practices form networks. These networks define ways of acting and interacting via speaking and writing. For example, the way schoolteachers interact with their students in the classroom has changed over the last 50 years. These changes have occurred through shifts in networks of social practices. These shifts include the ban on beating children, using verbal abuse, and the use of a less formal tone in the classroom.

Some of the rules and limitations imposed by social practices are linguistic. The linguistic restrictions of social practices do not only include grammatical rules. There are other organizational entities, which Fairclough (2003, 2004) calls orders of discourse. The elements of orders of discourse allow for a set of linguistic possibilities and exclude others. For example, in a formal interview, the elements of the order of discourse allow a wide variety of topics to be discussed. However, they restrict interaction on private or personal matters. These elements are not nouns, verbs or adjectives; instead, the elements consist of genres, discourses, and styles. Therefore, to increase critical language awareness, students need to be trained to identify genres, discourses, and styles within texts.

Genres are expressed as “ways of acting” (Fairclough, 2004, p. 228) or “language tied to a particular social activity” (Chouliaraki & Fairclough, 1999, p. 63); they can manifest themselves as interviews or sermons. Accordingly, writing journals about learning, as long as the teacher provides feedback, is an interaction or a text (see Chouliaraki & Fairclough, 1999, for other examples). In other words, certain aspects of the language should indicate that a written text is a learning journal. For example, a learning journal should have a theme, which indicates what was taught in a particular session. In sum, genres are responsible for putting meaning and content in a context.

The next element of order of discourse is called discourse. Discourses are basically “ways of representing” (Fairclough, 2004, p. 228) or “construction of some aspect of reality from a particular perspective” (Chouliaraki & Fairclough, 1999, p. 63). Different discourses are in essence different perspectives of the world. People have different perspectives because they exist in different contexts and have different and unique identities.

Discourses are evident in political commentary used by governments. Phrases such as “terrorism,” “axis of evil,” or “weapons of mass destruction” are intended to promote fear and distrust as well as to keep people apart. Conversely, words could be used to bring people together. It is important to note that social relationships are not only established by discourses; they are just one element that can be used to make or change relationships.

The third and final element of order of discourse is called style. Style is defined as “language used for a particular category of people and closely linked to their Identity” (Chouliaraki & Fairclough, 1999, p. 63). Who you are is partly defined by how you speak (or write). Styles can be realized through pronunciation, intonation, stress, and rhythm. For example, most medical doctors use specific lexis and phrases, which indicate that the person speaking or writing is a medical doctor. In other words, their choice of lexis has indicated part of their identity. However, in identifying style in written texts, we focus on the choice of vocabulary.

In a learning journal, being able to express a new ability or a change in a belief, for example, could be considered the style of a student. In our study, a participant wrote in one of his journal entries “today I learned how to mind map.” This is a classic example of using language to show that a student is learning new material. If we were to guess the identity of the person who wrote this sentence in isolation, we would probably say that this person is a student of some kind.

If students are able to identify the elements of order of discourse, they will be able to critically analyze linguistic actions and interactions. This will increase their ability to look at language critically, which in turn increases critical language awareness. The goal of this research study was to familiarize students with these elements through writing learning journals. It is hypothesized that when students repeatedly observe how elements of order of discourse are applied to their journal entries, they would learn to apply these tools, which would ultimately increase their level of critical language awareness.

II. METHOD

Two groups of participants took part in this study. Members of the first group (group A) were all EFL teacher trainees at one of Tehran’s larger language institutes. They consisted of 10 females and 6 males. All took the Oxford Placement Test (Allen, 2004) and obtained a score of 150 or higher, which designated them as advanced users of

English. The second group (group B) consisted of 3 male and 7 female English literature students who sat for the Oxford Placement Test and obtained scores between 135 and 150, which designated them as competent users of English.

Both groups were provided with an explanation of the research and its purposes in a briefing session. Participants in group A were allowed to discontinue participating in the project at any time because they were not given any incentive and participation was on a voluntary basis, but participants in group B were told that the research was part of their class credit and that participation was mandatory.

Both groups were asked to carry out a journal-writing task focusing on the topic of learning for 10 sessions. Guidelines on how to write a journal were adopted from Moon (1999) and given to all participants (see Appendix C). The guidelines explained what was to be written in the journal. These guidelines were provided because it was anticipated that if the participants did not fully understand what was expected of them, they would write very little and, as a result, would have trouble identifying the elements of order of discourse.

In addition to the Oxford Placement Test, a critical discourse feedback form (see Appendix A) and a critical discourse assessment questionnaire (see Appendix B) were also used in the study. The critical discourse feedback form was created to ease the analysis of the learning journals. All three elements were broken into subsections to help students more accurately identify the elements of order of discourse. These subsections were developed based on Chouliaraki and Fairclough's (1999) account of genre, discourse, and style as well as on the findings of other scholars (Fairclough, 2004; Lewis & Ketter, 2004; Rogers, 2004; Sarroub, 2004; Woodside-Jiron, 2004).

The critical discourse feedback form consisted of three sections. The first section was genre, which had 6 subsections. These subsections were theme, information focus, paragraph formation, cohesion devices, L1 influence, and literary devices. These subsections were selected based on Chouliaraki and Fairclough's (1999) description of genre. The researchers expected that journals written by EFL students should include these subsections.

The first subsection, theme, referred to the topic of study in the students' classes. For example, in this study, two of the themes were compare and contrast paragraphs and classroom management. The theme limits the scope of the journal entry. For instance, when the theme is classroom management, one does not expect to read about how to teach reading. The next subsection was information focus, which referred to the topic area the participants chose to talk about. For example, an information focus in this study for the theme of "classroom management" was the way the instructor taught classroom management, or how the topic of classroom management was interesting or boring. The next subsection was paragraph formation. This subsection indicated the separation of information focus. This type of organization is expected in journal writing, which is why it was included as a subsection of genre.

The next subsection was the total number of cohesive devices, which is important in a journal entry because events should be labeled using appropriate lexical categories such as adverbs and conjunctions (Moon, 1999; Sparks-Langer & Colto, 1991; Sparks-Langer, Simmons, Pasch, Colton, & Starko, 1990). For example, presenting events in a chronological order might demonstrate a reflection of the events that took place.

The next subsection, the number of incidents where L1 influence is observed, may not be restricted to journal writing; nevertheless, the category was added to give feedback to the writer on what should not be written or what is not linguistically possible. For example, one participant wrote, "The scores of the midterm exams is coming this week. I have a lot of stress, I know I should be more careless, but I can't." As mentioned before, genres are ways of acting or interacting. A non-native speaker of Persian might not understand why the student should be more careless. If careless was translated into Persian, its meaning would change from "clumsy" in English to "care-free" in Persian. Informing the writers of this mistake probably increased their awareness of these types of errors and might have provoked the formation of a practice of double checking meanings that are lost in translation.

The next subcategory, the number of literary devices, is an important subsection of genre. Literary devices show creative thinking and the depth and detail of reflection. Fairclough (2003) considers the use of literary devices as part of a native speaker's discourse (way of representing). However, the researchers believe that EFL students should be able to interact with each other using literary devices and, in journal writing, the students should be creative and descriptive about events that occurred in the classroom. In other words, using literary devices is expected from a competent and proficient language user, hence for the language user, literary devices fall into the genre section.

Discourse or ways of representing was the next section. This section consisted of three subsections: point of view or perspective, possible interpretation, and challenges or disagreements. The first subsection, point of view, was selected to identify the participants' degree of awareness of other pupils' thoughts and insights in class. For example, for the theme of "learning vocabulary," one participant wrote, "she [one of the students in the class] said that the best way to learn vocabulary is learning the correct pronunciation and that the correct pronunciation 'stuck' in her mind." This participant later mentions, "I don't think pronunciation is the most important factor in vocabulary learning." Based on what the participant has written, it seems that she has the ability to observe different points of view and evaluate them. In other words, this participant was able to distinguish a point of view that was different from her own, evaluate it, and reflect upon it by mentioning it in her journal.

The next subsection, possible interpretations, refers to the general mood or message the participant was trying to convey. For example, one participant asked an assessor five times about how to improve his writing. In previous feedback forms, he felt others were improving while he was not. This interaction between the participant and the

assessor is a clear indication of anxiety. If others read this entry, they would probably conclude that because the student repetitively inquired about his writing ability, he was anxious and worried.

The last subcategory was challenges or disagreements. One example of a challenge/disagreement occurred when a participant wrote, "I dislike the speed of his [the instructor's] teaching; it is fast for me." Another wrote, "I think that during his [a fellow trainee's] lesson there was a high level of Teacher Talk Time. He should have kept his talking time to a minimum." These two examples were categorized under challenges or disagreements. When people challenge or disagree with others, they are actually establishing a relationship. The words and phrases used to challenge or even disagree might indicate dominance of one person or idea over the other.

The last section, style, is a particular way of speaking or writing that reveals information on identity. In other words, the language used by participants in this study should indicate that the writers are studying English. Style consists of 9 subcategories: pronoun variation, passive formation, tense variation, affinity, use of modal verbs, affective transitivity, cognitive transitivity, ability transitivity, and register.

The first subsection, pronoun variation, referred to the use of the first, second, and third person. English students usually communicate with other students and reflect upon each other's opinions. This category is important because changes in point of view demonstrate how a participant views himself or herself in relation to others. For example, the use of the first person singular could be an indication of solitude, whereas the use of first person plural might indicate unification, or siding with a particular group. Participants who show more points of view demonstrate that they have more contact with other students and that they have considered and reflected upon those interactions.

The next subsection examines the number of passive verbs used. The number of passive verbs was counted in this section because the passive voice is usually used in the written text of English students to show impersonality. It might even be construed as a sign of humbleness. Other times, the passive tense is used to hide something. For example, one participant wrote "there was much disagreement about 'on the spot' error correction." It seems that this student does not want to mention who disagreed with this form of error correction perhaps because she does not want the assessor of the journals to know.

The next subsection was tense variation, which referred to the extent to which state of time (past, present, and future) and their aspects (simple, continuous, and perfect) were used. Varieties of tenses indicate depth of reflection. In other words, a variety of tenses was an indication that the participants had reflected on events from the past and pondered upon them. Journal descriptions of different events and actions at different points in time indicated that the participant was attentive in the classroom. The variation in verb tense is important because the students were expected to be vigilant during class, and variation in tense within the journal descriptions might reflect this vigilance.

The next subsection, affinity, referred to the ability to say something in a manner that did not hurt one's feelings. This is a very important quality for language students to have. For instance, a participant wrote, "I hope all this material we have to learn does not go to waste☺." The use of the smiley face when considering that the participant was expressing distrust was taken as a sign of affinity.

The next subsection, the use of modal verbs, referred to the extent to which modal verbs were used in the journal. Modal verbs are a good indication of how the participants see themselves in relation to others and are a good indication of how students express emotions. For example, using modal verbs that denote certainty might indicate confidence of the participant, whereas modal verbs that express probability or possibility might be an indication of tact.

The subsections of affective transitivity, cognitive transitivity, and ability transitivity need to be discussed separately because they are more elaborate. Chouliaraki and Fairclough (1999) have stated that transitivity can be used for analyzing style. Fairclough (1992) has suggested that transitivity includes the analysis of process types. He has also suggested that process types in a text can be categorized into "actions, events, relational and mental" (p. 180). When Fairclough (1992, p. 180), discussed actions, he distinguished between direct actions and indirect actions. A direct action refers to an agent acting upon a goal. For example, in "the teenager kicked the dog," the process is a direct action because there is an agent, an action, and a goal. However, in "the teenager was kicking" the process is indirect because there is an agent and an action, but there is no goal involved. For the purpose of text analysis, the distinction between direct and non-direct processes was not made because the researchers felt it would confuse participants. Both processes were classified as one category called ability transitivity.

In the context of learning journals, ability transitivity referred to the expression of new skills that the participants had developed. Being able to express new abilities is part of being a student. Mental processes were divided into two categories of affective transitivity and cognitive transitivity. Affective transitivity, in the context of journal writing, refers to the ability to express wants and desires; cognitive transitivity refers to the ability to express beliefs and attitudes. Being able to express new beliefs or rejecting them is part of the text a student produces (Wenden, 1986).

Students also should be able to express what they want to learn, or what learning they would pursue in the future (Sinclair, McGrath, & Lamb, 2000). Event processes can focus on the mastery of the materials learned because these processes "involve an event and a goal" (Fairclough, 1992b, p. 180). Because mastery of the skills taught in the class required practice, it was unreasonable to expect participants to discuss this in their journals. Therefore, an analysis of events was excluded from the study. In addition, relational analysis was part of the text analysis, but after five entries, the researchers realized that almost all processes written in the journals were action processes. Therefore, the analysis of relational processes was not carried out.

In the end, register refers to the degree of formality used in the journal. Formality is expected of a foreign language student addressing a superior and contributes to the learning process (Krashen & Seliger, 1976).

Members of group A, who were participating in a teacher training course, were asked to write a journal entry from the 2nd to the 11th session. Group B, comprised of English literature university students, met once a week and they submitted their journal entries every week for 10 weeks, starting with the 2nd week.

For group A, the experiment lasted two weeks, and one of the researchers met with the participants five days per week. For group B, journal writing took 10 weeks because the other researcher and the participants only met once per week. All participants submitted their journals when they met with the researchers. The journals were evaluated using the critical discourse feedback form and then returned to the participants the next time they met.

A color coding system was used to show the participants how well they were performing on their journals. Green was used to show satisfaction or improvement in a subcategory. In other words, the color green indicated that the participant was vigilant in a particular subcategory. Black was used to show no change, and red indicated dissatisfaction or retrogression. Figure 9 shows three extracts from a participant’s critical feedback form from sessions four, five, and eight.

Discourse (session 4)	
1. Point of view or perspective:	Still only one
2. Possible interpretation	The trainee needs to focus and reflect on the theme, not provide a summary of the subject matter. I suggest that you revisit appendix D for further guidelines. I hope I will not see an entry like this again.
3. Challenges or disagreements	None
Discourse (session 5)	
1. Point of view or perspective:	There are 2, hers, and an experience of another peer. (very nice)
2. Possible interpretation	The trainee is more aware, and self-confidence is increasing. She pays more attention to her environment, and uses colorful words to describe events.
3. Challenges or disagreements	None – did you agree with everything you were taught?
Discourse (session 8)	
1. Point of view or perspective:	Many; she mentions how others learned languages
2. Possible interpretation	She has made an incredible transition from trainee to teacher. Her reflections focus on what can be more effective in class rather than a simple description.
3. Challenges or disagreements	She challenges the time limitation for using “vocabulary in use”

Figure 1. Extracts from critical assessment feedback forms, from one participant, in sessions four, five and eight.

The participants were asked to review their feedback forms and try to be more attentive in the subcategories where they received remarks in red, to make improvements in the subcategories where the remarks were in black, and to continue with the manner in which they were writing in the subcategories where the remarks were in green. Throughout the course of the experiment, the participants were constantly reminded that the feedback form was “a tool and not a rule.” This mentality is important because the researchers wanted to avoid biased interpretations of the events that occurred in the classroom.

After 10 sessions, a rater quantified the feedback forms using the critical discourse assessment questionnaire. A second rater quantified 40 journals. The inter-rater reliability was established at 0.7467.

The same scoring method was used for both group A and group B. The critical discourse assessment questionnaire was used to quantify data from the feedback forms. The questionnaire had three categories, which were genre, discourse, and style. Every subcategory in the critical discourse feedback form was also included in the critical discourse assessment questionnaire, with the exception of two subcategories. The first omitted subcategory of genre was theme because it was a constant in each class session among all the participants. The second exclusion was register in the style category. Register was removed from scoring for two reasons. First, Moon (1999) asserts that reflective journals can be written both in formal and informal registers. Second, almost all entries have a mixed register, which made scoring difficult.

The critical discourse assessment questionnaire was composed of 16 questions. There were five questions for the genre category, three for discourse, and eight for style. With the exception of the subcategories of theme and register, all other questions correspond to the subcategories on the critical awareness feedback form. The questionnaire was comprised of yes/no questions or multiple choice questions depending on the characteristics of the subcategory.

In a review of the literature, there was no mention anywhere that one element (genre, discourse, style) was more important than another element, so it was assumed that they all have equal value. Thus, all three sections were valued at 20 points each, distributed among the subcategories. Because there were a different number of questions in each section, the values of the questions were not equal. The maximum score on the questionnaire was 60 points.

III. RESULTS

The data for group A and group B are organized in separate tables. Data from group A is arranged in Table 1. The letters in the first row represent the individual participant (participants were given a code to ensure anonymity). Each participant wrote ten journals. The scores (obtained from the critical discourse assessment questionnaire) are displayed for each participant.

TABLE 1
SCORES AND DATA ANALYSIS FOR GROUP A

Sessions	A	Q	DD	K	D	P	H	N	FF	R	HH	O	J	MM	X	C
1	19	23	18	32	29	15	17	23	8	20	31	15	22	9	24	25
2	17	23	15	30	29	18	23	22	9	28	18	18	19	7	22	15
3	31	35	10	36	28	21	20	28	19	30	37	20	23	15	20	14
4	23	34	28	35	34	13	21	35	28	30	33	25	28	24	33	39
5	30	30	18	33	30	11	21	43	37	34	30	18	21	23	34	37
6	48	32	20	35	38	23	35	39	31	26	29	20	42	24	36	29
7	37	43	40	52	41	34	36	40	39	46	29	21	39	27	36	43
8	38	40	39	53	47	22	33	44	35	48	40	25	33	29	34	37
9	35	42	22	53	42	29	35	44	39	44	29	27	39	33	47	45
10	47	34	28	56	53	35	34	30	42	54	44	29	40	37	39	45
Corr	0.81	0.75	0.60	0.90	0.92	0.74	0.86	0.66	0.91	0.60	0.40	0.83	0.83	0.96	0.86	0.80
b	2.87	1.73	1.95	3.12	2.61	2.04	2.19	1.87	3.78	2.22	0.95	1.24	2.46	3.12	2.37	3.08

Corr = correlation; b = slope of the best fitting line.

To show how the scores changed over a period of ten sessions, linear regression was used and the slope of the best fitting line was calculated. The scores obtained represent the variables being predicted (Y); the order of session variable (X) is used to make the prediction. Although the order of the sessions is in the ordinal scale, it can be treated as an interval scale, "if the successive categories of the ordinal scale are evenly scaled" (Long & Freese, 2006, p. 421), which was the case here. To calculate the slope of the best fitting line, first the Pearson Product-moment correlation coefficient between X and Y was calculated (represented by Corr in the Table 1). Then the slopes were calculated, which are represented by b in the Table 1. As can be seen, all slopes are positive with a mean of 2.35 and a range of 2.83.

TABLE 2
SCORES AND DATA ANALYSIS FOR GROUP B

Sessions	21	10	5	15	14	12	4	6	19	23
1	13	10	10	32	30	12	12	18	15	15
2	15	21	14	29	28	14	28	13	18	22
3	19	28	20	37	27	21	33	9	21	24
4	19	12	24	36	25	28	30	29	25	22
5	21	11	29	40	20	24	34	19	27	23
6	16	21	15	29	20	21	29	19	19	36
7	22	27	32	40	18	26	34	30	22	37
8	23	25	31	41	8	29	30	39	23	30
9	23	27	33	42	15	30	34	23	26	33
10	24	28	30	37	20	28	32	28	29	34
Corr	0.87	0.61	0.82	0.60	-0.82	0.84	0.60	0.64	0.73	0.84
b	1.08	1.48	2.29	0.95	-1.80	1.74	1.30	1.90	1.06	2.04

Corr = correlation; b = slope of the best fitting line.

The data for group B is arranged in Table 2. The numbers in the first row represent the participant. Each participant wrote 10 journal entries, all of which were scored using the critical discourse assessment questionnaire.

As with the previous group, regression analysis was used to identify how the scores changed during the ten sessions. Accordingly, Pearson Product-moment correlation coefficients and the slopes were calculated and are represented by

Corr and b, respectively. In contrast to what is observed in Table 1, in Table 2 there is a negative slope of -1.80. However, all other slopes in Table 2 are positive.

IV. DISCUSSION

The results obtained from both groups indicate that the feedback scores for most participants increased. The data clearly shows that the scores obtained from session 1 gradually increased until session 10, although the scores of both groups showed fluctuations (see Figure 2 and Figure 3).

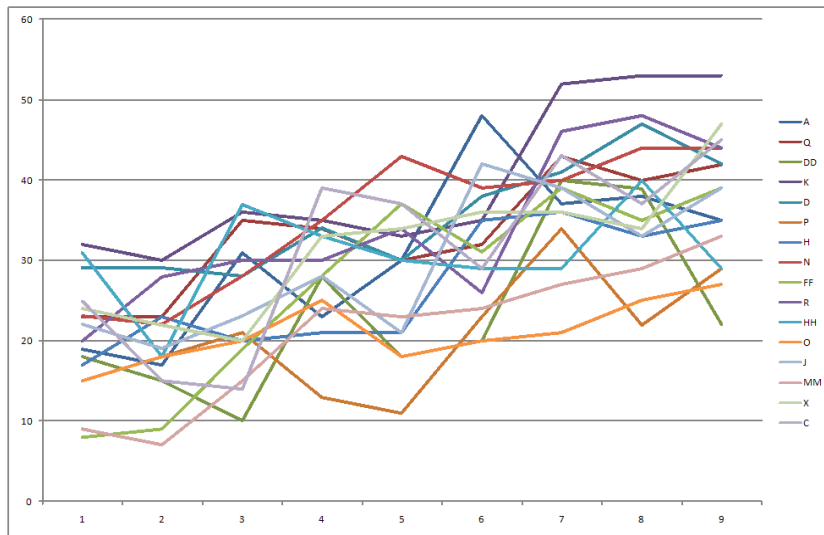


Figure 2. Critical assessment form scores for group A in 10 sessions.

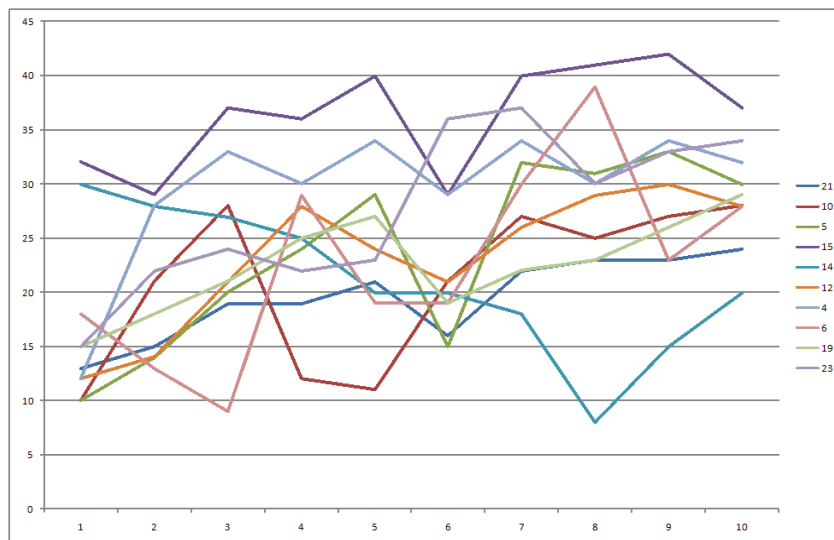


Figure 3. Critical assessment form scores for group B in 10 sessions.

The fluctuations may have been caused by participants’ individual differences, such as personality, age, gender, and social status. External factors, such as the theme of the class, environmental conditions, and the instructor, also could have affected the scores.

There are many instances that show how the critical language awareness level increased in 10 sessions for both groups. Almost all participants observed paragraph formation, and used a variety of cohesive devices, which were absent in their earlier journal entries. In session three there were only 4 participants who indicated the use of literary devices. In session 8, 19 participants recognized literary devices, such as “my friend told me that the instructor was new, and he was only trying to win the hearts of the trainees” and “when I asked her how she felt after such a good performance she said ‘I am on cloud nine.’ I wish I could do a performance like hers.” Tense variation also increased in the last three or four journal entries of the majority of the participants. For example while in session three only 8 participants used first, second and third person in their journals, 21 participants used all three forms in session 10. The researchers also observed that participants used affinity such as “may I be allowed to make some suggestions?” or “I’m not sure if my opinion counts but,” which were not observed in earlier journal entries. Participants expressed transitivity such as “I need to improve my general English skills” or “at the end I decided that the instructor’s idea may be better

than mine” more frequently in the final 3 sessions. In sum, by using the elements of the order of discourse, the participants had become more critical and more vigilant of their social environment.

Critical discourse analysis has been used as the basis for teaching critical language awareness to students in Australia and the UK (Fairclough, 1992a) in an L1 learning context. In the curricula involving CDA, students are taught how to critically analyze the texts of the culture around them to improve their understanding of their social environment. In a foreign language context similar curricula can be used to raise critical language awareness by teaching learner to analyze their social environment with the elements of the order of discourse.

Unfortunately, there is no published research concerning critical language awareness and EFL writing with an ecological perspective. Studies by Cots (2006) and van Dijk (2001) have provided suggestions on how to increase critical awareness levels in skills such as reading. However, the findings of this research cannot be compared to other studies, unfortunately.

In conclusion, the findings of this study showed that writing could be used to increase critical language awareness in EFL students. Increasing language awareness levels can be accomplished by repetitively exposing students to critical discourse analysis. In this study, the participants were exposed to the elements of the order of discourse because, according to Fairclough (2004), these elements can be used as a method of critical discourse analysis to analyze written and spoken texts. Repeated exposure to the elements allowed students to use them to analyze the spoken and written texts in their environments. As a result, their critical language awareness in a social environment increased.

APPENDIX A CRITICAL AWARENESS FEEDBACK FORM

Name: _____

Code: _____

Genre

1. Theme
2. Information focus
3. Paragraph formation
4. Cohesive devices
5. L1 influence
6. Literary devices

Discourse

1. Point of view or perspective
2. Possible interpretation
3. Challenges or disagreements

Style

1. Pronoun variation
2. Passive vs. active
3. Tense variation
4. Affinity
5. Use of modal verbs
6. Affective transitivity
7. Cognitive transitivity
8. State transitivity
9. Ability transitivity
10. Register

APPENDIX B CRITICAL DISCOURSE ASSESSMENT QUESTIONNAIRE

Code: _____ Journal entry number: _____ Total points: _____

Genre

- | | |
|--|----------------|
| 1. Does the participant shift the focus of the journal entry (in other words, talks about different topics?) | |
| a. No, only one topic is provided | 1. a= 0 points |
| b. Yes, two topics are provided | 2. b= 2 points |
| c. Yes, more than one topic is provided | 3. c= 4 points |
| 2. Is paragraph formation observed? | |
| a. No, the journal is one big paragraph | 1. a= 0 points |
| b. Yes, but the paragraph is not well structured | 2. b= 2 points |
| c. Yes | 3. c= 4 points |
| 3. Are there any cohesive devices used? | |
| a. No | 1. a= 0 points |
| b. Yes, at least one | 2. b= 2 points |
| c. Yes, there are more than three | 3. c= 4 points |
| 4. Are there any influences of the first language? | |
| a. No | 1. a= 4 points |
| b. Yes, at least one | 2. b= 2 points |
| c. Yes, more than one | 3. c= 0 points |
| 5. Are there any literary devices used? | |
| a. No | 1. a= 0 points |
| | 2. b= 2 points |

b. Yes, at least one	3.	c= 4 points
c. Yes, more than one		
Total Genre points=		
Discourse		
1. Are the points of view of other people expressed in the journal?		
a. No	1.	a= 0 points
b. Yes, one other point of view is expressed	2.	b= 4 points
c. Yes, multiple points of view are expressed	3.	c= 8 points
2. Does the journal provide the rater with an insight into the feeling and emotions of the writer?		
a. No	1.	a= 0 points
b. Yes	2.	b= 4 points
3. Are there any challenges or disagreements mentioned in the journal?		
a. No	1.	a= 0 points
b. Yes, at least one	2.	b= 4 points
c. Yes, there are multiple points mentioned	3.	c= 8 points
Total Discourse points=		
Style		
1. Are there various pronouns used?		
a. No, only first person is used	1.	a= 0 points
b. Yes, first person and second person are used	2.	b= 1 points
c. Yes, first, second, and third persons are used	3.	c= 2 points
2. Are there any passive verbs?		
a. No	1.	a= 0 points
b. Yes, at least one	2.	b= 1 points
c. Yes, multiple instances are observed	3.	c= 2 points
3. Are there any tense (present, past, future, present perfect, past perfect) variation?		
a. No, only one tense is used	1.	a= 0 points
b. Yes, two tenses are used	2.	b= 1 points
c. Yes, more than two tenses are used	3.	c= 2 points
4. Did the author use affinity at any point?		
a. No	1.	a= 0 points
b. Yes	2.	b= 3 points
5. Are there any modal verbs used?		
a. No	1.	a= 0 points
b. Yes, at least one type	2.	b= 1 points
c. Yes, multiple types are used	3.	c= 2 points
6. Did the author use affective transitivity?		
a. No	1.	a= 0 points
b. Yes	2.	b= 3 points
7. Did the author use cognitive transitivity?		
a. No	1.	a= 0 points
b. Yes	2.	b= 3 points
8. Did the author use ability transitivity?		
a. No	1.	a= 0 points
b. Yes	2.	b= 3 points
Total style points=		

APPENDIX C GUIDELINES QUESTIONS FOR WRITING A JOURNAL

A. *Content of Learning Journal*

A learning journal should focus on your own personal responses, reactions, and reflections to new ideas or new ways of thinking about a subject that has been introduced to you. It may include:

- Significant experiences that have happened during the training session
- Research and reading including any visual research, e.g., television, film, etc.
- Conversations and discussions with other students or tutors

B. *What Should you Write about?*

The most important thing is to make time for your writing--regularly set aside some time to think and then write down your thoughts. Try to focus on using the journal to help you to communicate:

What you think about issues raised on this particular component for the training course

Any inspiration you have had

Your understanding up to this point in time

What you find puzzling, difficult, or contradictory

What you can do understand points that are puzzling, difficult, or contradictory

What you need to know more about, and how can you go about finding out more

How you feel about the way you have approached the issue/topic so far

What new skills or understanding you have gained during the process of writing your learning journal

Finally, writing a learning journal gives you the opportunity to consider the following issues regarding your long-term development:

Have you changed your opinions or values during the process/experience?

How can you improve your learning, thinking, and working in the future?

Have you identified the next step(s) for your further development?

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Analysis of Interpersonal Meaning in Public Speeches—A Case Study of Obama's Speech

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Abstract—This paper uses the opening speech given by president Obama at a prime time news conference commemorating his first 100th day in office as the sample and tries to explore how interpersonal meaning is achieved from the perspective of Functional Grammar and with the focus on mood, modal auxiliary, personal pronouns in pronoun system, and tense shift. The finding shows that Obama makes full use of the language to achieve his political purpose in his speech by using different devices to fulfill interpersonal meaning.

Index Terms—interpersonal meaning, mood, modal auxiliary, pronoun system, tense shift

I. INTRODUCTION

Public speeches are delivered orally, which are often well-prepared in writing and presented on formal occasions. Based on the functions and contents, political speech is a kind of public speech given by authorities with political purposes that tries to influence a certain group of people. This paper uses the opening speech given by president Obama at a prime time news conference commemorating his first 100th day in office as the sample. Obama is the first black man to become the president, which is considered as a breakthrough in American history. He took charge of the US government in face of financial crisis and two wars disputes. As the first 100 days of presidency have begun to have symbolic significance since Franklin D. Roosevelt's administration and the period is considered a benchmark to measure the early success of a president, so the speech given on that day is of great importance, which is also due to the fact that it is a chance for the president not only to present the achievement made by his government, but also set a good image and gain continuous support for his administration in the coming days. The news conference consists of Obama's opening speech and questions from the reporters. This paper uses Obama's opening speech as the sample text and tries to make an analysis on how interpersonal meaning is fulfilled.

II. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Functional Grammar grew out of the work of J.F. Firth and was mainly developed by M.A.K. Halliday. It is a theory of language centered on the notion of function. Halliday (2000) proposed that language has three meta-functions, the ideational, the interpersonal and the textual. The interpersonal function plays the role of setting up and maintaining social relations, and indicates the roles of the participants in communication (Halliday, 2002). We use language to interact with people for some purposes: we may want to influence their attitudes or behavior, or to provide information that they do not know, or to explain our own attitudes or behavior, or to get them to take some actions, and so on (Thompson 2000, Simon, 1997). Halliday (2009) pointed out that the interpersonal meaning can be expressed by mood, modality and key. Later, he added pronoun system, attitudinal modifier and rhythmic features of words. Eggins (2004) found that the link between language systems and the choice made by the speaker in the exchange enable us to see speakers making meaning about interpersonal: the extent of their intimacy, their level of familiarity with each other and their attitudes and judgments. In a speech, to accomplish the interaction with the audience is the initial purpose of every speaker. So this paper explores how the speaker fulfills interpersonal meaning during the interaction in terms of mood, modal auxiliary, personal pronouns and tense shift.

III. ANALYSIS OF INTERPERSONAL MEANING

The investigation on the fulfillment of interpersonal meaning of public speech is conducted from the following four perspectives.

A. Analysis of Mood

When we interact with people, we use language clearly to convey the unlimited purposes: we may want to order, apologize, confirm, invite, reject, describe and so on. According to Halliday, most of the fundamental purposes in any

exchange are giving (and taking) or demanding (and being given) a commodity of some kind (Halliday, 2000). Halliday (2000) classified two kinds of commodity, which he termed as “information” and “goods-service” and then four speech roles can be identified in Table 1.

TABLE 1:
BASIC SPEECH ROLES.

role \ commodity	goods-service	information
giving	offer	statement
demanding	command	question

(Halliday, 2000)

Generally speaking, statements are most naturally expressed by declarative clauses, questions by interrogative clauses and commands by imperative. There also exist exceptions in certain context. For example, some interrogative sentences can also be used to give command with different intonation. In Functional Grammar, the subject and finite make up the mood and the subject-finite positioning in a clause realizes different speech functions, which plays a vital role in carrying out the interpersonal meaning of the clause as exchange and serves a reflection of social role and identity (Eggs & Slade, 1997).

In Obama’s speech, all of the clauses adopt declarative mood except sentence 1 and sentence 9 which are imperative clauses. There are some considerations why he chose to use declarative mood. First of all, he is the information-giver and he needs to state out his opinions explicitly and express his ideas clearly. As the speech was given on his 100th day, lots of people attached great attention to it. Obama took office in such a special time and “change” is the theme that Obama has been repeatedly emphasizing in his campaign speech, and “Yes, we can” has become a slogan of Obama. Obama made a promise of changing and creating a different and better world for American people when he became the president, so it is his time to tell people what kinds of changes have taken place and what kinds of achievements they have made to prove their capability. Secondly, from the declarative mood, the relation between Obama and the listeners is marked and his authority, status and administration are well established. Declarative sentences not only function as describing, explaining, confirming, but also as advising, suggesting and encouraging. As a president, he has the authority to make comments and analysis of current issues. His statements are believed to be convincing and confirming.

B. Analysis of Modal Auxiliary

Halliday (2000) views that through modality the speaker takes up a position and signals the status and validity of his own judgments. If the commodity being exchanged is information, the clauses are labeled as proposition and modality expressions are termed as modalization which refers to the validity of proposition in terms of probability and usuality. If the commodity is goods and service, modality expressions are defined as proposals and are termed as modulation which reflects how confident the speaker can be in the eventual success of the exchange in terms of obligation and inclination. There are a large number of ways to realize modality, including modal auxiliary, adverbs, intonation and mental-process verbs. This paper will focus on modal auxiliary and Table 2 presents the frequency of modal auxiliary used in Obama’s speech.

TABLE 2:
THE FREQUENCY OF MODAL AUXILIARY

modal auxiliary	will	can	should	have to
modality	inclination/futurity	ability/possibility	obligation	obligation
frequency	18	4	4	2

From the above table, we can easily find that “will” is used most frequently. It is mainly employed to provide information about what will exactly happen in the future and refers to the intention of Obama’s administration based on the speaker’s belief and perception. The use of “will” by president Obama reveals his views towards the future and its effect is strengthened by the power and authority he possesses. He is actually describing a wonderful blueprint for American people and these are consistent with the promise he made before. With these descriptions, he is able to attract people’s attention and gain their support, which in turn urges American people to make efforts to achieve these goals together with his administration. “Can” is used in the last sentence to intensify the firm confidence that American people should have for the promising future. It is also used to express the expectation that American people should have for their government’s efforts. The use of “can” indicates the possibility and Obama also tries to inspire and elicit hope from the audience. “Should” is adopted 3 times. One refers to normal condition of credit flow which shows the necessity of putting credit market right on track. As “should” usually expresses imperative suggestion or command, the other two convey a confirming belief and have a relatively strong request. “Have to” is used to express obligation from the external factors. Obama uses “have to” when he is talking about H1N1 flu virus and the essential foundation for growth. With the consideration of objective situation and factors, Obama states his opinions in an objective and convincing way which also mitigates his power and shows his friendliness. From the above analysis, we can conclude

that Obama tends to give hope and anticipate the future using “will” rather than enforcing on his people, through which, a good relationship is well established.

C. *Analysis of Pronoun System*

For the analysis of pronoun system, Table 3 illustrates the frequency of personal pronouns used in Obama’s speech.

TABLE 3:
THE FREQUENCY OF PERSONAL PRONOUNS

personal pronouns	we	I	you	our	your
frequency	28	18	6	17	3

As we all know, personal pronouns have a variety of functions in political speech, which can be interpreted from the aspect of social and political roles. They can achieve different interactive effects and reflect the speaker’s perception of the relationship between the listener and himself. From Table 3, we can notice that “we” is the most frequently used personal pronoun, together with its possessive form “our”. “We” can be used to refer to the group excluding the listener or the group including the listener. For example, “we” in sentence 3, 6, 8, 10, refers to Obama and his administration. Obama uses “we” to emphasize the willingness and the representative role of his administration as well as highlight the obligation and duty of the government. The authority and status are also established. While “we” in sentence 16, 17, 26, 27, refers to all the present people and all of the American people including Obama and his administration. Obama adopts “we” to identify that his government and himself are a part of the whole nation and all the achievements that have been made should be attributed to the efforts of all the American people and the challenge before them calls for their united hard work. Meanwhile, the combination of the possessive pronoun “our” with “we” together with the different reference of “we” integrates Obama’s administration with the American people, which can have a strong impact on the listeners and the whole nation. It creates such an impression: the government will fulfill its obligation with the joint efforts from all the American people in order to create the greatest benefit for the whole nation. The frequency of “I” is 18 times, but it mainly falls into the following categories in this speech: to express gratitude to certain people, to describe the specific deeds and words of Obama himself and to present his personal beliefs and comments. For example, “I” in sentence 21 mentions the promise Obama made during his campaign. By pointing out the specific promise with the comparison of the achievement, it implies that Obama has accomplished what he promised rather than making a promise, so American people can have full confidence in him. “You” is used only 6 times. In some sense, “you” can attract people’s attention by involving them in the interaction. In this speech, “you” extends from the listeners to the whole nation. While compared with “we”, it is less used. We can infer that, on the whole, by using “we” and “our” instead of “you” and “your”, the president tends to integrate his administration with the whole nation, which helps to shorten the distance between the people and him and create intimacy among them.

D. *Analysis of Tense Shift*

Halliday (2000) contends that the basic function of the finite is to indicate the validity of the proposition. This can be done in two ways. One is by reference of modality, implying the judgment and attitude of the speaker. The other one is by reference to the time of speaking, which is termed as tense. By relating it to the here and now reality of the speech event, the tense makes it possible to negotiate about the validity of the proposition. Halliday (2000) summarized 3 primary tenses: past, present, future. Present tense dominates in Obama’s speech. We will focus on tense shift to discover how interpersonal meaning is realized through the interaction. Table 4 demonstrates tense shift in this speech.

TABLE 4:
TENSE SHIFT

major tenses	present	future	present	past	present	future
sentence	1-7	8, 10	11-13	14-16	17-36	37-44

From the very beginning, Obama points out that he will give some latest news. From sentence 1 to sentence 7, present tense is mainly used to describe the present situation and the action taken by the government to combat the challenge. Then in sentence 8 and 10, future tense is employed and it enables the listeners to infer that in the future the government will make efforts to ensure what they have promised and they will continuously improve it. These help to relieve the people’s worry and reveal the consideration of the government on the American people. The use of present tense in sentence 11, 12 and 13 make the statement easy and available for the listeners to feel and recognize. Sentence 11 and 12 demonstrate Obama’s gratitude towards the House and the Senate’s approval of budget resolution. Sentence 13 illustrates the relation between the progress made during the past 100 days and the coming results the budget will bring about. Then the following 3 sentences using past tense make people look back and recall the policy and plan that have brought benefits to them. As the three main actions, including recovery acts, health insurance and housing plan, have made contribution to the recovery of the economy, the retrospection can attract people’s attention and create a good image for Obama’s administration. The following sentences, from 18 to 36 mainly using present tense, clearly present the challenge and difficulty. By association with the success, Obama tries to alert people and raise their awareness to continue to make efforts to change the current situation under his leadership. Finally future tense is mainly

adopted in sentences 37 to 44, describing the work to be done and the promising tomorrow the Americans will face, which ultimately touches the heart of every American. In the end, Obama manages to achieve a resonance with the audience and his purpose of speech is fulfilled.

IV. CONCLUSION

This paper uses Obama's speech as an example to demonstrate how interpersonal meaning is generally realized in a political speech. From the above discussion, we can conclude that different uses of mood, modal auxiliary, personal pronouns and tense can express different levels of interpersonal meaning, thus endowing the speaker different status and different purpose, and the influence on the audience is also different. From the above analysis, we can conclude that by using declarative mood, Obama takes the role of information processor and deliverer, which serves the purpose of the news conference; by using different modal auxiliary, Obama presents his opinions and attitudes on issues, which can influence the attitude and belief of the listeners and the American people; by using different personal pronouns, especially the frequent use of "we", Obama establishes an intimate relationship with the people, which enables him to gain support from them.; by using different tenses, Obama is able to alert people the current situation, recall the good past 100 days, and present his confidence in the future, through which the speaker exploits the language to the utmost to achieve the interpersonal meaning during the interaction.

However, we should bear in our mind that other devices can also be used, such as adverbs, adjectives and intonation. If these are discussed in future study, we can have a more fruitful results.

APPENDIX TRANSCRIPTION OF OBAMA'S SPEECH

President Obama:

(1)Please, be seated. (2)Before we begin tonight, I just want to provide everyone with a few brief updates on some of the challenges we're dealing with right now.

(3)First, we are continuing to closely monitor the emergency cases of the H1N1 flu virus throughout the United States. (4)As I said this morning, this is obviously a very serious situation, and every American should know that their entire government is taking the utmost precautions and preparations.

(5)Our public health officials have recommended that schools with confirmed or suspected cases of this flu strongly consider temporarily closing. (6)And if more schools are forced to close, we've recommended that both parents and businesses think about contingency plans if their children do have to stay home.

(7)I've requested an immediate \$1.5 billion in emergency funding from Congress to support our ability to monitor and track this virus and to build our supply of antiviral drugs and other equipment. (8)And we will also ensure that those materials get to where they need to be as quickly as possible. (9)You would take to prevent any other flu: keep your hands washed; cover your mouth when you cough; stay home from work if you're sick; and keep your children home from school if they're sick.

(10)We'll continue to provide regular updates to the American people as we receive more information, and everyone should rest assured that this government is prepared to do whatever it takes to control the impact of this virus.

(11)The second thing I'd like to mention is how gratified I am that the House and the Senate passed a budget resolution today that will serve as an economic blueprint for this nation's future.

(12)I especially want to thank Leader Reid, Speaker Pelosi, all of the members of Congress who worked so quickly and effectively to make this blueprint a reality.

(13)This budget builds on the steps we've taken over the last 100 days to move this economy from recession to recovery and ultimately to prosperity.

(14)We began by passing a recovery act that has already saved or created over 150,000 jobs and provided a tax cut to 95 percent of all working families. (15)We passed a law to provide and protect health insurance for 11 million American children whose parents work full time. (16)And we launched a housing plan that has already contributed to a spike in the number of homeowners who are refinancing their mortgages, which is the equivalent of another tax cut.

(17)But, even as we clear away the wreckage of this recession, I've also said that we can't go back to an economy that's built on a pile of sand, on inflated home prices and maxed-out credit cards, on overleveraged banks and outdated regulations that allow recklessness of a few to threaten the prosperity of all.

(18)We have to lay a new foundation for growth, a foundation that will strengthen our economy and help us compete in the 21st century. (19)And that's exactly what this budget begins to do.

(20)It contains new investments in education that will equip our workers with the right skills and training, new investments in renewable energy that will create millions of jobs and new industries, new investments in health care that will cut costs for families and businesses, and new savings that will bring down our deficit.

(21)I also campaigned on the promise that I would change the direction of our nation's foreign policy. (22)And we've begun to do that, as well. (23)We've begun to end the war in Iraq, and we forged with our NATO allies a new strategy to target Al Qaeda in Afghanistan and Pakistan.

(24)We have rejected the false choice between our security and our ideals by closing the detention center at Guantanamo Bay and banning torture without exception.

(25)And we've renewed our diplomatic efforts to deal with challenges ranging from the global economic crisis to the spread of nuclear weapons.

(26)So I think we're off to a good start, but it's just a start. (27) I'm proud of what we've achieved, but I'm not content.

(28)I'm pleased with our progress, but I'm not satisfied.

(29)Millions of Americans are still without jobs and homes, and more will be lost before this recession is over.

(30)Credit is still not flowing nearly as freely as it should. (31)Countless families and communities touched by our auto industry still face tough times ahead. (32)Our projected long-term deficits are still too high, and government is still not as efficient as it needs to be.

(33)We still confront threats ranging from terrorism to nuclear proliferation, as well as pandemic flu. (34)And all this means you can expect an unrelenting, unyielding effort from this administration to strengthen our prosperity and our security in the second hundred days, in the third hundred days, and all of the days after that.

(35)You can expect us to work on health care reform that will bring down costs while maintaining quality, as well as energy legislation that will spark a clean-energy revolution. (36)I expect to sign legislation by the end of this year that sets new rules of the road for Wall Street, rules that reward drive and innovation, as opposed to short-cuts and abuse.

(37)And we will also work to pass legislation that protects credit card users from unfair rate hikes and abusive fees and penalties. (38)We'll continue scouring the federal budget for savings and target more programs for elimination. (39)And we will continue to pursue procurement reform that will greatly reduce the no-bid contracts that have wasted so many taxpayer dollars.

(40)So we have a lot of work left to do. (41)It's work that will take time, and it will take effort. (42)But the United States of America, I believe, will see a better day.

(43)We will rebuild a stronger nation, and we will endure as a beacon for all of those weary travelers beyond our shores who still dream that there's a place where all of this is possible.

(44)I want to thank the American people for their support and their patience during these trying times, and I look forward to working with you in the next hundred days, in the hundred days after that, all of the hundreds of days to follow to make sure that this country is what it can be.

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The Relationship between Test Takers' Critical Thinking Ability and their Performance on the Reading Section of TOEFL

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Abstract—The vitality of the ability to think critically is now widely recognized among educators and assessors. Critical thinking is defined as the ability to discipline thinking through efficient information processing (Paul, 1990; cited in Longman, Atkinson & Breeden, 1997). This study aimed at uncovering the extent to which the reading section of a ubiquitous standardized test of English language proficiency, namely TOEFL, engages the critical thinking ability of test takers. To this end, 83 advanced EFL learners completed the Watson-Glaser Critical Thinking Appraisal (1980), and the results were correlated with their scores on the reading section of Paper-Based TOEFL (PBT). The findings indicated a statistically significant advantage for those with greater critical thinking skills. Implications relate to the need to incorporate critical reading strategy training in PBT reading preparatory courses and other EFL reading programs. This way, the quality of Measurement-driven Reading Instruction and other EFL reading courses can be improved with a broader goal in mind, that of enhancing critical thinking among learners. Moreover, some of the objections lodged against the idea of teaching to the test, as the prevailing practice today, would be, to some extent, met.

Index Terms—critical thinking, standardized test, English reading proficiency, critical reading, measurement-driven instruction

I. INTRODUCTION

To every complex question there is a simple answer and it is wrong... (H.L. Mencken)

Critical thinking can be defined as “the systematic evaluation or formulation of beliefs, or statements by rational standards” (Vaughn, 2008). Given the extortionate rate at which massive amounts of information, arguments and counter-arguments, beliefs and interpretations are put forth, the development and exploitation of such rational standards seems to be the only path to achieving a hard core around which to shape one's own thinking and reasoning. As such, critical thinking is an ability essential for successful performance in not only educational but also professional and social contexts. The common thread running through the related literature is that it is upon educators and educational systems to develop and hone critical thinking skills in students and prepare them to look upon the realities of the world through a critical lens. This entails helping students move away from knowledge absorption to judging and evaluating information, and arguing with cogent reasons. (Ku, 2009; Kuhn, 2005; Schafersman, 1991).

Assessment, as an indispensable part of education, in general and language assessment in particular, can be designed in such a way as to best represent what a critical thinking-oriented pedagogy is supposed to achieve. The need surfaces even more visibly when one considers the stakes involved in large-scale standardized language testing. Every year, an astronomical number of candidates enroll on preparatory courses for TOEFL, IELTS and other English language proficiency tests for vocational, academic and other high-stakes purposes. Therefore, in an attempt to uncover the extent to which the reading section of the Paper-Based TOEFL engages the critical thinking ability of test takers, the following question and null hypothesis were put forth:

Research question: Is there a significant relationship between test takers' critical thinking ability and their performance on the reading section of TOEFL?

Null hypothesis: There is no significant relationship between test takers' critical thinking ability and their performance on the reading section of TOEFL.

II. CRITICAL THINKING

A. Definition

With the surge of the Information Era, the concept of *critical thinking* has received ample attention from researchers in general, simple transmission and absorption of such constantly burgeoning information being no longer possible. According to Paul, critical thinking is “learning how to ask and answer questions of analysis, synthesis and evaluation” (1985, p.37). These processes are cognitively much more demanding than those that the majority of educational systems have unconsciously valued and held in high respect, namely memorization and uncritical knowledge absorption.

In the context of language teaching, Dubin and Olshtain (1986) present a scale for assessing the cognitive potential of language learning processes drawn upon in the classroom as follows, beginning with the most through to the least cognitively demanding; of course, these processes are not exclusive to language learning and can be applied to all kinds of learning:

1. Evaluation
2. Synthesis
3. Analysis
4. Application
5. Interpretation
6. Translation
7. Memory

What Paul deems as central to the concept of critical thinking are those that Dubin and Olshtain view as the most cognitively demanding. Accordingly, developing the ability to think critically is on a par with directly engaging one’s cognitive resources.

Brookfield (1987, p. 229) takes a similar path when he states that critical thinking involves two inextricably interrelated processes: “identifying and challenging assumptions, and imagining and exploring others.” This definition highlights the significance of original and creative thinking in an attempt to unearth hidden agendas and judge them on the basis of one’s own designated standards.

In like manner, Pithers and Soden (2000) believe underlying critical thinking are a number of abilities including:

- Uncovering assumptions underlying a problem;
- Focusing the problem;
- Inferencing;
- Inductive and deductive reasoning;
- Judging the validity and reliability of assumptions and sources of information;

Notwithstanding the cognitive aspect of critical thinking, Ku (2009) posits an additional dispositional aspect to it, and maintains that the ability to think critically will not ensue unless one has a strong intention and initiative to engage in the processes germane to it. Simply put, “besides the ability to engage in cognitive skills, a critical thinker must also have a strong intention to recognize the importance of good thinking and have the initiative to seek better judgment.” (p. 71). What Ku is advocating is that before trying to enhance critical thinking in learners, they must be made aware of its significance in order for the effort to yield the most satisfactory results.

B. Critical Thinking and L2

Following the recognition of the centrality of critical thinking in general education, foreign and second language learners, teachers, and researchers are now increasingly coming to grasp the concept and sketch its application in language learning and teaching. For one, Birjandi and Bagherkazemi (2010) found out a high positive correlation between Iranian EFL teachers’ critical thinking ability and their student-evaluated professional success. They state that the general trend toward communicative language teaching with its emphasis on the process rather than the product of learning well embodies a greater concern with critical thinking, and believe in order to develop in learners the ability to think critically teachers themselves must possess this dispositional and cognitive capacity.

But the question is: Is critical thinking teachable in an L2 classroom? Atkinson (1997) has his doubts, offering four reasons:

1. Critical thinking is a kind of social practice, with no easily definable pedagogical set of behaviors;
2. Critical thinking is exclusive and reductive in nature.
3. Critical thinking may not be valued by some non-native cultures.
4. Critical thinking skills are not transferrable beyond their context of instruction.

Davidson (1998) takes a critical stance against Atkinson, using Siegel’s (1989) terminology, “self-reflective justificatory strategy”, meaning that even to make a case against critical thinking, one has to presuppose its validity, i.e. to be a critical thinker. Insofar as the cultural bias of critical thinking is concerned, he maintains:

Part of the English teacher’s task is to prepare learners to interact with native speakers who value explicit comment, intelligent criticism, and intellectual assertion. Maybe even more than the L1 teacher, we as L2 teachers have good reason to introduce higher level students to aspects of critical thinking. If we do not, our students may well flounder when they are confronted with necessity of thinking critically, especially in an academic setting. (p.121)

There are some studies which confirm that critical thinking is teachable in a language learning environment. For one,

n a pilot study using a critical thinking essay test, a treatment group of Japanese college students receiving supplemental instruction in critical thinking skills significantly outperformed a control group receiving only content-based, intensive academic English instruction (Davidson & Dunham, 1997).

Birjandi and Bagherkazemi (2010, p. 138) warn us against the confusion of critical thinking in TESOL with a critical approach to TESOL; they quote Pennycook (1999) as saying the former is apolitical while the latter is political in nature.

Oster (1989) points out the significance of critical thinking in American and European universities and believes a language pedagogy should help learners develop this ability. What about widespread proficiency tests, such as TOEFL and IELTS, which function as gate keepers to such universities? Should they be such designed as to test, in addition to test takers' language proficiency, their ability to think critically? Would such an ability make up part of the construct-relevant or irrelevant variance? To the researchers' best knowledge, such questions have not been approached by L2 researchers yet. In an attempt to initiate research on such issues, the present study was undertaken to determine to what extent successful performance on the reading section of the paper-based TOEFL, PBT, is contingent upon test takers' critical thinking ability.

C. *Critical Thinking and Second Language Reading*

Reading is probably the most important skill for second language learners in academic contexts. Accordingly, there is no surprise that countless number of studies have addressed this skill both theory-wise and practice-wise. Toward the end of the twentieth century, ESL reading researchers came to appreciate the psycholinguistic processes underlying reading comprehension. Sheorey and Mokhtari (2001) assert "reading is not a linear process but one in which readers constantly form hypotheses, test predictions, and use their knowledge of the world and of the language to construct meaning" (p.432). This line of research along with burgeoning evidence as to the vitality of *strategic awareness* and *monitoring* as two of the vital aspects of skilled reading (ibid) allude to the significance of reading critically if one considers the attributes of a critical thinker. There are seven key aspects of critical reading (www.criticalthinking.com):

1. Identifying the line of reasoning, an angle or point of view, a position that is being defended or a case that is being made;
2. Critically evaluating the line of reasoning in terms of relevant and contributing propositions, logical progression, false premises and flawed reasoning;
3. Questioning surface appearances and checking for hidden assumptions or agendas;
4. Identifying evidence in the text;
5. Evaluating the evidence in terms of valid criteria;
6. Identifying the writer's conclusions;
7. Deciding whether the provided evidence supports the conclusions.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. *Participants*

To answer the research question, 83 female Advanced EFL learners, ranging in age from 24 to 39, from a variety of academic backgrounds, learning English at a private language institute in Iran took part in the study. They had all been placed into two consecutive advanced levels (Ad3, and Ad4) and homogenized on their reading comprehension proficiency by the researcher (see Procedure).

B. *Instruments*

For the purposes of the present study, three instruments were utilized:

1. Watson–Glaser Critical Thinking Appraisal-Form A (Watson & Glaser, 1980)

The Watson-Glaser critical Thinking Appraisal comprises five subsections which practically measure the five aspects of critical thinking as defined by Watson and Glaser (1980):

- Drawing inferences based on factual statements;
- Recognition of assumptions in a number of assertive statements;
- Making deductions: To determine if conclusions follow from information in given statements;
- Interpreting evidence to decide if conclusions are legitimate or not;
- Evaluating arguments as being strong or weak;

The appraisal consists of general scenarios along with 16 items for each aspect of the construct and is not subject-related (Watson & Glaser, 1980). It includes 80 items each followed by two to five alternatives, which can be completed in 60 minutes. In addition to the face, content, construct, and criterion validity of the appraisal, its test-retest reliability has been shown ($r=0.81$) by Watson and Glaser (1980). The researcher used the Farsi version of the appraisal, translated by Faravani (2006), of which the reported reliability is 85% (Cronbach's $\alpha=0.85$). Scoring is facilitated through the availability of an answer key, yielding a composite score for the five subsections of the appraisal from 0 to 80.

2. The Reading Section of general training IELTS

On this reading test, there are 40 questions for the candidates to be answered within 60 minutes, following 3 sections

of increasing difficulty containing texts taken from notices, advertisements, leaflets, newspapers, instruction manuals, books and magazines (www.IELTS.org).

Each item is worth one mark and scoring is facilitated through the availability of an answer key indicating alternative words/phrases within an individual answer (Cambridge IELTS 2, 2002). Scores on the Reading module in the present study were scaled on full and half band scores from 0 to 9.

3. The Reading Section of PBT (paper-based TOEFL)

The reading section of PBT makes up the third section of the test. It contains 50 multiple-choice questions with a completion time limit of 55 minutes. The version used in the present study comprised 5 passages each followed by 9 to 11 multiple-choice items. Generally, passages are written in a formal, academic style, typical of most college or university level texts and journals (www.TOEFL.org). The scoring was carried out by first calculating the number right scores and then converting them to scaled scores ranging from 31 to 67.

C. Procedure

To expedite the study, initially 117 female advanced EFL learners, placed through interviews or placement tests into two consecutive advanced levels (Ad3 and Ad4), in 8 classes altogether, were selected as the participants of the study. To homogenize them on their reading comprehension ability, the eight classroom teachers administered the reading section of a 2002 version of General Training IELTS during the regular class time. Subsequently, for the purposes of the present study, those who scored below or above one standard deviation from the mean were excluded from data analysis. Out of 117 test takers, 96 scored within one standard deviation from the mean.

Having gained a homogeneous sample in terms of English reading comprehension ability, the next step was to obtain the participants' scores on the reading section of PBT, and the Critical Thinking Appraisal. The reading section of a 2002 version of PBT was administered, within one week from the first testing session, by the same classroom teachers during the regular class time. Finally, due to time limitation, the participants were asked to complete the Farsi version of the Critical Thinking Appraisal, which has a time limit of 50 minutes, in their free time. On the whole, the number of participants for the final data analysis shrank to 83 due to either absence on the second testing session or failure to make time to complete the Critical Thinking Appraisal.

D. Data Analysis

To answer the research question, the 16th version of the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) was utilized. First, to ensure the homogeneity of the sample on English reading proficiency, after calculating the mean and standard deviation of the participants' scores on the reading subsection of the General Training IELTS, only those scores which fell within one standard deviation from the mean were included in further data analysis. Totally, 83 participants met the score requirement at this stage. Table 1 contains the descriptive statistics of the test takers' performance on the reading section of IELTS, and Figure 2 provides a visual representation of the distribution of these scores.

TABLE 1:
IELTS SCORES' DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
IELTS Scores	117	2.00	8.50	4.5470	1.39578
Valid N	117				

Having obtained the scores of 83 out of the 97-member homogenized sample on the reading section of PBT and the Critical Thinking Appraisal (see Table 2), the researchers set off on the task of testing the null hypothesis:

There is no significant relationship between test takers' critical thinking ability and their performance on the reading section of TOEFL.

Statistically speaking, the assumption behind the null hypothesis is that the correlation coefficient between the participants' scores on the reading section of PBT and the WGCTA has a value of zero ($r=0$). In order to test this claim, a Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was run. Table 3 presents the outcome of this analysis. As shown in the table, the correlation coefficient between the two variables at issue, namely performance on the reading section of paper-based TOEFL and the critical thinking ability of test takers has a value of 0.8 which is significant at 0.01 level ($r=0.8, P \leq 0.01$). This value by a wide margin exceeds zero. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected since the two variables are significantly positively correlated with each other. Figure 3 represents this correlation mapping PBT reading scores on WGCTA scores.

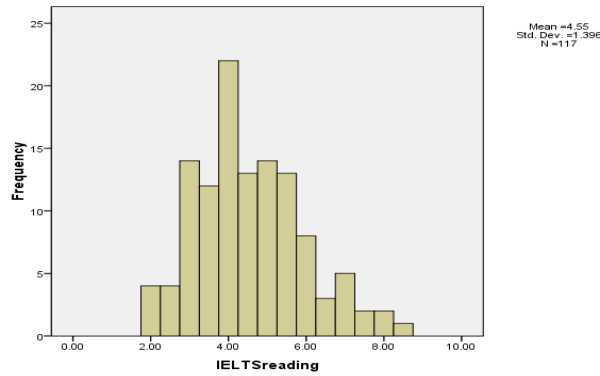


Figure 2 IELTS reading scores' distribution

TABLE2:
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

	Mean	Std. Deviation	Minimum	Maximum	N
PBT reading scores	51.4699	8.02790	40	65	83
WGCTA scores	40.3012	19.12203	8	71	83

TABLE 3:
PEARSON PRODUCT MOMENT CORRELATION COEFFICIENT

	PBT reading scores	WGCTA scores
PBT reading scores Pearson Correlation	1	.807**
Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
N	83	83
WGCTA scores Pearson Correlation	.807**	1
Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
N	83	83

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

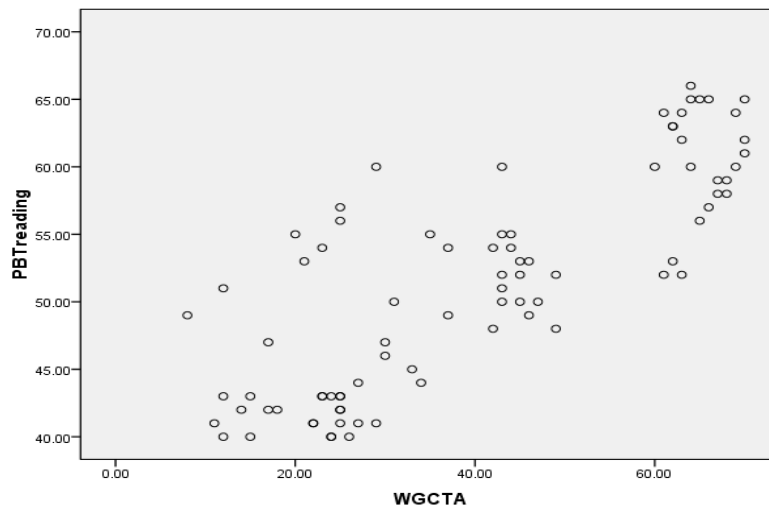


Figure 3: Scattergram of the correlation of PBT reading scores and WGCTA scores

IV. DISCUSSION

Paper-based TOEFL (PBT) and more recently Computer-based TOEFL (CBT) and Internet-based TOEFL (IBT) have always functioned as one of the most demanding gate keepers to a myriad of workplaces and academic institutions in the majority of English-speaking and even non-English speaking countries. Their growing significance calls for an investigation into the way such tests and their different sections are allied with cognitive notions of current interest in psychology and in language pedagogy. One such notion is the ability to think critically. The present study substantiated a significant positive correlation between performance on the reading section of PBT and the ability to think critically. With the five components of critical thinking as defined by Watson and Glaser (1980), the observed outcome of the

statistical analysis would have been expected.

Generally, there are three types of question in the reading section of PBT: vocabulary, cohesion, and reading comprehension items including factual questions and questions about the main idea of individual paragraphs and the whole passage (Matthiesen, 1999). The ability to answer all these three item types can be in some way linked to the ability to think critically. Meanings of the vocabulary items and cohesive links are heavily contingent upon the context in which they occur and working them out is a cognitively demanding task. Critical thinking seems to be even more significant for answering reading comprehension questions, especially those related to main ideas.

Having substantiated a close link between critical thinking and performance on the reading section of PBT does not, however, imply a cause-effect relationship between the two variables, and heed needs to be taken not to get trapped in the ever present threat to correlational studies, namely *post hoc fallacy*. For sure, performance on the subtest at issue is influenced by multitudinous other factors which have been investigated or are in need of investigation.

V. CONCLUSION

The present study was carried out to find out if there was a statistically significant correlation between the critical thinking ability of test takers and their performance on the reading section of PBT (paper-based TOEFL). The relatively high positive correlation observed between the two variables at issue has some important implications as far as English reading instruction is concerned. First and foremost, it invokes upon L2 reading instructors to try to develop in learners the ability to read critically if they are to enhance the efficiency of their courses. This can border on critical reading strategy training. There are a lot of critical reading strategies which are applicable to all kinds of reading. What follows is a sketch of some of these strategies (www.alamo.edu):

1. Annotating:
 - a. Underlining key words, phrases and sentences;
 - b. Writing comments or question in the margins;
 - c. Bracketing important sections of the text;
 - e. Constructing ideas with lines or arrows;
 - f. Numbering related points in sequence;
 - g. Making note of interesting, important or questionable points;
2. Previewing:
 - a. Going over head notes and other introductory material;
 - b. Skimming to get an overview of the content and its organization;
 - c. Identifying the rhetorical situation;
3. Contextualizing:
 - a. Placing a text in its historical, biographical and cultural context;
 - b. Recognizing differences between one's own values and attitudes and those represented in the text;
4. Questioning:
 - a. Asking questions about the content of the text;
 - b. Writing questions for different sections of a text in one's own words focusing on a main idea;
5. Reflecting on challenges to one's values and beliefs:
 - a. Marking challenging statements;
 - b. Making note of one's own feelings, attitudes and beliefs in relation to parts of a text;
6. Outlining main ideas;
7. Summarizing through creative synthesis;
8. Evaluating an argument in terms of its logic, credibility and emotional impact:
 - a. Recognizing every assertion as an argument to be evaluated;
 - b. Discriminating between claims and their supporting reasons and evidence;
9. Comparing and contrasting related readings

The list is by no means exhaustive. It is upon the teachers to base their use of these and other strategies which they deem as promising in enhancing their students' critical thinking ability on a an analysis of the idiosyncratic features of their teaching context.

The results of the present study also have some implications regarding MDI (Measurement-Driven Instruction) reading courses which are now widely exploited to provide learners with some handy strategies to boost their performance on high stakes language proficiency tests. Among such tests, TOEFL and IELTS stand out. The negative washback of such high stakes tests on the teaching and learning leading up to them is most evident in such strategy training. However, the results of this study can, to some extent, alleviate the situation since if teachers focus on critical reading strategies, the aim of MDI courses would be two-fold:

1. Preparing learners for the reading section of PBT;
2. Enhancing in learners the ability to think critically;

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Formative Assessment: Opportunities and Challenges

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Abstract—As a learning tool, formative assessment has attracted the attention of more and more researchers. Based on the writer's own innovation with the tool and relevant research, this paper first describes the use of formative assessment in college English classrooms in China, then provides recommendations and discusses future directions.

Index Terms—formative assessment (FA), college English classrooms, learner autonomy

Dissatisfaction with traditional assessment practices is widespread. Around the globe, educators are beginning to pay more attention to the assessments teachers use in classrooms on a daily basis as a powerful lever for raising student achievement. Many nations such as New Zealand, Scotland, England, and the United States have developed government-sponsored "Assessment for Learning" programs (Olson, 2005). In their search for alternative assessment practices, educators and practitioners have looked toward formative assessment (FA) as a foundation for improvement. Over the past two decades, a substantial body of research has been conducted to study FA globally (e.g., Gibbs & Simpson, 2004; Pausch & Popp, 1997; Black & William, 1998a/b; Ministry of Education, New Zealand, 1994; Guo & Yang, 2003; ARG, 1999; Xu, 2003; xue 2006; Zou & Cai, 2006). As an English teacher in a university in an underdeveloped Western area in China, in response to the College English teaching reform in China, I have also tried the implementation of FA in my classrooms. In this article, I will describe FA use in Chinese college English classrooms, provide recommendations and discuss future directions.

I. DEFINITION AND CHARACTERISTICS

FA, in its simplest form, is seen as formative and an assessment for learning. According to Ministry of Education, New Zealand (1994), in which assessment for learning has been an integral part of the national assessment strategy since 1999 (Olson, 2005), FA is defined as a range of formal and informal assessment procedures (for example, the monitoring of children's writing development, anecdotal records, and observations) undertaken by teachers in the classroom as an integral part of the normal teaching and learning process in order to modify and enhance learning and understanding. Cowie and Bell (1996) defined it as the process used by teachers and students to recognize and respond to student learning in order to enhance that learning, during the learning. In the extensive literature review *Inside the black box*, Black & William (1998b) put it as follows:

Assessment' refers to all those activities undertaken by teachers, and by the students in assessing themselves, which provide information to be used as feedback to modify the teaching and learning activities in which they are engaged. Such assessment becomes 'formative assessment' when the evidence is actually used to adapt the teaching to meet the needs. (p.2)

These definitions indicate that formative assessment encompasses teacher observation, classroom discussion, and analysis of student work, including homework and tests. Specifically, FA strategies and techniques can range from engineering more-effective classroom discussions and questions, to providing more-specific feedback on students' papers, to engaging students in critiquing their own learning and that of their peers. And all those definitions and strategies share two characteristics: their results are used primarily to shape and adjust what happens next in classrooms, rather than to provide a grade or mark; and they aim to encourage, not discourage, student effort (Olson, 2005).

Drawn from the above definitions, FA has the following characteristics:

Multi-assessors: Teacher assessment, peer assessment and self assessment are all involved in the process of learning.

Multi-assessing strategies and tools available: Testing and non-testing assessments, formal and informal procedures, numerous non-testing strategies, including classroom observations, portfolios, questionnaires, interviews, student conference and the like.

More comprehensive in assessed contents: It not only assesses cognitive process (mastery of knowledge), but is concerned about learner feelings, behaviours, interests and attitudes.

Developmental and personalized: FA is process-focused and for developmental purpose, not for comparison or selection. It pays more attention to the change in individual learners and respects learner differences and gives full play to learner potentials.

II. USE OF FA IN COLLEGE ENGLISH CLASSROOMS

Much research literature home and abroad has shown the positive impacts of formative assessment on student learning. For example, Black and William (1998a) conducted an extensive research review of 250 journal articles and book chapters winnowed from a much larger pool to determine whether FA raises academic standards in the classroom. Their findings show that efforts to strengthen FA produce significant learning gains as measured by comparing the average improvements in the test scores of the students involved in the innovation with the range of scores found for typical groups of students on the same tests. Effect sizes ranged between 0.4 and 0.7, with FA apparently helping low-achieving students, including students with learning disabilities, even more than it helped other students (Black & William, 1998b). Tan's (2004) empirical research has revealed that formative assessment is more effective than summative assessment to aid adult learners to master meta-cognitive strategies, strengthen students' motivation, form positive affect and improve students' performance in tests. These findings are assumed to be of great help for Chinese English learners because, of all the courses taken by college non-English majors, English can be said to be the course with the most low-achieving students, especially in colleges and universities in Western China: every year so many students enrolled in colleges with quite low English marks, so many students fail in the English final exams, so many students re-do CET-4 time and again. So if formative assessment can really raise student academic achievements, it is well worthwhile to be tried in the Chinese College English teaching context.

Motivated by the previous research home and abroad, in response to the requirements of the new round of College English teaching reform in China, I tried to implement FA into Chinese College English classrooms through action research to improve students learning process. In this innovation, I combined FA and summative assessment, making FA and summative assessment weigh half respectively in the final score portion of the English course. My so doing is just because formative assessment and summative assessment are interactive and they seldom stand alone in construction or effect (Gipps, McCallum & Hargreaves, 2000) and assessment requires attention to outcomes but also and equally to the experiences that lead to those outcomes (Pausch & Popp, 1997).

After 3 semesters' circular action research with altogether 227 students from 4 different majors, data collected from questionnaires, interviews, portfolio scripts, final reflection report scripts, and English final examinations have proved that the application of FA in College English classrooms does benefit students and it is really an assessment that strengthens students' intrinsic motivation. It is not only a tool for students to take responsibility for their own learning effectively, but a management tool for teachers to monitor students learning and make instructional adjustments, such as re-teaching, trying alternative instructional approaches, or offering more opportunities for practice (Black & William, 1998a).

Specifically, findings can be summed up as follows:

First, it helps learners better understand the importance and the role of self evaluation in their learning. Through self evaluation, they know better their weaknesses and strengths, the gap between their current situation and their desired goal, the success criteria and thus make them take action to close the gap.

Second, it is an effective means to strengthen and sustain students' motivation and effort and help build up low-achieving learners' self esteem. The variety of FA activities, either required or optional, provides a space and a platform for students to think and to perform creatively, to assert themselves fully. The multiple assessing agents provide them with opportunities of learning from others besides the teacher, opportunities of doing self reflection and evaluation and thus lead to self development. The combination of FA and summative assessment, and peer/self assessment results weighing in a certain portion in the final score can sustain learners' motivation, making them feel every effort is worth taking.

Third, it makes students' learning strategies change from singular to multiple. Other than memorizing CET-4 vocabulary list and doing CET4 practice tests, more cognitive and meta-cognitive strategies such as setting goals and plans, self reflection, cooperative learning, Internet chatting in English are effectively adopted.

Fourth, it fosters student independent learning. FA takes into account any effort and progress students make, which leads to their autonomous extracurricular English learning. The extracurricular English learning not only makes up for the insufficient classroom learning time but leads to the variety of their language input channels, the larger amount of language input, and wider range of knowledge. Furthermore, it makes students pay more attention to the learning process and the cultivation and development of their comprehensive practical skills.

Last, FA, if used appropriately and persistently, can raise student English achievements. This finding is more obvious with those classes taught by more experienced teachers.

Besides the major findings listed above, the study also produced some other findings. For example, most students like their own portfolios very much, and want to keep them by themselves because "the portfolios bring me a sense of achievement" (student interview). In terms of assessed tasks, students prefer more challenging and creative learning tasks such as oral presentation, movie response, mini-survey, group work and dislike mechanical learning items such as memorizing texts, copying words and phrases from the course books. Collaborative learning tasks enhance team work spirit and improve the relationship among students. Competition awareness between groups begins to form. Group members collaborate and coordinate for successful performance in class. Oral presentation, paired-dictation and paired-interview encourage more and more students to improve their pronunciation and intonation which tends to be neglected by non-English-majors.

III. RECOMMENDATIONS AND PROSPECTS

Current literature and practitioner reports cited throughout this article and my innovation indicate that educators and frontline teachers will continue to explore and develop formative assessment and the prospects for its use are promising. However, considering its acknowledged limitations characterized by time-consuming, labor extensive, low reliability (Xu, 2003; Zou & Cai, 2006; xue 2006), technical and professional (Xu, 2003), medium-long-term effect, those potential advantages and empowering impacts on students' learning will not occur on their own. Thus, recommended practices or initiatives to advance the use of FA are presented here.

1. *Joint efforts and collaborative work and effective use of self and peer evaluation should be available throughout the learning process.* As mentioned above, one acknowledged limitation of FA is time consuming and labor intensive. Therefore, a lot of time and energy are required of teachers for the formulating of the assessment plan, the designing of learning tasks, the monitoring of the process and giving feedback. It is especially the case at the beginning of the innovation which involves student needs assessment and goal setting and success criteria making. Joint efforts of a group of teachers can solve the problem. Besides, effective use of self and peer evaluation are especially called for in the Chinese College English classrooms because of its large class sizes. On the one hand, the ability to self-assess is not only a core educational skill which is necessary for lifelong learning and which it is desirable to develop as part of higher education, but can also provide the opportunity to reduce staff workload (Boud, 1994); on the other hand, it is a means to reduce teacher's workload.

2. *FA strategy training for teachers is necessary because FA is professional.* As a new educational assessment trend in China, FA requires the intervention of expertise and professionals so as to make it effective. Some data from this study shows the effects of FA are not so obvious with less experienced teachers' class. So without the guidance of systematically-developed cognitive theories, the design of teaching, learning and assessing activities is likely to ad hoc, unsystematic and ineffective in improving achievements for many students (Niemi, 1997). In other words, both theories and domains of knowledge and practice in which they are to be employed must be deeply understood. So it is essential that both in-service teachers and pre-service teachers have evidence-based education or training of FA.

3. *Involving students in making success criteria for learning tasks as well as sharing with them the learning outcomes are the crucial step.* So doing can help them understand and achieve their goal better and make effective decisions to close the gap between their learning situation and the goal.

4. *All assessed tasks or activities should account for one proportion in the FA.* Doing so may make students believe every effort they put in the activity is rewarding while making decisions. But it has to be cautioned that being rough is preferable over being specific and letter grade is better than scoring, because marks or grades alone produce no learning gains and students gain the most learning value from assessment when feedback is provided without marks or grades (Crooks, 2001).

5. *Quality feedback and self-assessment are always the key concepts and factors of FA.* Feedback should be given regularly, timely and it should be specific and encouraging because feedback given as part of FA helps learners become aware of any gaps that exist between their desired goal and their current knowledge, understanding, or skill and guides them through actions necessary to obtain the goal (Ramaprasad, 1983; Saldler, 1989). And specific and encouraging feedback is the most helpful type of feedback to students because the specific comments about errors and specific suggestions for improvement encourages students to focus their attention thoughtfully on the task rather on simply getting the right answer (Bangert-Drowns, Kulick, & Morgan, 1991; Elawar & Corno, 1985). This type of feedback may be particularly helpful to lower achieving students because it emphasizes that students can improve as a result of effort rather than be doomed to low achievement due to some presumed lack of innate ability because FA helps support the expectation that all children can learn to high levels and counteracts the cycle in which students attribute poor performance to lack of ability and therefore become discouraged and unwilling to invest in further learning (Ames, 1992; Vispoel & Austin, 1995).

As for self-assessment, it is recognized as a formative process leading to self-development (Klenowski, 1996). According to Entwistle (1993), when students are engaged in evaluating their own work, they are thinking about what they have learned and how they learn. They are consequently more aware of their thinking and learning processes which encourages a deep, as opposed to a surface, approach to learning. These are processes which need to be fostered if we wish students to succeed (National Commission On Education, 1993).

To conclude, with so many potential advantages and benefits empirically and theoretically and recognized as assessment for learning instead of assessment of learning by so many researchers, FA is strongly recommended to be integrated into College English classrooms in China as a necessary supplement to summative assessment. Its appropriate use will produce substantial and empowering impact on student learning.

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Nietzsche, Deleuze, and Nāgārjuna: Mapping the Dialectics of Will/Desire

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Abstract—This paper aims to explore the correspondences between the *dialectical* analysis (the unique way of logical argumentation) of Nietzsche's will and that of Deleuze's desire—the discursive axis of two influential thinkers whose critiques of representation dominate the formation of postmodern theory and beyond. In addition, I make a comparative study of their dialectics and that of Nāgārjuna. The major Nietzschean/Deleuzian texts explored in this paper are some of those which foreground the everlasting *detrterritorialized movement of will* (and its related themes—Overman and Eternal Recurrence) and *desire*: Nietzsche's *Thus Spoke Zarathustra* and *The Will to Power*; and Deleuze's *Difference and Repetition*, *Nietzsche and Philosophy*, *Anti-Oedipus* and *A Thousand Plateaus*. As for Nāgārjuna's work, I choose to focus on his masterpiece and mostly valued one—*Mūlamadhyamakakārikās* (中論). The focus of this study is to attempt a *mapping* (characteristic of rhizomatics) of how their special dialectics of will/desire (Nihilism), without ever attempting to create another Absolute Truth, sets forth the non-totalizable multiplicities that characterizes the world of becoming

Index Terms—Nietzsche, Deleuze, Nāgārjuna, dialectics, will / desire

A book has neither object nor subject; it is made of variously formed matters, and very different dates and speeds... In a book, as in all things, there are lines of articulation or segmentarity, strata and territories; but also lines of flight, movements of deterritorialization and destratification... All this, lines and measurable speeds, constitutes an *assemblage*. A book is an assemblage of this kind, and as such is unattributable. It is a multiplicity... (*A Thousand Plateaus* 3-4)

All things in the world are devoid of an intrinsic nature, i.e. the things in the world are not as they appear to us.¹

I. INTRODUCTION

Following Nietzsche's politics of will, in their collaborative works *Anti-Oedipus* and *A Thousand Plateaus*, Deleuze and Guattari, with their (micro)politics of desire, attempt to problematize and subvert Western metaphysical tradition that is marked by an obsessive *desire* for a Supreme Being/Truth (the arborescent model of thought that has been haunting the Western psyche since Plato). In other words, Deleuze and Guattari, in their politics of desire/difference (rhizomatics), hold a radical skepticism about the concept of the transcendental ego and certainties inherent in Western philosophical tradition, for they argue that *the subject is missing in desire*. Above all, in the second volume of their collaboration—*A Thousand Plateaus*, which is written in a more “schizo/rhizomatic” and self-reflexive text, Deleuze and Guattari endeavor to advocate a more thoroughly deconstructive analysis of the politics of desire. Consequently, challenging the concept of a unified subject and endeavoring to uproot philosophical trees, *A Thousand Plateaus* sets forth “a postmodern theory of non-totalizable multiplicity based on the concept of the ‘rhizome,’ their new term for deterritorialized movement” (Best & Kellner, 1991, p.97).

Besides furthering the politics of difference and desire of *Anti-Oedipus*, Deleuze and Guattari also make some key changes in *A Thousand Plateaus*, especially they take pains to extend their application of theories of rhizomes to varied disciplines, ranging from linguistics, semiotics, to many other subjects such as noology and political economy. Moreover, its writing style is highly metafictional/self-reflexive (referential), for the authors argue that the book “imitates the world, as art imitates nature” (Deleuze and Guattari, 1992, p.5) and thus is itself a rhizome. As Best and Kellner rightly put it, *A Thousand Plateaus* “employs avant-garde writing techniques such that the ‘form’ of the book becomes part of its ‘content’ or rather, these distinctions break down” (Best & Kellner, 1991, p.98). Likewise, in *A Thousand Plateaus* (as the first epigraph of this paper reveals) the distinction between the subject and the object also breaks down in their philosophy of becoming/difference (Deleuze and Guattari, 1992, p.3). This writing strategy is characteristic of the postmodern—implosion, namely the collapse of boundaries—as Baudrillard defines it (the whole world in a broader sense is implosive).

However, most of the existent scholarship on *Anti-Oedipus* or *A Thousand Plateaus* (the research on it is comparatively insufficient when compared to that on *Anti-Oedipus*) just focuses on the study of their politics of desire/difference, without further exploring their dialectics (unique logical argumentations) in negating the partial view of reality inherent in traditional metaphysics. Viewed dialectically, Deleuze and Guattari's argumentation in the two

¹See Introduction, Bhattacharya, trans., *The Dialectical Method of Nāgārjuna: Vīgrahavyāvartanī*, eth ed. (Delhi: Motilal Banarsidass, 1998).

volumes is presented through constant negating and deconstructing the arborescent discourses so as to foreground the invalidity/impossibility of discovering an ultimate truth. In other words, many scholars fail to examine Deleuze and Guattari's special dialectical argumentation that is aimed at negating all reductive "philosophical trees," a dialectical strategy to uncover the invalidity of all reductive thought by challenging it with some other ambiguous discourses that have multiple/contingent meanings, for reality is always becoming and multiple. Most importantly, Deleuze and Guattari do not in their dialectics create another Universal Absolute to replace the arborescent thought. To be more specific, though recognizing both everyday existence and the categories by which humans comprehend it are self-contradictory and incoherent, paradoxically, Deleuze and Guattari adopt a *dialectical* analysis to challenge and highlight the absurdities of metaphysics and morality and all other Western modes of thinking.

Likewise, though Nāgārjuna (龍樹菩薩, an Indian philosopher and saint who founded the Buddhist school Mādhyamika 中道, which holds a middle view of existence as voidness—no such thing as an intrinsic nature of all things) often refutes the validity of logic, most Buddhist scholars still consider his theoretical analysis as "dialectical" in a sense of "unique logical argumentation," for it constantly negates the use of logic in order to make plausible claim to improve on all previous metaphysical systems that it aims to refute.

Based on the Mādhyamika (中道) philosophy of emptiness/voidness (an empty logic), this paper intends to explore how *A Thousand Plateaus* sets forth a postmodern theory of non-totalizable multiplicity by furthering Nietzschean philosophy of becoming. In so doing, *A Thousand Plateaus* problematizes (representational) realities, deconstructs the transcendent subject/ego, and advocates a middle view of reality, physical or psychical, as voidness (the contingency and multiplicity of reality). In addition, this paper aims to examine the dialectics/middle view inherent in Deleuze and Guattari's rhizomatics—the unique way of logical argumentation through juxtaposing opposed/opposing terms or propositions and finally refuting both of them, without resorting to the Hegelian dialectics that is aimed at locating an ultimate Truth. Meanwhile, the correspondences between Nāgārjuna's dialectical method and that of Nietzsche/Deleuze (and Guattari) will be explored.

II. VOIDNESS/IMPERMANENCE IN THE POSTMODERN IMPULSE OF RHIZOMATICS—THE PROBLEMS OF (REPRESENTATIONAL) REALITY

In *A Thousand Plateaus*, Deleuze and Guattari seem to be intentionally parodying the modernist obsessive and ongoing pursuit for "autonomy and purity or for timeless, representational truth" (Bertens, 2002, p.5) in earthly multiplicities, for they claim that Nature is itself a rhizome, where "roots are taproots with a more multiple, lateral, and circular system of ramification, rather than a dichotomous one. Thought lags behind nature" (Deleuze and Guattari, 1992, p.5). Detecting this postmodern impulse in rhizomatics, Best and Kellner reveal that *A Thousand Plateaus* is "mainly concerned with a positive application of postmodern thinking that analyzes the rhizomatic nature of natural, social, and personal reality" (Best & Kellner, 1991, p.98). Above all, Deleuze and Guattari set out to *deconstruct* in their second volume of collaboration "any binary oppositions left standing at the end of the first," namely, their "schizoanalytic 'deconstruction' (if it can be called that) derives from the unconscious logic of non-global connection and inclusive disjunction, as specified in the *Anti-Oedipus*." (Holland 1). Their logic, as Deleuze and Guattari declare, is a logic of an open-ended series "the AND"—"and... and ... and"—whose conjunction "carries enough force to shake and uproot the verb 'to be'" (Deleuze and Guattari, 1992, p.25).

On the other hand, according to Nāgārjuna, a momentary entity or impermanent *dharma* (way or reality) is a contradictory concept. He points out that "what is impermanent and momentary can be divided into non-enduring or non-abiding moments and has, analytically, no duration whatever,"² for it disappears as soon as it appears. Hence, we cannot say it has "true existence" (Cheng, 1991, p.77).

Consequently, attacking traditional ontology, Deleuze and Guattari not only echo this Buddhist view of voidness but also highlight the contingency and multiplicity of things in opposition to the metaphysical view of the existence of a permanent Ideal world beyond the transient and contingent everyday realities. That is, the central tenet of the Buddhist view of voidness corresponds to Deleuze and Guattari's empty logic—all things in the world, physical or psychical, are subject to change, or to put it more specifically, there is no intrinsic nature in them.

In addition, Deleuze and Guattari also point out the uncertainty of realities by coining the concept of *assemblage*—"a multiplicity" (Deleuze and Guattari, 1992, p.4), by which they mean that all things in the world consist of lines and measurable speeds, but they also contain lines of flight/escape—"movements of deterritorialization and destratification"; the assembling and dissolution are subject to conditions or the law of relativity: "How could movements of deterritorialization and processes of reterritorialization not be *relative* (italics added), always connected, caught up in one another?" (Deleuze and Guattari, 1992, p.10). Moreover, they could connect or disconnect at any point with any lines (rhizomatic), as Deleuze and Guattari claim, the rhizome differs from a structure, because...the rhizome is made only of lines: lines of segmentarity and stratification as its dimensions, and the line of flight or deterritorialization as the maximum dimension after which the multiplicity undergoes metamorphosis changes in *nature* [italics added]. (Deleuze and Guattari, 1992, p.21)

² *The Middle Treatise (Mūlamadhyamakārikās 中論)*, XV: 1-2.

The above-mentioned view of reality as impermanent actually not only echoes the Buddhist view of causality but also continues Nietzsche's politics of will (to power), for all of them are based on the theory of relativity. In Buddhist terminology, it is called "Dependent Origination" (十二因緣法)—all things, inanimate or sentient, are interdependent/relativistic or conditioned, impermanent, and always in a flux of change. To be more specific, the law of causality is functioning according to our volitional activities/willing (ignorance).

On the other hand, this conception is also echoed in Deleuze's analysis of Nietzsche's ethics/ontology of power (will to power) as "a force which is related to another force: in this form force is called will. The will (will to power) is the differential element of force" (Deleuze, 1983, p.7). In terms of Deleuzian philosophy of desire/difference, the functioning of multiplicities is no more than a "network of plateaus" that are intersecting with one another and keep "deconstructing/multiplying a given set of terms until a point is reached at which they intersect with terms coming from deconstructions on other plateaus, **without** ever collapsing into or becoming identical with them. Such intersections will form a *rhizome* [emphasis added], something that develops 'au milieu': in the middle, in between" (Holland, 1999, p.2).

Viewed from the Buddhist perspective of the formation of things, material or mental, the rhizomatic conception assemblage is very similar to the Buddha's assertion that all things are comprised by the Five Aggregates (五蘊). Further, this Buddhist cosmological law also refers to the impermanency of all worldly things. Since all worldly things are impermanent, subject to change; impermanence, declares the Buddha, is dukkha (苦). It is generally admitted that the term dukkha in the First Noble Truth, the first principle of the Four Noble Truths (四聖諦)—one of the central tenets of Buddhism that is also expounded by Nāgārjuna—bears an apparent meaning of ordinary suffering. But in addition, it also includes "imperfection," "impermanence," "emptiness," or "insubstantiality" (Rahula, 1959, p.17). The Buddha argues in the First Noble Truth (Dukka-ariyasacca) that in our world, all physical and spiritual phenomena are no more than the conditioned "combination of ever-changing physical and mental forces or energies, which may be divided into five groups or aggregates"—the Five Aggregates—Aggregates of Matter (色蘊), Sensation (受蘊), Perceptions (想蘊), Mental Formations (行蘊), and Consciousness (識蘊). The Buddha insists that any being or an individual or "I" is only a "convenient name or a label given to the combination of these five groups" (Samyutta-nikaya 421). The five aggregates are impermanent. The Buddha thus claims, in his very first sermon, that "Whatever is impermanent is dukkha... In brief the five Aggregates of Attachment are dukkha... They are in a flux of momentary arising and disappearing" (Dhammacakkappavattana-sutta, 1922, p. 9).

Moreover, in *A Thousand Plateaus* Deleuze and Guattari emphasize the collapse of the boundaries between the subject and the object, and that of beginning and end of any movement/action in nature. Nature is a rhizome full of contingent multiplicities that are not the *representational* copies of the immobile, unitary Platonic *Ideal*: It is not a multiplicity derived from the One, or to which One is added (n+1)... It has neither beginning nor end, but always a middle (*milieu*) from which it grows and which it overflows. It constitutes linear multiplicities with *n* dimensions having neither subject nor object... When a multiplicity of this kind changes dimensions, it necessarily changes in nature as well, undergoes a metamorphosis. (Deleuze and Guattari, 1992, p.12)

This kind of deconstructive view of existence/reality happens to correspond to the Mādhyamika Middle View of reality—neither affirms nor denies the world, for "all things in the world are not as they appear to us," as the epigraph of this paper reveals.

III. THE MIDDLE VIEW IN DELEUZE AND GUATTARI'S DIALECTICS

In *Nietzsche and Philosophy* (1962), one of Deleuze's masterpieces which highlights that the reading of Nietzsche is central to his own philosophical project, Deleuze echoes and highly values Nietzsche's philosophy of becoming whose salient features are "flux, movement and creation" (Marks, 1998, p.25). Following Nietzsche's revolutionary and experimental *nomadic/rhizomatic genealogy* of Western reality and all Western thought, Deleuze furthers Nietzsche's philosophy of becoming/difference by coining many metaphors in *A Thousand Plateaus* (e.g. rhizome) to re-examine varied human disciplines. Deleuze's indebtedness to Nietzsche's *nihilistic* view of existence is also highlighted in *A Thousand Plateaus*:

Nietzsche's aphorisms shatter the linear unity of knowledge, only to invoke the cyclic unity of the eternal return, present as the unknown in thought... unity is consistently thwarted and obstructed in the object, while a new type of unity triumphs in the subject. The world has lost its pivot; the subject can no longer even dichotomize, but accedes to a higher unity, of ambivalence or overdetermination, in an always supplementary dimension to that of its object. The world has become chaos ... (Deleuze and Guattari, 1992, p.6)

Underlying the theories of becoming of Nietzsche and Deleuze is a *deconstructive* and *dialectical* impulse that is intended to uproot/negate philosophical trees whose partial views conceal the dynamic nature of reality—the micropolitics of will/desire.

What is worth our attention is that, though both Nietzsche and Deleuze vehemently attack the partial view of reality inherent in dialectics, paradoxically they also create a dialectics in refuting it. This is very characteristic of the postmodern parodic theorization. Furthermore, as Richardson indicates, Nietzsche's metaphysics is in many respects "a novel and sophisticated one that can make plausible claim to improve on all previous such systems" (Richardson, 1996). Following Nietzsche's metaphysics of becoming, Deleuze extends it to varied disciplines and thus creates a

neo-Nietzschean dialectics that tries to deny the arborescent modes of thinking in every discipline. To achieve his goal, he devises the politics of desire that is actually a re-reading of Nietzsche's will. That kind of strategy is most manifest in *A Thousand Plateaus*.

To be more specific, like Nietzsche, Deleuze creates his own *dialectics*—a philosophy of contradictions in which “opposing ideas are presented in agonistic competition with one another” (Martin, 1991, p.24). Their dialectics happens to create a dynamic form of philosophizing that serves to deconstruct both sides of every equation and to illuminate the arbitrary and mutable character of the concepts themselves. Therefore, any extreme in a discourse in *A Thousand Plateaus* is always presented as contingent and *au milieu* (in the middle); the only unity or truth we can discover in any kind of sentence, text, or knowledge is no more than a “cyclic unity” that is also a multiplicity, for it “has neither subject nor object, only determinations, magnitudes, and dimensions that cannot increase in number without the multiplicity changing in nature” (Deleuze and Guattari, 1992, p.6-8).

For instance, Deleuze and Guattari keep stressing that they are not presenting *opposed* conceptions or realities even when they are elaborating on one pair of the most distinctively juxtaposed concepts in the book—root-tree/canal-rhizome, because this kind of discourse would finally lead to an ontological dualism:

The important point is that the root-tree and canal-rhizome are not two opposed models: the first operates as a transcendent model and tracing, even if it engenders its own escapes; the second operates as an immanent process that overturns the model and outlines a map... It is not a question of this or that place on earth, or of a given moment in history, still less of this or that category of thought. It is a question of a model that is perpetually in construction or collapsing, and a process that is perpetually prolonging itself, breaking off and starting up again. No, this is not a new or different dualism. (Deleuze and Guattari, 1992, p.20)

In other words, their dialectical method is no more than using a “convenient name or label” (according to the Buddhist conception of impermanence) to juxtapose some conflicting ideas and render them “agonistic” in the hope of proving that any extreme or fixed perspective we adhere to would ultimately fall into an ontological dualism, whenever we have to use some language to illuminate some idea, because that concept is always *absent* in the very language (and any other language as well) that we employ:

The problem of writing: in order to designate something exactly, *anexact expressions* (emphasis added) are utterly unavoidable. Not at all because it is a necessary step, or because one can only advance by approximations: *anexactitude* [italics added] is in no way an approximation; on the contrary, it is the exact passage of that which is under way. *We invoke one dualism only in order to challenge another* (emphasis added). (Deleuze and Guattari, 1992, p.20)

In fact, this is a philosophy of “contradictions” that Nāgārjuna also employs. Nāgārjuna's method of dialectics is called *prasangāpādana*, by which he refutes some concepts, categories, entities and characters, some principles and postulates of knowledge through showing the inner contradictions of his opponent's thought and furthermore, endeavoring “to use against him his own logic” (Bhattacharya, 1982, p. 89).

Above all, Nāgārjuna does not create or canonize another new idea as the rightful one. His methodology is to show the voidness in all worldly things, for they are devoid of an intrinsic nature (無自性故曰空). Hence, both Nāgārjuna's dialectical method and that of *A Thousand Plateaus* share many affinities, especially in their foregrounding the absence of validity/intrinsic nature in the “agonistically competing” ideas they juxtapose, although the more *legitimate* one in the opposed models is only an *approximation*.

In addition, Nāgārjuna concentrates his dialectics on the universals and postulates of the classical Nyāya System (an ancient Indian philosophical school) and on the elements, cluster of elements, pluralistic doctrines and dogmas of the Hinayana Buddhism. But some logicians challenge the Buddhist view of voidness on its logical argumentation as a double negation (i.e. the negation of a non-existent being—an intrinsic nature of all things) that happens to just affirm the thing that it tries to deny (A is not non-A). To render the logic of those logicians contradictory, *Nāgārjuna uses against them their own logic* by replying that this is a common misunderstanding of the meaning of voidness. The negation of the intrinsic nature, he argues, is not a denial of a real thing. Rather, it is a negation of a *non-existent* thing—the intrinsic nature of all things. That is, Nāgārjuna does not negate anything, for there is nothing to be negated—how can you negate something (the intrinsic nature of things) that never exists? Therefore, the function of the statement “All things are devoid of an intrinsic nature,” says he, is to “make known the *absence* [my italics] of an intrinsic nature in things” (*Kārikā* and *vṛtti* LXIV). Consequently, as the Deleuzian nihilism is ambiguous and it echoes the Buddhist “Middle Path” (neither denies nor affirms the world), Deleuze's nihilism happens to coincide with Buddhist view of existence as voidness/impermanence.

More importantly, in the dialectics of Nāgārjuna and that of Deleuze and Guattari, we can detect the paradoxical nature of the (post)-postmodern vision of realities as foregrounded irresolvable contradictions (Hutcheon, 1988, p.47)³ and pluralities (multiplicities) eternally conflicting or assembling with each other on the plane of consistency. In other words, like Nietzsche, Deleuze and Guattari, though violently attacking the dialectical logic of locating an immobile Truth that transcends phenomenal contingencies, create a non-totalizing dialectics to deconstruct the arborescent/hierarchical organisms that stratify and subjectify flows/plateaus of desire.

³ Linda Hutcheon (1988) in *A Poetics of Postmodernism* argues that “these contradictions of postmodernism are not really meant to be resolved, but rather are to be held in an ironic tension” (47).

In addition, in their dialectical manner of analyzing the nature of existence in *A Thousand Plateaus*, Deleuze and Guattari create a *metaphysics* (theories of nihilism) that is aimed at “creating a movement which mirrors the very texture of existence: perpetual becoming, without metaphysical essence; a becoming [...] eternally without aim, meaning, or goal” (Martin, 1991, p.). Their metaphysical view of reality also argues the null positions in both epistemology (skepticism: no truth) and ontology (nihilism: no being).

Above all, both Deleuze/Nietzsche and Buddhism emphasize “the centrality of humans in a godless cosmos and neither looks to any external being or power for their respective solutions to the problems of existence” (Loy, 1998, p.129).⁴ In fact, their conceptions of “universal law,” if any, are very similar, for all the three thinkers stress man’s redemption from nihilism through his willing in the world of becoming. Nevertheless, Nāgārjuna argues from the Buddhist point of view that man should ultimately cease willing in order to consummate nirvana (涅槃), the state of non-self or the cease of willing/desiring (volitional activities), because desiring/willing is the cause/origin of either good or bad karma that generates the endless wheel of reincarnation. Besides, the discrepancy in their views regarding man’s redemption from the impermanent world is too big a topic for me to explore in this short paper. What is most significant about their affinities in their philosophy of becoming is the middle view of reality that is focused on exposing the impermanency and multiplicity of all worldly knowledge and realities.

IV. CONCLUSION

Despite some details of differences in their views of man’s “ultimate” salvation, Deleuze (and Guattari) and Nāgārjuna share many affinities in their dialectical methods of refuting the absurdity of people’s obsessive pursuit for an ultimate/immobile Truth. To sum up, the dominant theme of *A Thousand Plateaus* is an attempt to undermine the principle of unitary identity, for it expounds the Nietzschean philosophy of *affirmative becoming*, which differs from the passive nihilism that lies in the heart of traditional *metaphysics of subjectivity*. The focus of this paper is only an attempt at *mapping* (characteristic of rhizomatics) how Deleuze and Guattari’s special dialectics of desire (Nihilism), without ever attempting to create another Universal Absolute, sets forth the non-totalizable multiplicities that characterize the world of becoming. Their philosophy of becoming (rhizomatics) happens to echo the Mādhyamika (中道) philosophy of emptiness/voidness—an empty logic, founded by Nāgārjuna by illuminating the fundamental teaching of the Buddha on a middle view of existence/reality that can prevent us from being deluded by the appearances of worldly things.

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⁴ See David R. Loy’s review on Morrison’s *Nietzsche and Buddhism: A Study in Nihilism and Ironic Affinities*, *Asian Philosophy* Vol. 8.2 (July 1998): 129-31. In my opinion, following Nietzsche’s philosophy of becoming (nihilism) that denies the omnipotence of God, Deleuze’s politics of desire also shares this affinity with Buddhism that stresses man’s desiring constitutes his contingent being.

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The Pragmatic Comparison of Chinese and Western “Politeness” in Cross-cultural Communication

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Abstract—Theoretical research on “politeness” of China and western countries has explained the concept of “politeness” in Chinese and western cultures. This paper analyzes the similarities and differences of Chinese and western cultures from the aspects of connotation of “politeness”, its choice preference and the way of expression and clarifies that only by correct use of politeness principles can people get the best effect of communication.

Index Terms—pragmatic comparison, politeness, cross-cultural communication

I. INTRODUCTION

With the rapid development of globalization, cross-cultural communication has been a more and more important part in people’s ordinary life. It becomes rather important about how to communicate properly and politely with people in different cultural backgrounds. The paper tries to probe into Leech’s “politeness principle” (Leech, 1983, p.135), aiming firstly to form a scientific and correct cognition of “politeness principle” through analyzing the concrete manifestation of politeness principle in cross-cultural communication between China and western countries; secondly, to help communicators avoid unnecessary pragmatic failure of politeness and to make the realization of cross-cultural communication successfully.

As a scientific knowledge which aims to study how the language users use and comprehend language in a certain context, pragmatics is closely related to cross-cultural communication. Leech’s politeness principle is put forward on the basis of the summarization of some verbal communication disciplines and many experts consider it as universal (Leech, 1983). However, like other theories, it is based on western culture and regards westerners’ way of utterance as the universal way of utterance of people. But this point makes it always be questioned in the linguistic field. It is both the dominating research topic of cross-cultural pragmatics and the topic which will be investigated—about the extent to which the politeness principle is universal and to what extent it reflects the individuality restricted by different cultures under the situation of cross-cultural communication.

Cross-cultural communication usually refers to the communication between any two people under different cultural background. It includes not only the international cultural communication, but also communication across different races or ethnic groups in the same country, and communication between different groups under the same culture. Here we mainly talk about verbal communication between different ethnic groups. In cross-cultural communication, cultural differences play an important role in speech act and in the disciplines in use of speech. Moreover, people tend to use the principles of their own culture as the standard to explain and evaluate other people’s behavior. This is what is called “pragmatic transfer” (He, 2000, p.98). Due to this, pragmatic failure occurs easily and the cross-cultural communication is blocked.

II. THE THEORETICAL RESEARCH ON “POLITENESS” IN CHINA AND WESTERN COUNTRIES

Politeness is a kind of social phenomenon, an approach used in order to maintain the harmonious interpersonal relationship, and a kind of conventional behavioral norms. It is a standard of behavior that everyone must follow no matter what his culture is. There are different standards of politeness in different cultural backgrounds of society. The diversities are reflected mainly through the definitions of politeness, the strategy of realization of politeness, etc. (Gu, 1992). So politeness is specific under different cultural backgrounds. This specificity is closely related to cultural values which are influenced by social, historical, geographical and other elements. The subject of politeness is one important aspect in both Chinese and western pragmatics and the research on it had a long history.

A. *The Concept of “Politeness” in Western Culture*

As for theory frame, the face theory of Brown and Levinson and the politeness principle of Leech are relatively influential among them. These two theories make a systematic and profound research on the connotation and denotation of politeness, which influences a lot on researches of politeness of different cultures. Brown and Levinson's concept of face is based on the definition given by Goffman. According to Goffman's theory, face is sacred and inviolable to every single person and it is the most basic and can not be neglected to every communicator (Gao, 1997). The concept proposed by Brown and Levinson is more concrete. They believe that each rational member of society has his own face and they divide face into two groups according to individual need: negative face and positive face. The former means that people have the freedom of action without interference while the latter means that the desire to be approved or the positive individual image to be praised. Face has duality and the dual aspects constituting face is contradictory. In communication, on one hand, we need to interact with the other person involved or pay close attention to him. At the same time, we need to show our attention. The interaction aspect is positive face and Levinson distinguish it as positive politeness. The discourse strategy which "positive face" usually makes use of is: to listen to the other's speech with respect and show an interest in it; to make it clear that the two communicators have something in common, etc. For example, "I agree. I have always believed that, too." On the other hand, we should protect certain independence and express that we respect their independent demand to the other side. The independent aspect of politeness is acknowledged as negative face, which is distinguished as "negative politeness" by Levinson. The main strategies to implement negative face are: to speculate the others' need and interest to the minimum degree; not to impose one's own opinion to the others; to give the others the right to make his own choice. For example, if you intend to give suggestion to others, you might say, "I'd enjoy going out for coffee, but I imagine you are very busy." (Gao, 1997, p.25) The key in the negative face implementation is not to impose a certain idea to others, in order to make the counterparts enjoy enough freedom and independence. In real life, the most communicative acts are face-threatening acts. Sometimes you express your disagreement to others, complain or blame on others' work; sometimes you utter some impolite words or taboos. These all belong to face-threatening acts. This is because the speaker does not consider other communicators' social value. The acts like command or request will threat negative face. If the other side of a conversation acts follows the speaker's command of request, the hearer's freedom of action is interrupted under the speaker's imposition. In order to avoid or lessen the threat degree to faces and maintain the communication going on favorably, the speaker must do certain efforts for protecting both his and the hearer's faces. It is distinguished as politeness. The British linguist Leech had listed six politeness principles according to the English culture (Leech, 1983):

Tact Maxim: try to minimize cost to other or maximize benefit to other;

Generosity Maxim: try to minimize benefit to self or maximize cost to self;

Approbation Maxim: try to minimize dispraise of other or maximize praise of other;

Modesty Maxim: try to minimize praise of self or maximize dispraise of self;

Agreement Maxim: try to minimize disagreement between self and other or maximize agreement between self and other;

Sympathy Maxim: try to minimize antipathy between self and other or maximize sympathy between self and other.

B. *The Concept of "Politeness" in Chinese Culture*

Many Chinese scholars have done researches on the phenomenon of "politeness" and proposed their own views and theories. In Professor Gu Yueguo's book *Pragmatic Politeness and Culture*, he believes that there are four basic concepts in traditional Chinese "politeness". They are respectfulness, modesty, attitudinal warmth and refinement (Gu, 1992). Respectfulness is to affirm others' faces and social status; modesty can be taken as another way of saying debasing oneself; attitudinal warmth refers to the expression of friendliness and concern from self to others; refinement refers to choosing elegant expression and forbidding bawdry. According to Professor He Zhaoxiong, compared with Brown and Levinson's concept of face, the perception of respectfulness is to respect the other's positive face (He, 2000). In a broad sense, the perception of modesty lies in different cultures, but it is explained into debasing oneself only in Chinese culture. Brown and Levinson believe that the conception of attitudinal warmth not only violates the freedom of others, but also threats others' negative face. In contemporary Chinese language, this is not believed as face-threatening act. The conception of refinement is the representative of the politeness normativeness. Although politeness is universal, there is no mention of "refinement" in Brown and Levinson's research. Professor Gu Yueguo proposed a sequence of principles on the basis of the combination of four basic concepts in traditional Chinese "politeness" and Leech's politeness principle—respectfulness, modesty, attitudinal warmth, refinement, tact maxim and generosity maxim, which are fit for the contemporary Chinese language.

III. THE CULTURAL DIFFERENCES BETWEEN CHINESE POLITENESS AND WESTERN POLITENESS

In any society or group all around the world, people's behavior is restricted by "politeness" and maintained by "face". In Chinese society, the etiquette is advocated. The formation and development of "etiquette" and its restriction on people's behavior all have more special meaning than in any other country and society in the world. The "politeness principle" in Chinese society restricted by "etiquette" is to a great extent different from that of western countries in nature. The differences are various. To be more concrete, the differences are exemplified in the connotation of politeness, the focus or choice of politeness principle, the way of expression of politeness, etc.

A. *The Connotation Differences between Chinese Politeness and Western Politeness*

In Chinese society, the “politeness principle” is different from that of western countries in nature. Chinese politeness principle puts emphasis on distinction. This is the mark of grade differences. This mark is reflected in the aspect of showing social rank relationship. In modern society, it is also used to reflect and maintain the class distinction. This kind of politeness principle is not preferred in western countries. The interpersonal relationship of the westerners is based on a parallel relation. At the same time, in western society, people pursue self-realization and individual struggle, and pay much attention to individual power and individual privacy. Westerners emphasize doing their own business and showing their talent individually. So modesty of Chinese style is naturally looked down upon. From this point, Chinese politeness and western countries’ politeness are different.

B. *The Differences on the Selection of Politeness Principle*

The tact maxim is the most important in Leech’s politeness principle. It is the principle which is often used in interpersonal communication, constituting the core of politeness principle in western culture. In western society, personal interest, individual power and privacy are all believed sacred and inviolable. So, even in the communication between employer and employee, parents and children, teachers and students, communicators must follow the tact maxim to reduce the threat to other person’s negative face or reduce the compulsive tone. In English, when people ask someone to do something, they always choose some indirect and euphemistic speech like the following (Gu, 2000):

Will you close the door?

Can (Could) you close the door?

Would you mind closing the door?

Could you possibly close the door?

I was wondering if you could close the door.

However, from the point of view of Chinese tradition, people’s behavior is restricted by social expectation. Some people have the right to give the others commands, requests, suggestions, advices, warnings, threatens, etc.; while other people have to accept or fulfill the behavior. For example, directive language can only be used by the elderly to the younger ones, employers to their employees, teachers to their students and parents to their children, or else it is impolite. So in Chinese culture, the respectfulness principle is the politeness phenomenon with strong Chinese cultural characteristics. It lies in the core part of Chinese culture. Chinese tend to debase oneself to show the modesty when someone praises him. In all cultures, modesty is regarded as the performance of politeness. The modesty maxim is also included in Leech’s politeness principle, but there are differences in degree of following the principle between westerners and Chinese. Westerners respect others and do not debase themselves. They will accept others’ praise with pleasure and say “Thank you” happily, while Chinese will say “Oh, no, no, it isn’t so good”, etc. under the same situation (Jia, 1997, p.287).

C. *The Differences in the Way of Expressing Politeness between Chinese and Western Countries*

Politeness is the universal phenomenon in all social groups. But every ethnic group has its particular principles or standards. People from different cultural backgrounds will express politeness in different ways. This paper tries to explain it through the following two aspects:

1. Compliment and Response

Compliment is a kind of social speech act which has several functions. It means that it can accomplish different functions in different social environments of daily life communication. According to the surveys done by scholars at home and abroad, other than express appreciation, the dominating function of English complimentary speech is to coordinate the “consistency” in the interaction of communicators. While the functions of Chinese complimentary speech focus on: firstly, making the hearer feel good; secondly, expressing appreciation; thirdly, making use of others. The third function of Chinese complimentary speech is different from those of western culture. In the aspect of content of complimentary speech, there are also cultural differences. The westerners prefer to seek personality, so they always give a compliment on some changes, new ideas or new styles. While Chinese prefer to seek something in common, so the compliment on changes or variations is not so frequently used as that in western countries. As for the response to compliment, the differences are apparent. For example, a foreigner may say “Your dress looks very nice!” when he expresses his appreciation to a Chinese lady, but the Chinese lady answered, “No, it is just ordinary.” In Chinese culture, people tend to say “You praise me too much” or “I feel ashamed to hear that” or other self-dispraise words, in order to show their modesty. While in western culture, people who are praised tend to say “Thank you”, “I’m glad to hear that”, etc. (Deng, 1997, p.76). The former communication fails because the foreigner will feel that this kind of response implies that the Chinese lady consider that he lacks aesthetics and taste and does not know how to judge the style of clothes. Leech’s modesty maxim has different importance under English and Chinese, two different cultural backgrounds. Different politeness strategies are used to respond to the complimentary speech in English and Chinese. For English and American, the acceptance of compliment is a kind of respect to the counterpart, and it can avoid threatening the positive face of the counterpart. For Chinese, the self-depreciation is to show self-abasement and respect to the counterpart.

2. Invitation and Acceptance

Chinese always use a threadlike thinking model, and the whole structure of communication includes many words’

turn. A deal could be done after many times' negotiation. In the polite conversation of inviting and accepting, this situation is more apparently reflected. The inviters always make an invitation for many times to show his sincerity. The Chinese traditional attitudinal warmth is reflected in this situation. The invitee refuses for many times while the inviter insists. On one hand, the invitee intends to find out whether the inviter is sincere, and whether it is just a kind of courtesy but not a real invitation. To accept an invitation immediately is considered to be impolite. On the other hand, only in this insisting way can the sincerity be shown. Therefore, the inviters and invitees usually have negotiation for many times before they can reach the agreement. In our daily life, it is common to hear of dialogues like the following one (Sapir, 1970):

A: Stay with us for the dinner tonight.

B: No, thanks, please don't bother.

A: No trouble at all. Just some dishes, it's not complex. We will have it in just a few minutes.

B: I'm not hungry now so I will go back. Next time I will stay and bother you.

A: Since you are here, make yourself at home. All we can offer you is a simple diet, and we ourselves will have it. Please stay with us. You will give me the face, won't you?

B: Well, then...then... I will stay.

This conversation has gone through a process of inviting—declining—inviting again—declining again—inviting—accepting. It demonstrates the Chinese threadlike thinking model and their euphemistic language fully in communication. While the westerners use a linear type thinking model. In the inviting situation, the most important thing is to make it clear whether he accepts the invitation or not, and at the same time to explain he can attend it on time. In Brown and Levinson's opinion, the insisting invitation is a threat to the hearer's negative face, for the freedom of the hearer is restricted. Due to this, westerners regard the speech acts of suggestion and invitation as acts that may threaten the negative face of others. Once the speech acts are refused, the speaker will not insist, in order to make sure that he is polite to the hearer. Just as the formulation of some scholars, in the speech acts of suggestion and invitation, westerners tend to present a three-step conversational mode like the following (Prosser, 1978):

Speaker: makes the proposal or invitation

Hearer: politely refuses the suggestion or invitation

Speaker: stop making proposal or stop inviting

This mode of inviting and accepting is suitable in western culture. It ensures the freedom of the counterpart and thinks of the negative face of the counterpart. While in Chinese culture, it can not embody the hospitality to a larger extent.

IV. CONCLUSION

Thus, the Chinese politeness and western politeness are put forward respectively on the basis of Chinese language cultural characteristics and the English language cultural characteristics. They cover many aspects of principles, and will be different from each other due to the different cultures. As a pragmatic principle, the politeness principle of China and western countries are both restricted by their own culture. In cross-cultural communication, people should do their best to use the correct politeness principle, avoid the cultural conflict and get the best effect of communication.

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Contribution of Cooperative Principle to the Interpretation of Irony*

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Abstract—Through gathering, analyzing and evaluating some cases of irony from *Three Kingdoms* by Luo Guanzhong and its translator Roberts, this paper aims to bring the issue of the significance of the indispensability of resorting to Grice's (1975) cooperative principle (CP) for the analysis of irony in the interpretation of utterances.

Index Terms—cooperative principle, utterances from *Three Kingdoms*, irony

I. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Irony, in the restricted sense, a form of linguistic ambiguity, has become a well-established colorful form of writing in the literature. Writers use irony to achieve their rhetorical ends—be they comic, moral, corrective and/or hortatory—through textual, grammatical, lexical manipulation. Booth classifies irony in two forms: stable and unstable; each is divided into local and infinite on two levels: covert and overt (1974:235). Stable irony involves two steps: the authors offer an unequivocal invitation to reconstruct and this reconstruction is not to be later undermined (1974:233). Unstable irony, on the other hand, implies that “no stable reconstruction can be made out of the ruins revealed through the irony.” (1974:240) Muecke (1982) differentiates between two classes of irony: observable irony and instrumental irony. Instrumental irony is used when someone realizes a purpose using language ironically, while observable irony could be unintentional and hence representable in art. Muecke (1969) distinguishes four modes of irony: impersonal, self-disparaging, ingenuous and dramatized, and gives impersonal irony the most prominent place and classification. Impersonal irony includes: praising in order to blame; blaming in order to praise, pretended agreement with the victim of irony; pretended advice or encouragement to the victim; the rhetorical question; pretended doubt; innuendo and insinuation; pretended error or ignorance; ambiguity; pretended attack on the victim's opponent; and stylistically signaled irony. Attardo (2000:84) argues that a “smallest possible disruption” of Grice's (1975) cooperative principle (CP) is put to work when irony is employed. Gibbs (1994) considers that the understanding of verbal irony requires the necessity of breaking Grice's truthfulness maxims and have a context of situation. How can readers infer writers' intentions when they attempt to produce irony? The solution is with reference to the violation to Grice's conversational maxims. The cooperative principle which accounts for Grice's (1975) “conversational implicature” is spelled out by four maxims, namely:

- quantity (a speaker should give the appropriate quantity of information);
- quality (information given should be correct or truthful);
- manner (expressions should be clear, non-ambiguous, brief and orderly); and
- relation (a speaker should maintain relevance to the subject matter and register).

“these maxims do not represent a descriptive statement of how conversational contributions are” (Coulthard 1985:31) and speakers or writers violate them often for a variety of purposes. When that happens, irony is likely to be employed.

II. THE INTERPRETATION OF IRONY

Grice's (1975) cooperative principle (CP) plays a crucial role in identifying irony encountered in literature. Take the following excerpts from *THREE KINGDOMS* for examples:

Example 1

权曰：“曹操部下战将，还有多少？”孔明曰：“足智多谋之士，能征惯战之将，何止一二千人。”权曰：“今曹操平了荆、楚，复有远图乎？”孔明曰：“即今沿江下寨，准备战船，不欲图江东，待取何地？”权曰：“若彼有吞并之意，战与不战，请足下为我一决。”孔明曰：“亮有一言，但恐将军不肯听从。”权曰：“愿闻高论。”孔明曰：“向者宇内大乱，故将军起江东，刘豫州收众汉南，与曹操并争天下。今操芟除大难，略已平矣；近又新破荆州，威震海内；纵有英雄，无用武之地：故豫州遁逃至此。愿将军量力而处之：若能以吴、越之众，与中国抗衡，不如早与之绝；若其不能，何不从众谋士之论，按兵束甲，北面而事之？”权未及答。孔明又曰：“将军外托服从之名，内怀疑贰之见，事急而不断，祸至无日矣！”权曰：“诚如君言，刘豫州何不降操？”孔明曰：“昔

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田横，齐之壮士耳，犹守义不辱。况刘豫州王室之胄，英才盖世，众士仰慕。事之不济，此乃天也。又安能屈处人下乎！” (“How many has he in all?” “Horse and foot, land and marine, he has a million.” “Is there not some doubt about that?” said Sun Quan, surprised. “None whatever. When Cao Cao went to Yanzhou, he had the two hundred thousand soldiers of Qingzhou. He gained five or six hundred thousand more when Yuan Shao fell. He has three or four hundred thousand troops newly recruited in the capital. Lately he has acquired two or three hundred thousand troops in Jingzhou. And if these be reckoned up, the total is not less than a million and a half. Hence I said a million for I was afraid of frightening your officers.” Lu Su was much disturbed and turned pale. He looked meaningfully at the bold speaker, but Zhuge Liang would not see. Sun Quan went on to ask if his archenemy had a corresponding number of leaders. “Cao Cao has enough administrators and strategists to control such a host, and his capable and veteran leaders are more than a thousand; perhaps more than two thousand.” “What will be Cao Cao’s next move now that he has overcome Jingzhou?” “He is camped along the river, and he has collected a fleet. If he does not intend to invade the South Land, what can his intentions be?” “Since that is his intention, it is a case of fight or not fight. I wish you would decide that for me.” “I have something I could say, but I fear, Sir, you would not care to hear it.” “I am desirous of hearing your most valuable opinion.” “Strife has prevailed for a long time; and so you have raised your army in the South Land and Liu Bei collected his forces south of the Han River to act in contest for the empire against Cao Cao. Now Cao Cao has overcome most of his difficulties, and his recent conquest of Jingzhou has won him great and wide renown. Though there might be one bold enough to tackle him, yet there is no foothold for such. That is how Liu Bei has been forced to come here. But, General, I wish you to measure your forces and decide whether you can venture to meet Cao Cao and that without loss of time. If you cannot, then follow the advice of your councilors: Cease your military preparations and yield, turn your face to the north and serve.” Sun Quan did not reply. But his guest went on, “You have the reputation of being reasonable, but I know also you are inclined to hesitate. Still this matter is most important, and evil will be quickly upon you if you do not decide.” Then replied Sun Quan, “If what you say represents the actual conditions, why does not Liu Bei yield?” “Well, you know Tian Heng*, that hero of the state of Qi: His character was too noble for him to submit to any shame. It is necessary to remember that Liu Bei also is an off-shoot from the Dynastic Family, beside being a man of great renown. Everyone looks up to him. His lack of success is simply the will of Heaven, but manifestly he could not bow the knee to anyone.” “Well, you know Tian Heng*, that hero of the state of Qi: His character was too noble for him to submit to any shame. It is necessary to remember that Liu Bei also is an off-shoot from the Dynastic Family, beside being a man of great renown. Everyone looks up to him. His lack of success is simply the will of Heaven, but manifestly he could not bow the knee to anyone.”

*Tian Heng was a warrior of Qi at the end of the Warring States period and Qin Dynasty. In his bid to regain the lost kingdom of Qi, Tian Heng rebelled against Qin and fought both Liu Bang and Xiang Yu. Read Tian Heng Island.)

The underlined utterance 若其不能，何不从众谋士之论，按兵束甲，北面而事之? (If you cannot, then follow the advice of your councilors: Cease your military preparations and yield, turn your face to the north and serve.) is considered ironic. This utterance is considered a violation of the maxim of quality when in correlation with its context of situation, which is substantiated by the utterance below:

孔明曰：“昔田横，齐之壮士耳，犹守义不辱。况刘豫州王室之胄，英才盖世，众士仰慕。事之不济，此乃天也。又安能屈处人下乎！” (“Well, you know Tian Heng*, that hero of the state of Qi: His character was too noble for him to submit to any shame. It is necessary to remember that Liu Bei also is an off-shoot from the Dynastic Family, beside being a man of great renown. Everyone looks up to him. His lack of success is simply the will of Heaven, but manifestly he could not bow the knee to anyone.”)

This clearly shows that maxim flouting strategy can serve as a trigger of irony. The real interpretation involves the truth-value resting in the reverse of what is said. That is to say, Zhuge Liang’s ostensive meaning contradicts his intended one. The ironic device used here is to instigate Sun Quan’s anti-CaoCao feelings.

Below is another example highlighting the importance of flouting conversational maxims in arriving at an ironic inference.

Example 2

至晚，人报鲁子敬引孔明来拜。瑜出中门迎入。叙礼毕，分宾主而坐。肃先问瑜曰：“今曹操驱众南侵，和与战二策，主公不能决，一听于将军。将军之意若何？”瑜曰：“曹操以天子为名，其师不可拒。且其势大，未可轻敌。战则必败，降则易安。吾意已决。来日见主公，便当遣使纳降。”鲁肃愕然曰：“君言差矣！江东基业，已历三世，岂可一旦弃于他人？伯符遗言，外事付托将军。今正欲仗将军保全国家，为泰山之靠，奈何从懦夫之议耶？”瑜曰：“江东六郡，生灵无限；若罹兵革之祸，必有归怨于我，故决计请降耳。”肃曰：“不然。以将军之英雄，东吴之险固，操未必便能得志也。”

二人互相争辩，孔明只袖手冷笑。瑜曰：“先生何故哂笑？”孔明曰：“亮不笑别人，笑子敬不识时务耳。”肃曰：“先生如何反笑我不识时务？”孔明曰：“公瑾主意欲降操，甚为合理。”瑜曰：“孔明乃识时务之士，必与吾有同心。”肃曰：“孔明，你也如何说此？”孔明曰：“操极善用兵，天下莫敢当。向只有吕布、袁绍、袁术、刘表敢与对敌。今数人皆被操灭，天下无人矣。独有刘豫州不识时务，强与争衡；今孤身江夏，存亡未保。将军决计降曹，可以保妻子，可以全富贵。国祚迁移，付之天命，何足惜哉！”鲁肃大怒曰：“汝教吾主屈膝受辱于国贼乎！”……周瑜听罢，勃然大怒，离座指北而骂曰：“老贼欺吾太甚！”孔明急起止之曰：“昔单于屡侵疆

界，汉天子许以公主和亲，今何惜民间二女乎？”瑜曰：“公有所不知：大乔是孙伯符将军主妇，小乔乃瑜之妻也。”孔明佯作惶恐之状，曰：“亮实不知。失口乱言，死罪！死罪！”瑜曰：“吾与老贼誓不两立！”孔明曰：“事须三思，免致后悔。”瑜曰：“吾承伯符寄托，安有屈身降操之理？适来所言，故相试耳。吾自离鄱阳湖，便有北伐之心，虽刀斧加头，不易其志也！望孔明助一臂之力，同破曹贼。”孔明曰：“若蒙不弃，愿效犬马之劳，早晚拱听驱策。”瑜曰：“来日入见主公，便议起兵。”(About eventide Lu Su and Zhuge Liang came, and Zhou Yu went out to the main gate to receive them. When they had taken their proper seats, Lu Su spoke first, saying, "Cao Cao has come against the South Land with a huge army. Our master cannot decide whether to submit or give battle and waits for your decision. What is your opinion?" Zhou Yu replied, "We may not oppose Cao Cao when he acts at the command of the Emperor. Moreover, he is very strong, and to attack him is to take serious risks. In my opinion, opposition would mean defeat and, since submission means peace, I have decided to advise our lord to write and offer surrender." "But you are wrong!" stammered Lu Su. "This country has been under the same rule for three generations and cannot be suddenly abandoned to some other. Our late lord Sun Ce said that you were to be consulted on matters beyond the border, and we depended upon you to keep the country as secure and solid as the Taishan Mountains. Now you adopt the view of the weaklings and propose to yield! I cannot believe you mean it." Replied Zhou Yu, "The six territories contain countless people. If I am the means of bringing upon them the misery of war, they will hate me. So I have decided to advise submission." "But do you not realize our lord's might and the strength of our country? If Cao Cao does attack, it is very uncertain that he will realize his desire." The two wrangled for a long time, while Zhuge Liang sat smiling with folded arms. Presently Zhou Yu asked, "Why do you smile thus, Master?"

And Zhuge Liang replied, "I am smiling at no other than your opponent Lu Su, who knows nothing of the affairs of the day." "Master," said Lu Su, "what do you mean?" "Why, this intention to submit is perfectly reasonable. It is the one proper thing." "There!" exclaimed Zhou Yu. "Zhuge Liang knows the times perfectly well, and he agrees with me." "But, both of you, why do you say this?" said Lu Su. Said Zhuge Liang, "Cao Cao is an excellent commander, so good that no one dares oppose him. Only very few have ever attempted it, and they have been exterminated--the world knows them no more. The only exception is Liu Bei, who did not understand the conditions and vigorously contended against him, with the result that he is now at Jiangxia in a very parlous state. To submit is to secure the safety of wives and children, to be rich and honored. But the dignity of the country would be left to chance and fate--however, that is not worth consideration." Lu Su interrupted angrily, "Would you make our lord crook the knee to such a rebel as Cao Cao?" Zhou Yu listened to the end but then suddenly jumped up in a tremendous rage. Turning to the north and pointing with his finger, he cried, "You old rebel, this insult is too deep!" Zhuge Liang hastily rose too and soothed him, saying, "But remember the Khan of the Xiongnu People. The Han emperor gave him a princess of the family to wife although he had made many incursions into our territory. That was the price of peace. You surely would not grudge two more women from among the common people." "You do not know, Sir," replied Zhou Yu. "Of those two women of the Qiao family you mentioned, Elder Qiao is the widow of Sun Ce, our late ruler, and Younger Qiao is my wife!" Zhuge Liang feigned the greatest astonishment and said, "No indeed: I did not know. I blundered--a deadly fault--a deadly fault!" "One of us two has to go: Either the old rebel or I. We shall not both live. I swear that!" cried Zhou Yu. "However, such a matter needs a good deal of thought," replied Zhuge Liang. "We must not make any mistake." Zhou Yu replied, "I hold a sacred trust from my late lord, Sun Ce. I would not bow the knee to any such as Cao Cao. What I said just now was to see how you stood. I left Poyang Lake with the intention of attacking the north, and nothing can change that intention, not even the sword at my breast or the ax on my neck. But I trust you will lend an arm, and we will smite Cao Cao together." "Should I be happy enough not to be rejected, I would render such humble service as I could. Perhaps presently I might be able to offer a plan to oppose him." "I am going to see my lord tomorrow to discuss this matter," said Zhou Yu.)

There are five ironic devices in the above example:

1) 瑜曰：“曹操以天子为名，其师不可拒。且其势大，未可轻敌。战则必败，降则易安。吾意已决。来日见主公，便当遣使纳降。”(Zhou Yu replied, "We may not oppose Cao Cao when he acts at the command of the Emperor. Moreover, he is very strong, and to attack him is to take serious risks. In my opinion, opposition would mean defeat and, since submission means peace, I have decided to advise our lord to write and offer surrender.") It is considered ironic given its context of situation, which is substantiated by the utterance below:

瑜曰：“吾承伯符寄托，安有屈身降操之理？适来所言，故相试耳。吾自离鄱阳湖，便有北伐之心，虽刀斧加头，不易其志也！望孔明助一臂之力，同破曹贼。”(Zhou Yu replied, "I hold a sacred trust from my late lord, Sun Ce. I would not bow the knee to any such as Cao Cao. What I said just now was to see how you stood. I left Poyang Lake with the intention of attacking the north, and nothing can change that intention, not even the sword at my breast or the ax on my neck. But I trust you will lend an arm, and we will smite Cao Cao together.")

This device gives rise to the violation of the maxim of quality because Zhou Yu's information given is contradicting his true intention. The ironic device used here is, to quote Zhou Yu's own words: “适来所言，故相试耳” (What I said just now was to see how you stood.)

2) 孔明曰：“亮不笑别人，笑子敬不识时务耳。”(Zhuge Liang replied, "I am smiling at no other than your opponent Lu Su, who knows nothing of the affairs of the day.")

According to the context of situation, this utterance features a blame in order to praise, realized by the violation of the maxim of quality.

3) 孔明曰：“公瑾主意欲降操，甚为合理(“Why, this intention to submit is perfectly reasonable. It is the one proper thing.”)This utterance features a praise in order to blame, realized by the violation of the maxim of quality.

4) 孔明曰：“独有刘豫州不识时务，强与争衡……”(The only exception is Liu Bei, who did not understand the conditions and vigorously contended against him,) This utterance features a blame in order to praise, realized by the violation of the maxim of quality.

5) 孔明曰：“将军决计降曹，可以保妻子，可以全富贵。国祚迁移，付之天命，何足惜哉！”(To submit is to secure the safety of wives and children, to be rich and honored. But the dignity of the country would be left to chance and fate---however, that is not worth consideration.)The much information about the benefit of submitting to CaoCao the underlined utterance is expressing infers a violation to the maxim of quantity. Moreover, the verbalization of the fate of DONG WU STATE is also a violation to the maxim of manner. Finally, given Zhuge Liang’s real intention which is revealed throughout the whole passage, especially proved by the following:

瑜曰：“望孔明助一臂之力，同破曹贼。”孔明曰：“若蒙不弃，愿效犬马之劳，早晚拱听驱策。”(“Should I be happy enough not to be rejected, I would render such humble service as I could. Perhaps presently I might be able to offer a plan to oppose him.”), this underlined utterance is violating the maxim of quality as well.

More examples of irony highlighting the importance of flouting conversational maxims can be identified.

Example 3

干葛巾布袍，驾一只小舟，径到周瑜寨中，命传报：“故人蒋干相访。”周瑜正在帐中议事，闻蒋干至，笑谓诸将曰：“说客至矣！”遂与众将附耳低言，如此如此。众皆应命而去。瑜整衣冠，引从者数百，皆锦衣花帽，前后簇拥而出。蒋干引一青衣小童，昂然而来。瑜拜迎之。干曰：“公瑾别来无恙！”瑜曰：“子翼良苦：远涉江湖，为曹氏作说客耶？”干愕然曰：“吾久别足下，特来叙旧，奈何疑我作说客也？”瑜笑曰：“吾虽不及师旷之聪，闻弦歌而知雅意。”干曰：“足下待故人如此，便请告退。”瑜笑而挽其臂曰：“吾但恐兄为曹氏作说客耳。既无此心，何速去也？”遂同入帐。叙礼毕，坐定，即传令悉召江左英杰与子翼相见。须臾，文官武将，各穿锦衣；帐下偏裨将校，都披银铠：分两行而入。瑜都教相见毕，就列于两傍而坐。大张筵席，奏军中得胜之乐，轮换行酒。瑜告众官曰：“此吾同窗契友也。虽从江北到此，却不是曹家说客。公等勿疑。”遂解佩剑付太史慈曰：“公可佩我剑作监酒：今日宴饮，但叙朋友交情；如有提起曹操与东吴军旅之事者，即斩之！”太史慈应诺，按剑坐于席上。蒋干惊愕，不敢多言。周瑜曰：“吾自领军以来，滴酒不饮；今日见了故人，又无疑忌，当饮一醉。”说罢，大笑畅饮。座上觥筹交错。饮至半酣，瑜携干手，同步出帐外。左右军士，皆全装惯带，持戈执戟而立。瑜曰：“吾之军士，颇雄壮否？”干曰：“真熊虎之士也。”瑜又引干到帐后一望，粮草堆如山积。瑜曰：“吾之粮草，颇足备否？”干曰：“兵精粮足，名不虚传。”瑜佯醉大笑曰：“想周瑜与子翼同学业时，不曾望有今日。”干曰：“以吾兄高才，实不为过。”瑜执干手曰：“大丈夫处世，遇知己之主，外托君臣之义，内结骨肉之恩，言必行，计必从，祸福共之。假使苏秦、张仪、陆贾、酈生复出，口似悬河，舌如利刃，安能动我心哉！”言罢大笑。蒋干面如土色。(Clad in a simple white robe and seated in his little craft, the messenger reached Zhou Yu's camp and bade the guards say that an old friend Jiang Gan wished to see him. The commander was in his tent at a council when the message came, and he laughed as he said to those about him, "A persuader is coming." Then he whispered certain instructions in the ear of each one of them, and they went out to await his arrival. Zhou Yu received his friend in full ceremonial garb. A crowd of officers in rich silken robes were about him. The guest appeared, his sole attendant a lad dressed in a simple blue gown. Jiang Gan bore himself proudly as he advanced, and Zhou Yu made a low obeisance. "You have been well I hope since last we met," said Jiang Gan. "You have wandered far and suffered much in this task of emissary in Cao Cao's cause," said Zhou Yu. "I have not seen you for a very long time," said the envoy much taken aback, "and I came to visit you for the sake of old times. Why do you call me an emissary for the Cao Cao's cause?" "Though I am not so profound a musician as Shi Kuang* of old, yet I can comprehend the thought behind the music," replied Zhou Yu. "As you choose to treat your old friend like this, I think I will take my leave," said Jiang Gan. Zhou Yu laughed again, and taking Jiang Gan by the arm, said, "Well, I feared you might be coming on his behalf to try to persuade me. But if this is not your intention, you need not go away so hastily." So they two entered the tent. When they had exchanged salutes and were seated as friends, Zhou Yu bade them call his officers that he might introduce them. They soon appeared civil and military officials, all dressed in their best. The military officers were clad in glittering silver armor and the staff looked very imposing as they stood ranged in two lines. The visitor was introduced to them all. Presently a banquet was spread, and while they feasted, the musicians played songs of victory and the wine circulated merrily. Under the mellowing influence, Zhou Yu's reserve seemed to thaw and he said, "Jiang Gan is an old fellow student of mine, and we are pledged friends. Though he has arrived here from the north, he is no artful pleader so you need not be afraid of him." Then Zhou Yu took off the commanding sword which he wore as Commander-in-Chief and handed it to Taishi Ci, saying, "You take this and wear it for the day as master of the feast. This day we meet only as friends and speak only of friendship, and if anyone shall begin a discussion of the questions at issue between Cao Cao and the South Land, just slay him." Taishi Ci took the sword and seated himself in his place. Jiang Gan was not a little overcome, but he said no word. Zhou Yu said, "Since I assumed command, I have tasted no drop of wine; but today as an old friend is present and there is no reason to fear him, I am going to drink freely." So saying he quaffed a huge goblet and laughed loudly. The rhinoceros cups went swiftly round from guest to guest till all were half drunk. Then Zhou Yu, laying hold of the guest's hand, led him outside the tent. The guards who stood around all braced themselves

up and seized their shining weapons."Do you not think my soldiers a fine lot of fellows?" said Zhou Yu."Strong as bears and bold as tigers," replied Jiang Gan. Then Zhou Yu led him to the rear of the tent whence he saw the grain and forage piled up in mountainous heaps."Do you not think I have a fairly good store of grain and forage?" "Your troops are brave and your supplies ample: The empire's gossip is not baseless, indeed." Zhou Yu pretended to be quite intoxicated and went on, "When you and I were students together, we never looked forward to a day like this, did we?" "For a genius like you, it is nothing extraordinary," said the guest. Zhou Yu again seized his hand, and they sat down. "A man of the time, I have found a proper lord to serve. In his service, we rely upon the right feeling between minister and prince outside, and at home we are firm in the kindly feeling of relatives. He listens to my words and follows my plans. We share the same good or evil fortune. Even when the great old persuaders like Su Qin, Zhang Yi, Lu Jia, and Li Yiji lived again, even when their words poured forth like a rushing river, their tongues were as a sharp sword, it is impossible to move such as I am!" Zhou Yu burst into a loud laugh as he finished, and Jiang Gan's face had become clay-colored. Zhou Yu then led his guest back into the tent, and again they fell to drinking.)

The underlined utterance 瑜告众官曰：“此吾同窗契友也。虽从江北到此，却不是曹家说客。公等勿疑。”(Zhou Yu's reserve seemed to thaw and he said, "Jiang Gan is an old fellow student of mine, and we are pledged friends. Though he has arrived here from the north, he is no artful pleader so you need not be afraid of him.")is considered ironic given the context, substantiated by the utterance before this utterance:

周瑜正在帐中议事，闻将干至，笑谓诸将曰：“说客至矣！”(The commander was in his tent at a council when the message came, and he laughed as he said to those about him, "A persuader is coming.")

and by the utterances after this utterance:

(周瑜)遂解佩剑付太史慈曰：“公可佩我剑作监酒：今日宴饮，但叙朋友交情；如有提起曹操与东吴军旅之事者，即斩之！”(“You take this and wear it for the day as master of the feast. This day we meet only as friends and speak only of friendship, and if anyone shall begin a discussion of the questions at issue between Cao Cao and the South Land, just slay him.”)

瑜执干手曰：“大丈夫处世，遇知己之主，外托君臣之义，内结骨肉之恩，言必行，计必从，祸福共之。假使苏秦、张仪、陆贾、酈生复出，口似悬河，舌如利刃，安能动我心哉！”(“A man of the time, I have found a proper lord to serve. In his service, we rely upon the right feeling between minister and prince outside, and at home we are firm in the kindly feeling of relatives. He listens to my words and follows my plans. We share the same good or evil fortune. Even when the great old persuaders like Su Qin, Zhang Yi, Lu Jia, and Li Yiji lived again, even when their words poured forth like a rushing river, their tongues were as a sharp sword, it is impossible to move such as I am!”)

Hence, this underlined utterance gives rise to the violation of the maxim of quality since the real intention rest in the reverse of what is said. That is to say, Zhou Yu uses the ironic device to instigate implicit doubt and the dismay of Jiang Gan.

III. CONCLUSION

The examples above support the idea of minimal ironic devices to build discourse. As Simpson puts it, irony functions as “the infrastructure and determinant of the discourse” (2004:83) and “text-internal elements as textual evidence for inferencing”(2004:66), the making of meaning of and construction of sense resort to “conflictual textual or contextual evidence or markers socially agreed upon”(Hutcheon, 1995:11), “the relevance of an ironical utterance invariably depends, at least in part, on the information it conveys about the speaker’s attitude the opinion echoed.”(Sperber & Wilson, 1995:239), hence the understanding of verbal irony requires the necessity of breaking Grice’s (1975) cooperative principle (CP).

To sum up, this paper highlights the indispensability of resorting to Grice’s (1975) cooperative principle (CP) for the analysis of irony in the interpretation of utterances. The theory of CP take us beyond the words to a philosophical world where certain rules are set to infer the real meaning of what is being said in the analysis of irony. This emphasizes the need to develop a pragmatic competence of reception and interpretation of irony where conversational strategies based on Grice’s cooperative principle are applicable.

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Relationship between EFL Learners' Belief and Learning Strategy Use by English Majors in Vocational Colleges

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Abstract—This study, based on two questionnaires, explored relationship between foreign language learning beliefs and the strategy use among English major sophomores of vocational colleges in Jiangxi. In addition, it attempted to find any relationship between the two variables. The results shows: (1) Overall mean of the belief is 3.44, which means majority of subjects agree with the statements or at least stay neutral. They hold strong opinion about the six belief categories, especially about the language learning and communication strategies.(2) The overall strategy use fall within the range of medium use (mean=2.89), which means the vocational students “sometimes” use the strategies. Compensation strategies are the most popular strategies with the vocational English majors, while memory strategies are least used. (3) Moderate correlation coefficient is detected between the language learning beliefs and frequency of strategy use ($r=.476$, $p<.01$).

Index Terms—beliefs about foreign language learning, language learning strategies, English major students in vocational colleges, correlation study

I. INTRODUCTION

Since 1970s, great changes have taken place in the field of Second Language Acquisition research. Interest in EFL has shifted from teacher's teaching to students' learning and a growing number of studies have been undertaken from the learners' perspective. But how can people learn a foreign language more quickly and efficiently? This question has always been the focus of attention of foreign language teachers and researchers. So corresponding to the shift in the field of SLA, researchers have identified such individual learner variables that affect learning outcome as age, aptitude, motivation, cognitive style, learning style, learning belief and learning strategy, etc. Among them, students' learning beliefs about language learning and learning strategy have become heated topics in recent years.

However, there seems to be something that affects the choice of strategies. Influenced by previous experiences as language learners, or shaped by their own cultural backgrounds, second language learners often hold different beliefs or notions about language learning (Horwitz, 1987). Meanwhile, many researchers have suggested that learners' preconceived belief about language learning would likely affect the way they use their learning strategies and learn a second language (Abraham & Vann, 1987; Horwitz, 1987; Wenden, 1986). Investigation of the relationship between learners' beliefs about language learning and strategy use should provide teachers with better understanding of their students' “expectation of, commitment to success in and satisfaction with their language classes” (Horwitz, 1988, p283).

II. DEFINITION OF LLB AND LLS

In the past two decades, the concept of belief has come into the field of ELT (English Language Teaching) and gained much favor among language researchers and practitioners as well. In second language research, learners' beliefs are a term that is often used interchangeably with metacognitive knowledge. Metacognitive knowledge comprises one of three types of knowledge of mankind (the other two are domain knowledge and social knowledge (Wenden, 1999). Generally speaking, there are four characteristics of LLB; Wenden (1991) summarizes them as follows: stable; statable; interactive and fallible.

According to Wenden (1991), language learning belief is the knowledge held by language learner about various factors in language learning process, about how to learn a language, language skills, and communicative competence. Language beliefs are formed either through personal experience or influence from other people.

As to the classifications, Horwitz's classification of learners' language learning beliefs, developed very carefully, encompasses a broad range of language leaning beliefs and subsumed large numbers of more specific foreign language learning beliefs. Horwitz divided language learning beliefs into (1) Foreign language aptitude; (2) Difficulty of language learning; (3) Nature of language learning; (4) Learning and communication strategies; (5) Motivation and Expectations.

L2 learning strategies are specific behaviors or thought processes that student use to enhance their own L2 learning. The word strategy comes from the ancient Greek word *strategia*, which means steps or actions taken for the purpose of

winning a war. The warlike meaning of *strategia* has fortunately fallen away, but the control and goal-directedness remain in the modern version of the word (Oxford, 1990).

Oxford (1990:9) sees the aim of language learning strategies as being oriented towards the development of communicative competence. A general distinction is drawn between direct and indirect strategies, which are further subdivided into 6 groups. The former consist of “strategies that directly involve the target language” in the sense that they “require mental processing of the language.”(1990:37), while the latter “provide indirect support for language learning through focusing, planning, evaluating, seeking opportunities, controlling anxiety, increasing cooperation and empathy and other means”(1990:151). The general framework of Oxford’s classification was shown in Figure 1:

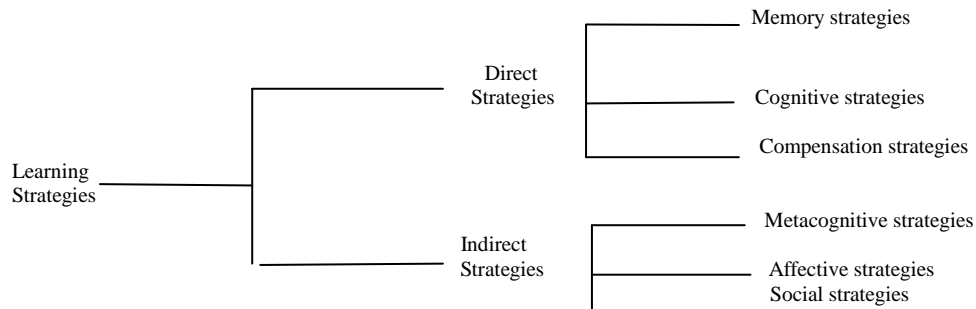


Figure 1 Diagram of a Strategy System: Overview (from Oxford 1990: 16)

The two high-order classes were subdivided into a total of six groups, with memory, cognitive, and compensation under the direct class; metacognitive, affective, and social under the indirect class. To be more specific;

- a. Affective strategies for anxiety reduction, self-encouragement, and self-reward.
- b. Social strategies such as asking questions, cooperating with native speakers, and becoming culturally aware.
- c. Metacognitive strategies for evaluating one’s progress, planning for language tasks, consciously searching for practice opportunities, paying attention, and monitoring errors.
- d. Memory-related strategies, such as grouping, imagery, rhyming, moving physically, and reviewing in a structured way.
- e. General cognitive strategies, such as reasoning, analyzing, summarizing, and practicing (including but not limited to “active use of the language).
- f. Compensatory strategies (to make up for limited knowledge), such as guessing meanings from context and using synonyms and gestures to convey meaning (cited from Green & Oxford, 1995).

The possible relationship between LLB and LLS was verified in the following studies. Researchers (Abraham and Vann, 1987; Horwitz, 1987, 1988; Wenden, 1986, 1987) have suggested connections between learners’ metacognitive knowledge or beliefs about language learning and their choice of language learning strategies.

In 1996, Wen and Wang discussed three kinds of beliefs, three kinds of strategies and the relationship between the two variables. In addition, Wen and Johnson’s study (1997) on second language variables and their relationship to English achievements reported that the direct effects of belief variables on strategy variables were strong and consistent, reinforcing the view that teachers and materials writers need to be ware of, and sensitive to students’ pre-existing assumptions about the language learning process.

Of the limited studies on the relationship between LLB and LLS at home and abroad, most of whose focus were on the undergraduates in general universities, students in vocational colleges have been always ignored by researchers. This research aimed to see how vocational students’ beliefs about English learning are actually related to their learning strategy use.

III. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

A. Research Questions

The study is designed to answer the following questions: (1) For the entire group, what language learning beliefs and learning strategies are adopted? (2) What is the relationship between learning beliefs and strategy use among the EFL English major sophomores in vocational colleges?

B. Subjects

In the present study, the subjects were 214 second-year English majors randomly selected from four vocational and technology colleges in Jiangxi. They are Jiangxi College of Foreign Trade, Jiangxi Tourism and Commerce College, Nanchang Institute of Technology and Jiangxi Institute of Technology. Of the 214 respondents, 107 were male and 107 were female. These subjects ranged in age from 19 to 23.

C. Instruments

There were two questionnaires used in the present study. The first questionnaire was “Language Learning Belief Questionnaire” designed by Liu (2003), with a few items chosen from Horwitz’s “Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory” (BALLI, EFL version, Horwitz, 1987). The questionnaire has proved effective in investigating Chinese EFL learners’ beliefs, which might be adequate in Chinese-associated context. This 50-item questionnaire was constructed encompassing six categories of beliefs. Each item was then incorporated with five-point Likert Scale ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree. The students were required to respond to each statement from these five scales. Additionally, the questionnaire was conducted in Chinese with a clear layout for a better understanding of the subjects. The 50 belief items were constructed centering around six categories—foreign language aptitude (FLA), the difficulty of language learning (DLL), the nature of language learning (NLL), learning and communication strategies (LCS), learner motivation and expectations (LME), and mother-tongue reliance (MTR).

The second questionnaire was Oxford’s (1990) 50-items Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) (version 7.0), which was used for researching learners about the frequency of their use of 50 common strategies. It has a five-point Likert scale format: learners were asked to report on a scale of one to five how often they use each strategy. The choices are: 1=never or almost never; 2=usually not; 3=somewhat; 4=usually; 5=always or almost always. Students were asked to indicate the frequency with which they use a strategy implied in the statement by selecting the number that represents their response. The higher number indicated a more frequent use of the strategy concerned. A Chinese translation of this instrument was also used to maximize ease of administration and ensure greater accuracy of results, especially with the less advanced students.

The structure of SILL is based on Oxford’s classification system, whereby strategies are grouped into six categories, each represented by a number of individual strategies (items). Memory strategies(items 1-9); Cognitive strategies (items 10-23); Compensatory strategies (items 24-29); Metacognitive strategies(items 30-38); Affective strategies(items 39-44) and Social strategies(items 45-50)

D. Data Collection and Analysis

The questionnaires in Chinese version were distributed to the subjects during regular class hour at the end of their fourth semester with the cooperation of their English teachers in 2008. All the data were collected by the researcher herself at different colleges. The researcher then checked the questionnaires to make sure there were no missing items and each subjects had written down their student numbers.

After collecting the completed questionnaires, all the data were coded and input into the computer, and then analyzed through the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS13.0). To be more specific, firstly, descriptive statistics such as frequencies, means, and standard deviations were computed to display the subjects’ overall responses to the LLB and strategy items as well as the backgrounds with regard to gender, student number. Secondly, Pearson correlations were conducted to determine the relationships between language learning beliefs and strategy use.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

For the convenience of report, in the part, unless noted, the responses of “strongly agree” and those of “agree” would be put together and reported as responses of “agree”. Similarly, the responses of “strongly disagree” and those of “disagree” will be put together and reported as responses of “disagree”.

A. Descriptive Statistics of the Primary Variables

All the 240 questionnaires were collected and returned to the author of the present thesis, 214 of which were valid and used in the following analyses.

a. Language Learning Beliefs

This section reports and presents the general findings according to six categories: foreign language aptitude (FLA, 6 items); the difficulty of language learning (DLL 2 items); the nature of language learning (NLL, 15 items); learning and communication strategies (LCS, 19 items); learner motivation and expectations (LME, 5 items); and mother—tongue reliance (MTR, 3 items). Table 1 presented the overall picture of LLBs about English language leaning.

TABLE 1.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF LLBS

Contents	FLA	DLL	NLL	LCS	LME	MTR	overall
Number Valid	214	214	214	214	214	214	214
Mean	3.38	2.91	3.47	3.74	3.07	2.47	3.44
Std. Deviation	0.40	0.76	0.35	0.39	0.41	0.71	0.26

Note: Means are based on a 5-point Likert scale, 1=Strongly Disagree, 2=Disagree; 3=Neither Agree nor Disagree; 4=Agree; 5=Strongly Agree

As shown in Table 1, almost all the means of the responses to the six categories were above 3.00 except the beliefs about the difficulty about language learning (Mean=2.91) and mother-tongue reliance (Mean=2.47). Since the participants were asked to respond on a 5-point scale, the above mean scores indicated that most of the participants tended to agree to the statements in the questionnaire except for the beliefs about the difficulty of English and mother-tongue reliance.

b. Language Learning Strategies

Oxford (1990) suggest a mean of 1.0-2.4 and lower for “low”, a mean range of 2.5-3.4 for “medium”, and a mean range of 3.5-5.0 for high levels of strategy use. The current study uses the same scale in classifying the participants. Results of the descriptive statistics showed that the mean strategy use by the vocational English majors on the whole strategies was 2.89, indicating they were medium strategy users.

In other words, the subjects employed strategies in the process of learning English with medium frequency. This finding of the study with respect to the overall mean of strategy use is consistent with the results obtained in other EFL contexts including Yang (1992) in Taiwan and Wharton (2000) in Singapore which all found that EFL learners used strategies at a medium level. However, compared with their undergraduate counterparts in general university studied by Li (2002), the subjects under investigation in this study indicated lower strategy use. (Mean=2.89 VS mean=2.99), which suggested vocational students uses less strategy than that of general universities. This finding also gave further evidence to the hypothesis that higher proficient learners are better and more frequent strategy users. Table 2 presented the descriptive statistics for strategy categories as used and reported by the participants of the study.

TABLE2.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF LLS CATEGORIES EMPLOYED BY VOCATIONAL STUDENTS

Strategy category (most used to least used)	Mean	Standard deviation	Range
Compensation	3.17	0.619	medium
Affective	3.02	0.636	medium
Metacognitive	2.95	0.667	medium
Cognitive	2.92	0.579	medium
Social	2.82	0.676	Low to medium
Memory	2.59	0.500	Low to medium
Overall strategy use	2.89	0.470	medium

As it is shown in the above table, the compensation strategies and affective strategies showed comparatively higher mean (3.17 & 3.02) and other categories fell within a medium to low strategy use level. The next frequently used strategy category was metacognitive and cognitive strategies. The means of the two were relatively the same (2.95 and 2.92 respectively). The mean of social strategies was 2.82 followed by memory strategies with a mean of 2.59. In other EFL studies, too, compensation strategies were found to be among the most highly frequently used strategies and memory strategies, the least frequently used ones (Yang, 1992). However, the order of rank of the six strategy categories was inconsistent with their counterparts in Li (2002), whose result was similar to that of Oxford. Li’s study indicated that the most frequently used strategies were memory strategies, cognitive strategies and metacognitive strategies followed by compensation strategies, and the least frequently used strategies were social and affective strategies.

One possible explanation for the reason why compensation strategies were the most frequently used strategies by vocational English majors might be that high use of compensation strategies usually characterizes the learners who struggle with lower competence. In view of the fact that vocational students are less proficient than their undergraduate counterparts, they have to use compensation strategies whenever they produce or comprehend the target language. In other words, those strategies can make up for the breakdowns during their communication processes. The author found that most of her students used these strategies to make up for their linguistic deficiency. Affective strategies, too, were found to be popular with the vocational students of this study. The findings, nonetheless, contradicted those of studies conducted among undergraduates in general universities, which reported that social and affective strategies were the least frequently used categories. In other words, the high use of affective strategies by vocational English majors might imply that they experienced more affective problems. Indeed, affective strategies enable learners to control their emotions attitudes, and motivations in language learning processes. A likely explanation is that the subjects are less confident than their undergraduate counterparts because of their failure to achieve a rather higher score in the College Entrance Exam. They have to learn to deal with more emotional-related problems, such as anxiety when using English, a language over which they do not have enough mastery.

With respect to metacognitive strategies and cognitive strategies, the results did not show much significant differences with other studies. They were reported to be approximately at the middle of the hierarchy of strategy categories. Metacognitive strategies, like planning, evaluating and monitoring, are very important strategies for the immediate language learners, especially in Chinese context, where language learners do not have much exposure to the target language to pick up the language unconsciously. Through the conscious attention to language learning process, they can compensate for this deficiency.

The last two strategy categories were social and memory strategies. Social strategies mainly concerns interaction with other people, so these strategies were found more popular with ESL learners, who had much more opportunity to use the language or have access to the native speakers than EFL learners.

One surprising finding of the study was that memory strategies were the least frequently used strategies. The results contradict with that of Li (2002), Oxford (1990) and many other studies conducted in Asia, in which Asian learners,

especially Chinese EFL learners, are stereotypically described as learners who prefer strategies involving rote memorization of language rules.

The low frequency of using memory strategy might be that traditional rote memorization strategies that Chinese EFL learners preferred might differ from the specific memory techniques reported in SILL. These techniques included making a mental picture of the situation in which the word might be used, using thymes to remember new words, and grouping new words into synonyms, antonyms, and nouns. However, the subjects of the study were not familiar with these memory skills listed in the SILL questionnaire. For example, Item 7 "I physically act out new English words" fell within the least frequently strategies. As an English teacher in vocational colleges, the researcher observed that EFL students did memorize language input, such as vocabulary and grammar rules; however, many students used rote memorizing rather than other more useful memory strategies. It is also likely that some memory strategies the students use are not listed on the SILL.

Although students in vocational colleges held strong belief towards memory in language learning, it was disappointing that most of memory strategies they used are rote memory skills rather than meaningful technique which can facilitate their language learning. This also explains why they are less successful learners.

B. Correlation Analysis of Beliefs and Strategy Variables

In order to investigate the relationship among vocational English majors' beliefs and strategy use, Person correlation procedures were performed on a total of twelve variables: six belief variables and six strategy variables. The belief variables are the underlying factors of the Language Learning Belief Questionnaire found in response to research question one (Language Learning Aptitude, Difficulty of Language Learning Nature, Belief about Strategy, Motivation and Mother-tongue Reliance); the strategy variables are the six strategy categories classified by Oxford.

Table3 and table4 showed the relationship between language learning beliefs and language learning strategies. The correlation coefficient (represented by "r" in this section) ranges from -1 to +1. A correlation coefficient whose absolute value is between 0.2 and 0.4 means a low to moderate significant correlation, between 0.4 and 0.7 means a sound significant correlation, between 0.7 and 0.9 means a high significant correlation, below 0.2 means a lowest correlation, which is usually ignored, and above 0.9 means a highest correlation, which scarcely occurs.

Table3 showed the language learning beliefs were significantly and positively correlated with language learning strategies. ($r=.437$, $p<.01$), although the correlation coefficient was not high. In other words, the intensity of LLB that learners hold will greatly influence their use of learning strategies in their English learning. The stronger belief they hold, the more strategies they will use.

TABLE3.
THE TOTAL CORRELATION COEFFICIENT BETWEEN THE LLB AND LLS

Overall Correlation Coefficient		Language learning strategies
Language learning beliefs	r	.437**
	sig	.000

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

* : Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

TABLE4.
CORRELATION BETWEEN CATEGORIES OF LANGUAGE LEARNING BELIEFS AND LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGIES

Beliefs \ Strategy		memory	cognitive	Compensation	Metacognitive	Affective	Social
Language Aptitude	r	.133	.271**	.180**	.223**	.126	.227**
	sig	.052	.000	.008	.001	.066	.001
Difficulty of language learning	r	.125	.226**	.052	.171*	.153*	.129
	sig	.068	.001	.448	.012	.025	.059
Nature of Language Learning	r	.040	.066	.069	.171*	.169*	.139*
	sig	.564	.336	.312	.012	.014	.042
Learning and Communication	r	.165*	.285**	.302**	.306**	.368**	.319**
	sig	.016	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
Learner Motivation and Expectations	r	.159*	.129	.083	.224**	.156*	.170*
	sig	.020	.059	.228	.001	.022	.013
Mother-tongue Reliance	r	-.098	-.163*	.008	-.059	-.047	-.100
	sig	.154	.017	.912	.390	.495	.144

*:Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

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

For the purpose of further study and discussion, table 4 presented the correlation of six factors of language learning belief and six factors of the SILL for the vocational English majors. The six categories of beliefs and six categories of strategies were significantly correlated with one another with correlation coefficients ranging from -.163 to .368, indicating low to moderate correlations.

From table 4, we can see Beliefs about Language Aptitude had moderate correlations with four strategies: cognitive strategy ($r=.271$, $p<.01$); compensation strategy ($r=.180$, $p<.01$); metacognitive strategy ($r=.223$, $p<.01$) and social strategy ($r=.227$, $p<.01$). No significant correlation was found between this belief category and the other two strategies: memory strategy and affective strategy. The results above seemed to suggest that learners who believed in the issue of equal potentiality for language learning, tended to use more cognitive strategy, compensation strategy, metacognitive strategy and social strategy to reach their goals. The Attribution Theory here can be borrowed to explain this result. According to the theory, those who have high expectations for future success in mastering English are usually the ones who attribute their success to stable factors such as innate ability. Hence, it is supposed that the more they believed they had a special ability to learn English, the more likely they would use strategies.

The belief about language difficulty was found to be positively correlated with cognitive strategy ($r=.226$, $p<.01$); metacognitive strategy ($r=.171$, $p<.05$) and affective strategy ($r=.153$, $p<.05$). The result indicated that the subjects' beliefs about relative difficulty of English or their self-efficacy judgments may determine how much effort they would like to make and persist with to learn English when faced with learning difficulties.

In addition, students' belief about Nature of Language Learning showed a weak correlation with metacognitive strategy ($r=.171$, $p<.05$); affective strategy ($r=.169$, $p<.05$) and social strategy ($r=.139$, $p<.05$). In other words, students' beliefs about the nature of language learning might encourage the use of these three strategies. Actually, when students regarded language learning as an important matter they were likely to plan, to organize, to monitor and to evaluate the whole language process by adopting various strategies such as reflection, looking for weak points of their language learning.

It was very encouraging to find that students' beliefs about learning and communication strategies were closely correlated with each strategy categories. Meanwhile, the strongest correlation was found between this belief category and three strategy categories: compensation ($r=.302$, $p<.01$); metacognitive strategy ($r=.306$, $p<.01$); affective strategy ($r=.368$, $p<.01$) and social strategy ($r=.319$, $p<.01$). Hence, those students who held certain beliefs about learning and communication strategies were likely to use all strategies much more frequently than student who did not hold these beliefs. It is rather easy to understand the result when we are reminded that, as mentioned above, this belief category is directly related to the use of strategy.

Beliefs about Motivation and Expectation also had a moderate to weak and positive correlation with memory strategy ($r=.159$, $p<.05$), metacognitive strategy ($r=.224$, $p<.01$), affective strategy ($r=.156$, $p<.05$) and social strategy ($r=.170$, $p<.05$). The finding suggested that student who were motivated for learning English, instrumentally or integratively, were more likely to use these four strategies than students who were not motivated for learning English. This finding is also consistent with that of Oxford and Nyikos (1989), which found that students' self-reported motivation function as an important determinant of their use of specific types of strategies and overall frequency of strategy use.

Finally, it was shown in the above table that the Belief about mother-tongue reliance was negatively correlated with cognitive strategy ($r=-.163$, $p<.05$). This suggested that the more reliant students were on their mother-tongue, the less cognitive strategy they will use. As mentioned before, the level of reliance on mother-tongue is negatively associated with proficiency level. The students with low proficiency are more reliant on their mother-tongue, thus ignoring using some other strategies. This result supports Horwitz's (1988) argument that certain students' beliefs would likely restrict the range of language learning strategy used.

The result was consistent with that of Yang (1992), who maintained that there is relationship between college EFL learners beliefs about language learning and their use of learning strategies and found that learners' self-efficacy beliefs about learning English were strongly related to their use of all types of strategies. Also, learners' beliefs about the value and nature of learning English were related to their choice or use of formal oral-practice strategies.

Overall, the correlation between beliefs of vocation English majors about learning and communication strategies and affective strategies was the strongest ($r=.368$, $p<.01$). The weakest correlation, which was negative, was between beliefs about mother-tongue reliance and cognitive strategy ($r=-.163$, $p<.05$). In addition, other belief categories had low to moderate correlations with six strategy categories respectively.

The Gap between Students' Beliefs and Actual Strategy Use

A further examination of the results of both LLB and LLS, we may find that there was a significant gap between the students' concept of EFL learning and their actual strategy use. For instance, even though overwhelmingly majority of the subjects approved that learning English involved a lot of memorization, the memory strategy category ranked at the bottom of the list. It was the following items that were most supported by the subjects, item 27, item 8, item 19, item 9, item 20, and item 32, but their corresponding items in SILL were not the most popular strategies. These indicated that what they think did not mean what they did in real learning situation. For example, as to item 32, 83% of the subjects thought it was necessary to practice pronunciation in order to improve speaking, but its corresponding item in SILL (item 12, I practice the sounds of English) only scored a mean of 3.00, which suggested a medium use. Item 9 (It is necessary to speak English in and out of class in order to improve English proficiency) was another case. More than 90% of them endorsed the statement, but the item 49 in SILL (I ask questions in English) was one of the least frequently used strategies.

In addition, there were some conflicting cases. Nearly 55% of the subjects rejected the statement "You should not say anything in English until you can say it correctly", while more than 72% of them agreed that if beginning students were

permitted to make errors in English without correction, it would be difficult for them to speak correctly later on. In other words, although the students had a desire to practice English, they were afraid of making mistakes, which would hinder their progress.

However, the author also found that as most students think they felt shy when speaking English, affective strategies like relaxation and self-encouragement were frequently used to overcome their shyness.

This situation was in line with the findings of Yang (1992), who also detected the conflicting beliefs and strategy use. A possible explanation might be that, while the students reported holding some positive and helpful language learning beliefs, the awareness about them was not strong enough. On the other hand, when they found the gap existed between their ideal EEL situation and the actual learning situations in their colleges; they would abandon such belief and eventually, these strategies.

V. CONCLUSION, IMPLICATIONS AND LIMITATIONS

A. Conclusion

The present study has identified language learning beliefs and language learning strategies followed by examining the relationships between language beliefs and strategy use for vocational English majors in Jiangxi with the intention to help the English teachers provide their students with useful suggestions of how to become more proficient EFL learners. Total 214 participants randomly selected from four vocational colleges completed two questionnaires booklet composed of language learning belief questionnaire (Liu, 2003) and SILL (Oxford, 1990, EFL/ESL 7.0). Significant findings were presented in the following.

(1) As to the first question, the results of language learning beliefs were encouraging and cautionary. It was encouraging that most students reported holding a variety of beliefs about learning by the Language Learning Belief Questionnaire. From the descriptive analysis in table 4.1, we can see that overall mean of the belief was 3.44, which meant majority of subjects agreed with the statements or at least stayed neutral.

As to the frequency of strategy used by the entire group, the overall strategy use fell within the range of medium use (mean=2.89), which meant the vocational students “sometimes” use the strategies. The rank of the six strategy categories in the SILL according to the frequency of use was compensation (mean=3.17); affective strategies (mean=3.02), metacognitive (mean=2.95), cognitive (mean=2.92) social (mean=2.82) and memory strategies (mean=2.59). However, the order of rank of the six strategy categories was inconsistent with their counterparts in Li (2002), whose result was similar to that of Oxford. Li’s study indicated that the most frequently used strategies are memory strategies, cognitive strategies and metacognitive strategies followed by compensation strategies, and the least frequently used strategies are social and affective strategies.

(2) Correlation Analysis between the language learning belief and the strategy use revealed that LLB was significantly and positively correlated with LLS in general. The moderate correlation coefficient was detected between the LLB and frequency of strategy use. ($r=0.476$, $p<0.01$). The result was primarily in line with other studies (Horwitz, 1987, 1988; Wenden, 1987; Abraham & Vann, 1987; Yang, 1992; Wen and Johnson, 1997). Generally, students who held more positive language learning beliefs were more willing to apply learning strategies, and in turn could acquire better academic performance.

It was also found there was a significant gap between the students’ concept of EFL learning and their actual strategy use and conflicting beliefs among the students.

B. Implications

Displaying and discussing a group of learners’ beliefs about language learning and their strategy use is not an end in themselves. The work would be more meaningful and fruitful only when author examines what the findings suggest for teaching similar groups of students. In this section, some theoretical and pedagogical implications will be explored respectively.

From theoretical view, this study explored the relationship between language learning belief and language strategy. The findings of this research further confirmed the argument that students’ beliefs about language learning may affect their choice of language learning strategy (Yang, 1992; Horwitz, 1988, 1987; Wenden, 1986, 1987) and the importance of metacognitive knowledge to language learning by providing empirical evidence.

From pedagogical view, some practical implication and recommendation will be given for classroom practice.

1. Identifying and Assessing Students’ Language Learning Beliefs and Strategies in the EFL Classroom.
2. Fostering Positive Language Beliefs for Students
3. Conducting Strategy Training Program in Regular Classroom—Strategy Based Instruction (SBI)
4. Implementing Strategies- and Beliefs- Component within the Language Teaching Syllabus

C. Limitations

Despite the informing findings, the present study has some limitations.

The first limitation related to small sample size. It should be pointed out that as this study is based on a sample of 214 students in Jiangxi, the generalizations of the results to other populations may be limited.

The second limitation concerns the methodology in this study. Only quantitative methods were used instead of combination of quantitative and qualitative approaches. Because both quantitative and qualitative methods have their strengths and limitations, both of them are necessary if we are to develop multifaceted insights.

The third one relates to the self-report instruments adopted in this study. As both of LLBQ and SILL are 5-Likert scale questionnaires, it is likely that there is an underlying "regression toward mean" effect in using these two instruments, which might affect their validity. Meanwhile, subjects can only respond to a set of statements and indicate agreement or disagreement by circling an alternative on an answer sheet, as a result, questionnaire can only measure beliefs and strategies in theory and not on actual occasions of talking or writing. There could be some beliefs and strategies used by students were not included in the questionnaire.

On the other hand, the length of the two questionnaires as a whole may have influenced the overall results. The 100-item questionnaires, some students had difficulty and others were tired of filling and choosing the answers.

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Pedagogical Implications to Teaching English Writing

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Abstract—English, as an international language, takes such a position in foreign language teaching and learning in China. As we all know that the ultimate purpose of language teaching is to cultivate students' communicative ability including not only the oral ability, but also the writing ability. However, teaching of English writing is far from satisfactory, and many students still have a great difficulty in writing English composition. They find it hard to express their ideas and feeling freely and fluently, also they make many mistakes in vocabulary and grammar. Even though there are few grammar mistakes in the composition, it still seems more or less odd when read by native speakers. Teachers should make corresponding changes of the emphasis and pedagogy in their teaching and thus provide the most effective way to ease the students in the writing process and motivate them to write. The aim of this paper is to provide pedagogical implications to help the students to improve their English writing competence.

Index Terms—English writing, pedagogical implications, contrastive analysis, vocabulary, correcting

Many Chinese students take it for granted that English writing is just a process of translating from Chinese to English. When the students can't find appropriate strategies for learning to write and they do not know how to express and organize their ideas in English, what they do is just to transfer their familiar Chinese sentence patterns into English sentences. It is harmful to their writing and slow down their writing improvement. The reality is that English writing should be composed in English way. Chinese students are non-native speakers of English and they are entering a new language environment. As Chinese and Chinese thought patterns are deeply rooted in their mind, what the teachers should do is to help their students overcome the language barrier, come close to the target language and use the language as freely as they can. If the students are led to get involved in the new culture and get familiar with the new thinking patterns and attempt to use them frequently in their writing, their writing proficiency can step on a new platform. Some suggestions be of value when considered in the light of the current English writing situation of the Chinese students. They are shown as follows.

I. CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS

No matter what methods teachers use in the classroom, contrastive analysis turns out to be a better way. Since linguistic errors are the result of distinct thinking patterns in Chinese and English languages, the initial problem is to make the students aware of the differences in thinking patterns.

A. Introduction of Contrastive Thinking Patterns in Class

As awareness of differences in the two languages' thinking patterns facilitates the students' utilizing English in English way, teachers should introduce contrastive thinking patterns of Chinese and English in classroom and increase the students' consciousness of English thinking patterns. In the teaching process, teachers should consciously guide the students to discover and compare the differences in thinking habits between these two languages, to help the students accept such differences and to develop a habit to think in English. This will probably help them communicate in accurate and standard English. When their sense of English is stimulated, they can automatically classify the characteristics of English and learn to think in English.

Cultural differences should also be introduced to the students because language can not be separated from culture. In pedagogical process, it is not realistic that the English language forms should be thought highly of, while the pragmatic application of the language is ignored. Students' sense of cultural acquisition should be developed. That is to say, teachers need to introduce the cultural differences between Chinese and English, to increase the contrastive language categories, to explore the different rules developed in different languages and to enable the students to understand the conflicts and discrepancies between the two languages. In this way, negative transfer of native culture would be reduced or avoided in English learning.

B. Introducing Lexical Transfer in Class

Lexical transfer is a major factor that influences English writing. Kellerman comments "there are enormous quantities of evidence for the influence of the L1 on IL when it comes to lexis" (Kellerman, 1987, p.42). Non-English majors' vocabulary input is largely restricted to the classroom. This kind of pedagogy can not introduce a large amount of vocabulary information in a limited time. Therefore, teachers should increasingly explain word meanings from their

grammatical meanings and collocative meanings. (The latter category includes associative meaning, affective meaning, connotative meaning and reflective meaning). This would be quite different from asking students to learn by rooting English words with equivalent Chinese words. Some special words should be explained with corresponding text, and teachers should focus on the words which are easily transferred from the native language.

Malapropism should also be given close attention by teachers because grammatical meaning is very complex in the English language, which includes parts of speech, the inflection of words, the singular and plural, transitive and intransitive verbs, nouns and pronouns, clauses, etc. Those characteristics do not exist in the Chinese language, so Chinese students can not avoid committing errors. Thus, teachers should encourage the students to practice more to remember the different functions of grammatical meanings and collocative meanings.

C. *Introducing Syntactical Transfer in Class*

Teachers should compare the different syntactical structures of the two languages in class and expand the practicing time to strengthen the students' cognitive abilities. When the students' sensibility to syntactical structures is raised, they will be more likely to discover the typical English sentence structures consciously and practice more to make themselves more proficient in writing English sentences logically. As we know, English and Chinese belong to different language families. The syntactic structures are very different from each other. English word order is quite rigid and its sentences are in Tree Type. Subject-predicate structure is strictly obeyed and a predicative verb is the focus of each sentence. Chinese sentences, in contrast, are linear structures. The verb is not the center of the sentence as it is in English. The word order or semantics is the center of the sentence and the sentence is complete only if the word order and semantics are correct. As with the discrepancies mentioned above, teachers should draw the students' attention to recognizing the rigid word order, the explicit connectors, and the accordance with the tense, number, person, etc. Also students should be instructed to notice the forms of negation. Compared to the simple usage of the negators in Chinese, English ones are more complex. They are represented as postverbal and preverbal, which have various forms and different meanings such as partial negation, total negation, double negation and prefix and suffix negation, etc. Students should be taught to avoid using negators in Chinese way.

In addition to teaching these syntactical patterns, time should be arranged for the students to practice by exchanging sentence patterns and conjoining two or more sentences together. When they learn the rules of the syntactical structures, they will be able to use them skillfully in their English writing.

D. *Introducing Contrastive Discourses in Class*

Contrastive discourses in the two languages should be introduced in class to help students become aware of the differences between Chinese and English. Such knowledge will help the students improve their English writing effectively. Direction vs. indirection and deductive vs. inductive are two pairs of discourses in Chinese and English languages. Direction and deductive are two focuses of English discourse. On the contrary, indirection and induction belong to Chinese discourse. In English writing, writers often explicitly state the topics, which are supported by facts. English discourse focuses on logical reasoning and clearly organized ideas. The main idea is explicitly stated as a topic sentence, with support of facts and references. However, Chinese discourse is commonly regarded as indirect and inductive in style. With circular thinking patterns, the students seldom mention the main ideas directly but adduce them progressively. This kind of discourse is understandable in Chinese. However, it is unacceptable to English speakers. Therefore, it is very necessary for students to know the different discourses in the two languages in order to improve their writing proficiency.

II. ACQUIRING VOCABULARY

As justified in the previous chapter, most Chinese EFL learners tend to lay stress on the acquisition of the signified meaning of words. They are also found to refer only to the Chinese equivalents in textbooks or dictionaries. All these have led to literal translations of some words and phrases from Chinese to English on the part of the learners. Therefore, it is high time for those EFL learners to change their way of acquiring English vocabulary.

First, the emphasis of vocabulary acquisition on the part of the teachers and learners should also be placed on a wider range of word meanings instead of merely on the single translation equivalents as given in most textbooks. Most usage of the words in the textbooks implies that words have single meaning. That is, the vocabulary lists in those books usually contain single word translation. On the other hand, a traditional technique to teach vocabulary is to ask students to memorize wordlists. Hence, the words learnt in such a way will hardly form part of the learner's active vocabulary. Even though the learner has memorized the vocabulary, he/she tends to stick to its base meaning, which makes the occurrence of transfer possible.

Then, words should be learnt in a specific context such as in sentence structures, in phrases, or even in comparisons of grammatical features. Gross (1990) have found that among 12,000 simple verbs in French, no two could be used exactly the same in sentences. Recent research in SLA has started to attract learners' attention to not only the acquisition of word meaning but also to how to use the word in sentences. For example, in an investigation of the traditional way of making up sentences with particular words, Greenall (1994) gave students a box containing verbs such as "accept", "drink" and "sit", then he asked them to write sentences about hospitality of their country with the given words. The

students were found to use the words productively in meaningful syntactic contexts. In fact, Greenall's proposal in vocabulary acquisition is what Nida (1975) refers to as the acquisition of "grammatical meaning" of the vocabulary.

Speaking of structural context of vocabulary, one more issue should be highlighted in vocabulary acquisition. That is word collocation. Collocation designates a specific semantic relationship between words that co-occurs in phrases or sentences. Most cases of lexical transfer in the Chinese EFL writing are concerned with collocation errors of phrases, such as do an honest man, go know the world, and so on. Therefore, special attention should be paid to the collocation differences between the two languages in order to reduce the occurrence of transfer phenomena.

III. ENCOURAGING THE STUDENTS TO READ AND WRITE

According to Krashen's Input Hypothesis (Krashen, 1985), when given new language material, learners will try to understand it actively with the help of their knowledge, and in this way, the input will become "comprehensible input" and be acquired by the learners. Therefore, input is the essential approach in language learning. There are two ways of input: reading and listening. So teachers should pay more attention to train the learners' ability in reading and listening, and lead them to read and listen conscientiously. To the students of non-English majors, different input material should be given according to their different interest so as to meet their different needs.

For Chinese non-English majors, their language environment is rather poor. Therefore, reading widely is one of the best ways to acquire standard English. Teachers should encourage their students to be exposed to authentic English so that the students could have the established native linguistic expressions to imitate in their writing. At the same time, teachers should help the students summarize the typical sentence patterns used by native English speakers. Only through this way can students master the patterns. And only by mastering these patterns can they avoid the appearance of Chinglish expressions in their English writing. As long as the students try to read extensively and make adequate summaries, they can produce more native-like English passages.

The teacher can carefully design some in-class or after-class reading exercises in their English class. Before reading, the teacher should guide the students to learn how to use the vocabulary with the same meaning or how to use different words in different styles. However, when the composition is assigned after class, the students should be encouraged to use dictionaries to deal with the items that they are not sure about. In addition, teachers should encourage the students to imitate the linguistic expressions of the foreign language. And imitation is based on wide reading. Teachers should provide the students with more authentic English materials, and encourage them to be exposed to authentic English widely outside the classroom so that the students could have the established native linguistic expressions to imitate in their writing and use less avoidance strategy.

The development of students' English writing skill should be treated as the same important as that of other three language skills, that is, the skill of listening, speaking and reading. Teachers should offer students opportunities for sufficient amount of writing practice with the purposes varying from basic functional sentence patterns to various styles of text such as narration, argumentation, exposition and description essays. Firstly, allow more time in the unit for writing practice rather than spend most of the time in analyzing small segments of language, hence, increasing students' motivation to learn and to write. Secondly, provide written text models, especially model essays written by native speakers which reflect real-world language or situations, thus increasing students' authentic intake.

IV. CORRECTING OF THE WRITING

Teacher correction should be done with different strategies according to the English level of the students. Corder (1967) identified errors of language learners as three stages: presystematic, systematic and postsystematic. At the presystematic stage, the learner is unaware of the existence of a particular rule in the target language and his use of the target language is through random guessing. He is neither able to correct his errors nor to explain them. At the systematic stage, the learner has discovered some rules of the system of the target language, but is inconsistent in applying these rules or has wrongly applied these rules. He usually cannot correct his errors although he can explain why he makes them. At the postsystematic stage, the learner is quite consistent in his use of the target language. When he makes an error, he can both correct it and explain why it is incorrect. Though errors still exist at this stage, the occurrence of errors becomes infrequent. This almost coincides with Chinese students' three levels in learning English. Therefore, the author believes that different correction strategies should be used according to the varied English levels of students. For the students who are rather poor in English, or considered in their presystematic stage, teachers should clearly point out where the errors are and explain these errors directly to them. For the students who are in intermediate level, or considered in their systematic stage, teachers could only point out where the errors are, and then ask the students to explain their errors themselves. For those advanced learners who are in their postsystematic stage, teachers only need to put a mark on the paragraph where there are errors. By this way, students may gradually be conscious of the errors they frequently make and not commit such errors any more.

V. USING DICTIONARY

One point is clear that the students are required to learn to look up words in dictionary to make up for the shortcoming of the textbook and class teaching. No matter how carefully the textbook is chosen, it can cover only

limited knowledge, and class time is also limited for solving problems. In order to cultivate students' capability in solving problems independently, looking up words in dictionary is a rather efficient way. It is also worth mentioning here that when and which word needs looking up and this point needs guidance from teachers. Almost every one of the non-English majors has a dictionary at hand. Teachers should put forward some suggestions: firstly, try not to use the dictionary with only Chinese translation in it; secondly, use English-Chinese dictionary instead and then transfer to the English-English dictionary; thirdly, the dictionary should bear a certain number of sentence examples.

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Storytelling and Communal Singing: Effective Forms of Appropriation to Destabilize White Supremacy

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Abstract—Community features importantly both in the assertion of Afro-Americans' selfhood and the rehabilitation of their culture once lost in slavery. Toni Morrison believes that appropriation in the form of community storytelling and communal singing within black community is an effective instrument to destabilize white supremacy. This paper examines how community storytelling and communal singing works in Morrison's novel *Beloved* to rebuild African Americans' communal solidarity and start a discursive practice of cultural reconstruction.

Index Terms—appropriation, storytelling, communal singing, communal solidarity, cultural reconstruction

I. APPROPRIATION, AN EFFECTIVE INSTRUMENT TO DESTABILIZE WHITE SUPREMACY

The black community always plays an important role in the formation of Afro-Americans' selfhood. In Toni Morrison's *Beloved*, it is with help of the community that Sethe finally regains her sense of humanity and is able to start a new life. It is also within the black community that both Stamp Paid and Paul D have their humanity and subjectivity recognized. Sixo gets his humanity asserted but he fails to survive largely because he lets his selfhood rest upon the capriciousness of slave catchers and chooses to remain in isolation from the black community. Morrison seems to say that black Americans, in their refutation of the colonial discourse of slavery, should regard black community as a source for support and comfort.

Then, how can the Afro-American community rebuild their communal solidarity that is so important to their survival in the face of colonialism? To this question, Morrison answers by highlighting the importance and functions of individual figures in the community. Much, according to Morrison, depends on their ability to bring people together through discursive appropriation.

"Once upon a time there was an old woman. Blind. Wise. Or was it an old man? One day the woman is visited by some young people who seem to be bent on disproving her clairvoyance and...[I] have heard this story, or one exactly like it, in the lore of several cultures. In the version I know the woman is the daughter of slaves, black, American, and lives alone in a small house outside town." (Morrison, 1993) Thus begins Morrison's "Nobel Lecture". Morrison describes a scene in which the old woman is questioned by some young people from the city about how is the bird one of them claims to hold. To Morrison herself, the bird is language and storytelling, communal telling in particular, is a most convenient form for cultural production and preservation; and by conceiving an old blind black woman capable of magic being challenged by the young generation, possibly white Americans, Morrison argues a case about how black traditions shape and are reshaped by cultural realities.

Instead of expounding on how she has gained such prominence as a black American woman writer, Morrison's "Nobel Lecture" campaigns for the black presence within American cultural life and offers a blueprint for the reconstruction of Afro-American culture. Laying a special emphasis on the status of black women, Morrison (1993) maintains that the black woman as both life nurturer and culture producer has for too long been neglected by the dominant white American culture. Just like the young men "bent on disapproving her clairvoyance and showing her up for the fraud they believe she is" (Morrison, 1993), the dominant white American society has for too long relegated the black women to a position of invisibility.

By making a felicitous response to the young people's inquiry, Morrison believes, the old woman "shifts attention away from assertion of power to the instrument, i.e. the bird, through which that power is exercised", and confronts the young people with their responsibility. Morrison makes it clear that black invisibility is merely a "white figment" and white responsibility. She calls for the Afro-Americans to appropriate the "instrument" through which white supremacy is maintained.

The "instrument", Morrison explicitly points out, is the "oppressive language" ruthlessly engaged in its policing duties: "it has no desire or purpose other than maintaining the free range of its own narcotic narcissism, its own exclusivity and dominance" (Morrison, 1993). It is "a malign language of law-without-ethics, or language designed for the estrangement of minorities, hiding its racist plunder in its literary cheek." (Morrison, 1993) It must be rejected,

altered and exposed because it permits no “new knowledge” or encourages no “mutual exchange of ideas”. Morrison calls for the abandonment of racist and sexist use of language, and she looks to the agency promised of language that secures the Afro-American difference—“the way in which we are like no other life.”(Morrison, 1993)

Appropriation is the key word in Toni Morrison’s blueprint for African American cultural rehabilitation. Morrison argues that being able to choose is the prerequisite for cultural reconstruction because it is in the process of choosing words—picking up some words while discarding others—that a story is formulated and reformulated, heard and re-heard, with left-out spaces being filled and refilled with each telling among community members, white and black alike (Morrison, 1986, p.341). Being able to choose means that each of the individuals involved in the communal storytelling is a subject in the word-work (i.e. language user) instead of being subject of the word-work (i.e. object of language description), and that the narratives contrived in the telling will no longer prove incomprehensible among the community because it no longer “subscribed to dominant ideologies” (Schur, 2000, p. 456).

II. STORYTELLING

All the members in the black community in *Beloved* try very hard to reconstruct their own culture. In the novel, Morrison portrays the black women as the generating source and foundation for Afro-American cultural rehabilitation. Morrison believes that Afro-American cultural rejuvenation relies to a large extent on the rebuilding of communal solidarity. And to bring the black community together requires the efforts of strong willed men and women. In *Beloved*, Sethe is portrayed as one such figure. In the novel she is presented as a mother that fits well into the image Barber Hill Rigney (1991) has pictured for African American “Great Mother” (Rigney, 1991, p.70). She nurtures a big family and is trying by every means to protect the integrity of the household of 124. But her greatness lies more in the fact “she reverses history, and resurrects that daughter she has killed” by appropriating the language of the colonizers (Rigney, 1991, p.70). Like the old woman in Morrison’s “Nobel Lecture”, Sethe is also challenged by several young people, one of whom is holding a bird. These young people include Denver, Beloved, Paul D and all other community members who have suffered less as compared to Sethe. The “bird” as instrument used by the “young people” to assert their sanity and humanity is the official history carried in the news clipping Stamp Paid has preserved. Though both Sethe and the old woman are engaged in the job of word-working and storytelling with the young people of their communities respectively, Sethe brings forth yet a communal awareness of the history of slavery that Morrison has left out in her “Nobel Lecture” but that proves of great importance for solidarity of the black community.

Sethe is aware that the “bird” in the form of news will have no life if it is left at the mercy of the challengers. It is because the language used in presenting the infanticide scene is sexist language and racist language that cuts out the black Americans’ true experiences under slavery. As Paul D has noted, black Americans will not become the characters of news story until they have done something that can amuse white Americans. Therefore, much of the history about slavery is missing from American culture and the few documents available will necessarily present black Americans as racial others for the amusement of white Americans. For this reason, Paul D finds that the face in the news clipping is not Sethe’s face (Morrison, 1987, p.155). On the other hand, the news clipping also deprives its protagonist both of her humanity and of her love for her killed daughter. Because of this, the history of slavery as a source for black cultural reconstruction must be revised. Just as Ashraf H. A. Rushdy (2001) argues, “the history of slavery is only a family secret that needs to be revised in order to be revered”(Rushdy, 2001, p. 2).

In *Beloved*, the historical rewriting takes the form of community storytelling. It is intended by Sethe to prove her ability both to love and to reason as a subject, and consequently disrupts the legitimacy of news-clipping story. Prior to Beloved’s arrival at 124, Sethe tries to beat back the part of her memory that is too painful to remember. The only part of memory she would like to talk about is the part that concerns Denver because the only listener present at 124 is Denver. Although Denver is aware of Sethe’s “cruelty” of killing her sister, she is pleased with the part of story about how Amy helped her mother on her way to Cincinnati and wants to know more about it. The asking and answering of questions concerning that past scene, together with Denver’s telling of it later to Beloved helps confirm Sethe’s selfhood as a loving mother and Denver’s status as a loving daughter. More importantly, by referring to Denver in her stomach as antelope, Sethe is able to connect her body with the antelope dancing in traditional African culture. Sethe gives life to the news-clipping story by restaging the danger of being caught for her color and the hardship she has encountered on her way to freedom. Consequently, the family secret is revealed in the process of telling.

However, if we take into consideration the fact that Denver, as well as Sethe’s other children, is only part of Sethe’s body, the family-scale storytelling between Sethe and Denver constitutes no communal storytelling in the real sense. Rather, it is a monologue that leaves much of the historical incidents yearning for representation. Like the news-clipping story, the story constituted by Sethe and Denver lacks the vigor that the woman in Morrison’s “Nobel Lecture” is seeking after.

It is imperative then for Sethe to seek trustworthy listeners and storytellers from outside to move her telling and retelling of past a little further. So when Paul D, the last of Sweet Home man shows up at the porch of 124, Sethe invites him at once to stay with her. Paul D’s touch of Sethe’s tree-shaped back in the kitchen, together with his gentle caresses of her breasts, brings back to Sethe’s memory the scene of being milked by the two nephews and being whipped for telling on them. Their sex upstairs makes them both remember how she and Halle have joined in the corn field, the consequent feast of ears of new corn damaged during the filed love-making, the wedding dress Sethe sewed “on the

sly”(Morrison, 1987, p.11), the meeting between Sixo and the Thirty-Mile woman, etc. Life at the Sweet Home rolls out scene by scene as a result of the “communal telling” through sex between Paul D and Sethe. (Morrison, 1987, pp.11-25) It leads to the happy union of Paul D, Sethe and Denver at the “carnival festival”(Morrison, 1987, pp.18-19). More hopeful is the fact that the community is on the verge of withdrawing their punishment of Sethe for her infanticide because some of its members wave back to them when Paul D addresses them (Morrison, 1987, p.47).

Yet, the happy reunion achieved is soon consumed by the absence of Beloved. (Rushdy, 1998, pp.140-153) By driving away the baby ghost and chastising Sethe for over-protecting Denver (Morrison, 1987, p.45), Paul D rejects an essential part of Sethe’s history under slavery and the freedom promised by the telling (Keizer, 1999; Morrison, 1993). Cultural rehabilitation based on such an absence is both unstable and incomplete. The “bird”, if it were to live on, calls for a renewed telling to rid Sethe and Paul D’s stories of their dullness and staleness.

In response to “Sethe’s call” for new knowledge and real “grace” (Morrison, 1987, p.88), Beloved makes its appearance on the stump outside 124 the very day when Paul D, Sethe, and Denver go to the carnival, an occasion “when white folks make a spectacle of themselves (Morrison, 1987, p.48)” for the amusement of an all-black audience, which, Susan Corey (2000) believes, also constitutes “a prelude to the arrival of Beloved”(Corey, 2000, p.38). At the sight of Beloved, Sethe feels her bladder suddenly filled to its capacity and runs away to void endlessly just like the moment when Denver was born. An association with past makes Sethe believe that Beloved’s magic appearance, together with her flood water, constitutes “another freak” that might be accepted by the carnival (Morrison, 1987, p.51). In other words, Sethe sees Beloved as a grotesque figure that will help her storytelling community temporarily “dethrone the ideal of white supremacy” and achieve for the moment a sense of subjectivity and identity (Corey, 2000, p.38).

As it turns out, Beloved lingers on at 124 and develops a strong taste for Sethe’s past that is almost insatiable. She chews what Denver tells her about how Amy has helped Sethe with her birth, and asks for more. She develops a “peculiar devotion” to Sethe and draws Sethe to tell her first about her earrings then about her mother (Morrison, 1987, p.57). To Sethe’s surprise, she can tell Beloved practically everything, even what she would previously be unwilling to tell or what she would deliberately choose to forget when asked by Denver. Although “every mention of past hurts”, Sethe finds it an “unexpected pleasure” to talk about past in Beloved’s presence, and as a result her broken self is gradually pieced together with each telling of the fragments of her past (Morrison, 1987, p.58).

With Beloved, Sethe and Denver construct a new community of storytelling. In spite of the fact that Sethe would later regard Beloved as her killed daughter reincarnated and consequently her dearest part not to be separated from her, the newly formed storytelling community extends beyond the family unit. On the one hand, Sethe tries to reason with Beloved apologetically that it was out of love that she killed her (Morrison, 1987, p.164), while Beloved mercilessly scolds Sethe for jumping into the sea and leaving her alone to suffer (Morrison, 1987, pp.214-217). In order to keep Beloved, Denver tries to tell everything she has heard, and Beloved in turn tells her that she comes out of water from under the bridge where dead men and women are packed together over her, and a man without skin calls her “Beloved” at night and bitch during the day. Here, Beloved is both the physical embodiment of Sethe’s murdered daughter, and those thousands who died during the Middle Passage (Corey, 2000, p. 37).

Beloved’s magic appearance results in a storytelling community that comprises all the members of the community living around 124 Blue Stone. On the one hand, Paul D is led to the “ocean-deep place he had once belonged to” (Morrison, 1987:264). The roaring voices conjured up by Beloved have compelled Stamp Paid to ponder over the fate of all those “black and angry dead” with their “undecipherable language” (Morrison, 1987, p.181, p.198). On the other hand, Beloved as a ghost taking bodily form spurs Ella and other community women into communal singing, a cultural tradition that “transcends the coherence of language” and “escape representation”(Conner, 2000, p.69). Under the spell of such singing, the official history is broken and Beloved disappears.

The communal awareness Sethe has nurtured in the process of appropriating the white language to revise the official record of the incident of infanticide has great significance to the cultural renewal for the black community living in post-bellum America. It challenges not only the starkness of official history, but also the culturally annihilating and economically exploiting policies implemented by the dominant white culture. With the past fully confronted and “family secret” completely revised, Sethe is able to lay her past down to aspire for a better future within the black community.

III. COMMUNAL SINGING

Baby Suggs is another figure who is actively involved in the renewal of Afro-American culture through building communal solidarity among the black people. After her arrival at Cincinnati, She becomes “an unchurched preacher, one who visits pulpits and opens her great heart to those who use it” (Morrison, 1987, p.87). She starts a cultural practice that sets out to free the whole black community, flesh and soul. Followed by every black man, woman and child who could make it through, Baby Suggs takes her great heart to the Clearing, where she leads the community to laugh, dance, cry, and sing, which liberates as a result every part of their body despised under slavery. As Sethe would later notice, the singing in the Clearing breaks “the back of the words” and returns her to the pre-linguistic era when there were only sounds that would prove undecipherable to her. It is the same sounds that Paul D finds difficult to pin down in Sixo’s song. They point to African language(s) and culture(s) lost in the process of enslavement. They are both heart

soothing and identity generating. (Morrison, 1987, p.222) And the scene of singing and dancing in the woods celebrates the spiritual values cherished in West African culture (Holloway and Demetrakopoulos, 1987, Rigney, 1991). Viewed thus, Baby Suggs is a cultural mother bent on leading the freed black community of 124 Blue Stone Street to live a new cultural life based on their African cultural traditions.

In spite of her failure to prevent the persecution inflicted on her granddaughter either by the covetous Schoolteacher or by her helpless but love-driven daughter-in-law Sethe, Baby Suggs also re-enacts the image of African "Great Mother". In *Beloved*, Baby Suggs is represented as a woman of extraordinary power capable of feeding the whole community by drawing solely on her own source. She is able to love and, in turn, commands the love of the whole community through her ritualistic preaching. Therefore, she is "the giver of both life and wisdom", and "the creative potential and the sacred aspect of nature itself" (Rigney, 1991, pp.68-69). For the black community in *Beloved*, Baby Suggs is a cultural ancestor that embodies the remnant values taken from West African culture.

Baby Suggs has the power both to create a new culture on the new land and to guide the cultural reconstruction for younger generations. Her body-celebrating preaching is a cultural practice that, to borrow Homi Bhabha (1994) words, "hybridizes West African traditional cultural values and Euro-American capitalist colonizing cultural values" (Bhabha, 1994, pp.1-18). She cherishes her traditional regard for her Afro-American community, but she has also unconsciously internalized the Emersonian liberalism about self-reliance. Her preaching in the Clearing is a combination of West African spiritual beliefs and European American Christian doctrines (Ochoa, 1999). In spite of the danger of being assimilated by the dominant white American culture, Baby Suggs' cultural maneuvers nurture a hope for a new culture that renews her traditional culture.

Baby Suggs' preaching shares the same characteristics and has the same effects with Sethe's linguistic appropriation. However, Morrison seems to tell us that black Americans should not only learn to appropriate the language that constitutes an essential part of the white supremacist culture but also other elements of white cultural traditions in their attempt to mobilize the majority of black people and create a distinct black American culture.

IV. CONCLUSION

Whether it is Baby Suggs' preaching or Sethe's storytelling, we find that both of them take African traditions as a source for of inspiration. Both of them, however, aim for a departure from that tradition. Though not African by birth, Baby Suggs creates within the black community her own syncretic folk religious practice, based on both West African and Christian spiritual traditions. Her preaching internalizes certain Euro-American values by acting out as an economically successful Great Mother. Sethe's storytelling, too, bases itself on the traditional way of communicating and preserving knowledge within African communities. Yet, it is telling a new land experience and it is dominated by *Beloved* as an embodiment of African American experience of slavery. Therefore, while both have taken the "interrelationship between ancestors and the community as their philosophical underpinning"(Wardi, 2002), both have been influenced by the American experience of slavery.

The magic power of healing and regeneration promised by both strategies makes both Baby Suggs and Sethe extraordinary figures bent on dethroning the white authority and supremacy established by the dominant discourses (Corey, 2002; Keizer, 1999). The only difference lies between their strategies is the difference in the means each of them has chosen. To put it more specifically, Baby Suggs resorts to dancing and singing as an avenue to articulate her cultural concern whereas Sethe appeals to community storytelling as her means of cultural reconstruction.

By representing Baby Suggs as a figure being worn down by whiteness and black indifference after the infanticide, and Sethe a figure hopeful of recovery, Morrison seems to favor storytelling over music and dancing as means of cultural reconstruction. In 1984, Morrison (1984) expresses a similar idea in "Rootedness: Ancestor as Foundation": "For a long time, the art form that was healing for black people was music. That music is no longer exclusively ours. So another form has to take that place, and it seems to me that the novel is needed by African-Americans now in a way that it was not needed before."(Morrison, 1986, p.340) Taking this into consideration, black Americans should not, according to Morrison, rely solely on music for devices of cultural reconstruction. Rather, they should rely more on telling stories that are essentially black American. Afro-American storytelling, though rewriting white colonial history, has the strength of bringing people together to form a communal solidarity that is so essential to black American cultural rehabilitation. But, of course, music and dance will remain important to many black Americans, because, according to Morrison, what makes black American literature distinctively black is the presence of ancestor. Therefore, so long as music/dance connects with ancestry, it will play a similar role as storytelling while Afro-Americans strive for their cultural rehabilitation.

It must be noted here that both communal singing and storytelling point to languages that are neither sexist nor racist languages because they are generative of meaning and life for Afro-Americans. It is in this sense that communal singing and storytelling practiced by the black community border on the word-work the old woman in Morrison's "Nobel Lecture" generates. They are filled with languages invented in the new land and they join in the Afro-American cultural reconstruction the moment they are created.

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The Role of Context in Discourse Analysis

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Abstract—Discourse analysis involves many aspects, such as adjacency pairs, coherence, cohesion, and so on, among which context plays an important role. This paper intends to explore the role of context in discourse analysis on the basis of introducing different definitions and classifications of context.

Index Terms—discourse analysis, context, social environment

I. INTRODUCTION

The study of context has been gaining popularity in recent years, either in linguistics itself or in many other interdisciplinary subjects such as semantics, pragmatics, and discourse analysis as well. However, context theories are not formed overnight. They involve a long process of development, during which comparative linguistics, structural linguistics and transformational-generative linguistics all contributed to the theoretical foundations of context theories.

When we introduce context theories to the field of discourse analysis, we must take into consideration not only the discourse itself, but also the context in which the discourse takes place. Just like what Fillmore (1977, P, 119) said, “The task is to determine what we can know about the meaning and context of an utterance given only the knowledge that the utterance has occurred ... I find that whenever I notice some sentence in context, I immediately find myself asking what the effect would have been if the context had been slightly different.” (Gillian Brown & George Yule, 2000, p.35)

II. DEFINITIONS OF CONTEXT

Different linguists seek to define context from different point of view in order to answer questions encountered in their own fields, and to support their own ideas and theories.

H. G. Widdowson, when focusing his study on language meaning, thought “context” as “those aspects of the circumstance of actual language use which are taken as relevant to meaning.” He further pointed out, “in other words, context is a schematic construct... the achievement of pragmatic meaning is a matter of matching up the linguistic elements of the code with the schematic elements of the context.” (H.G. Widdowson, 2000, p.126)

When Guy Cook was studying the relationship between discourse and literature, he took “context” into consideration as well. In his definition, context is just a form of knowledge the world and “the term ‘context’ can be used in a broad and narrow sense. In the narrow sense, it refers to (knowledge of) factors outside the text under consideration. In the broad sense, it refers to (knowledge of) these factors and to (knowledge of) other parts of the text under consideration, sometimes referred to as ‘co-text’.” (Guy Cook, 1999, p. 24)

When studying reference and inference, George Yule also took “context” into account. He provided us with a somewhat general definition, “Context is the physical environment in which a word is used.” (George Yule, 2000, 128)

Although they are viewed from different perspectives for different purposes, these definitions have an important point in common: one main point of the context is the environment (circumstances or factors by some other scholars) in which a discourse occurs.

III. CLASSIFICATIONS OF CONTEXT

Opinions on how to classify context vary from one to another. Some linguists divide context into two groups, while some insist on discussing context from three, four, or even six dimensions. According to different circumstances mentioned in the above definitions, I would like to divide context into linguistic context, situational context and cultural context.

A. Linguistic Context

Linguistic context refers to the context within the discourse, that is, the relationship between the words, phrases, sentences and even paragraphs. Take the word “bachelor” as an example. We can’t understand the exact meaning of the sentence “He is a bachelor.” without the linguistic context to make clear the exact meaning of this word.

Linguistic context can be explored from three aspects: deictic, co-text, and collocation.

In a language event, the participants must know where they are in space and time, and these features relate directly to the deictic context, by which we refer to the deictic expressions like the time expressions now, then, etc., the spatial expressions here, there, etc., and the person expressions I, you, etc... Deictic expressions help to establish deictic roles which derive from the fact that in normal language behavior the speaker addresses his utterance to another person and

may refer to himself, to a certain place, or to a time.

In recent years, some linguists began to pay attention to the previous discourse co-ordinate. Levis introduces this co-ordinate to take account of the aforementioned sentences. It is the case that any sentence other than the first in a fragment of discourse, will have the whole of its interpretation forcibly constrained by the preceding text, not just those phrases which obviously and specifically refer to the preceding text. The interpretations of the words which occur in discourse are constrained by, following Halliday, their co-text.

In 1934, Porzig argued for the recognition of the importance of syntagmatic relations, between, e.g., bite and teeth, bark and dog, blond and hair, which Firth called collocation. Collocation is not simply a matter of association of ideas. Although milk is white, we should not often say white milk, while the expression white paint is common enough.

B. *Situational Context*

Situational context, or context of situation, refers to the environment, time and place, etc. in which the discourse occurs, and also the relationship between the participants. This theory is traditionally approached through the concept of register, which helps to clarify the interrelationship of language with context by handling it under three basic headings: field, tenor, and mode.

Field of discourse refers to the ongoing activity. We may say field is the linguistic reflection of the purposive role of language user in the situation in which a text has occurred. Tenor refers to the kind of social relationship enacted in or by the discourse. The notion of tenor, therefore, highlights the way in which linguistic choices are affected not just by the topic or subject of communication but also by the kind of social relationship within which communication is taking place. Mode is the linguistic reflection of the relationship the language user has to medium of transmission. The principal distinction within mode is between those channels of communication that entail immediate contact and those that allow for deferred contact between participants.

C. *Cultural Context*

Cultural context refers to the culture, customs and background of epoch in language communities in which the speakers participate. Language is a social phenomenon, and it is closely tied up with the social structure and value system of society. Therefore, language can not avoid being influenced by all these factors like social role, social status, sex and age, etc.

Social roles are culture-specific functions, institutionalized in a society and recognized by its members. By social status, we mean the relative social standing of the participants. Each participant in the language event must know, or make assumptions about his or her status in relation to the other, and in many situations, status will also be an important factor in the determination of who should initiate the conversation. Sex and age are often determinants of, or interact with, social status. The terms of address employed by a person of one sex speaking to an older person, may differ from those which would be employed in otherwise similar situations by people of the same sex or of the same age.

IV. THE ROLE OF CONTEXT

As we can see, context plays a very important role in discourse analysis. Let's try to generalize its role as follows.

A. *Eliminating Ambiguity*

Ambiguity refers to a word, phrase, sentence or group of sentences with more than one possible interpretation or meaning. There are two kinds of ambiguities: lexical ambiguity and structural ambiguity. Lexical ambiguity is mostly caused by homonymy and polysemy. For example, these four words, right, rite, write and wright, are all pronounced as [rait], but they are quite different from each other. Let's also have a look at the following sentence:

They passed the port at midnight.

This sentence is lexically ambiguous. However, it would normally be clear in a given context which can indicate the meaning of the word "port", meaning either harbor or a kind of fortified wine.

Structural ambiguity arises from the grammatical analysis of a sentence or a phrase. For example, the phrase young men and women can be analyzed as either "young /men and women/" (i.e. both are young) or "/young men/ and women" (i.e. only the men are young). Let us also examine the following sentence:

I like Bill more than Mary.

This sentence can mean "I like Bill more than Mary does." or "I like Bill more than I like Mary." In such examples, a given context can indicate what the sentence exactly means.

B. *Indicating Referents*

To avoid repetition, we usually use such words like I, you, he, this, that, etc. to replace some noun phrases, or words like do, can, should, etc. to replace verb phrases, or then, there, etc. to replace adverbial phrase of time and place. Therefore, context is of great importance in understanding the referents of such words. The following dialogue is written by the well-known linguist, Firth:

-- Do you think he will?

-- I don't know. He might.

-- I suppose he ought to, but perhaps he feels he can't.

-- Well, his brothers have. They perhaps think he needn't.

-- Perhaps eventually he will. I think he should, and I very much hope he will. (Zhang Yunfei, 2000, p.245)

Without context, we can hardly guess what the speakers are talking about since there are too many auxiliary verbs and modal verbs such as will, might, have, can't, etc. used in the dialogue. In fact, these auxiliary and modal verbs replace the verb phrase, "join the army". From this typical example, we can see the important role of context.

C. Detecting Conversational Implicature

The term conversational implicature is used by Grice to account for what a speaker can imply, suggest, or mean, as distinct from what the speaker literally says and it is deduced on the basis of the conversational meaning of words together with the context, under the guidance of the Cooperative Principle and its four maxims, i.e., Quantity, Quality, Relation and Manner.

Grice also found that when people communicate with each other, they do not always adhere to the four maxims. The violation of a maxim may result in the speaker conveying, in addition to the literal meaning of his utterance, an additional meaning, which is conversational implicature. Let us look at the following example:

(The husband has just finished supper and wanted to watch TV, leaving his wife alone to clear the table and wash dishes.)

Wife: Shouldn't you help me do some housework?

Husband: I have worked for nine hours.

Superficially, the husband's answer has nothing to do with the wife's question. He violates the maxim of relevance. Actually, we must assume that the husband is adhering to the Cooperative Principle and means something more than the literal meaning. The additional meaning, namely, conversational implicature, is that he has worked for a whole day, so he is too tired to help his wife to do any housework.

Once the analysis of intended meaning goes beyond the literal meaning of an utterance, a vast number of issues have to be considered. In discourse analysis, conversational implicature is pragmatic and is partially derived from the conversational or literal meaning of an utterance, produced in a specific context, which is shared by the speaker and the hearer, and depends on their recognition of the Cooperative Principle and its maxims. Now let us see another example.

(The boss of a restaurant gives two pennies to a temporary worker who does washing for him.)

Boss: Here is your pay, boy!

Worker: I have worked for nine hours.

In this conversational fragment, we can find that the second utterance is the same as the previous example, namely, they have the same literal meaning. Besides, they both seem to be irrelevant to the utterance of the first speaker and we can also assume that the maxim of relevance is deliberately violated. Then can we conclude that the two utterances have the same conversational implicature? No. It is unreasonable for the worker to tell his boss that he is too tired to work for him, when his boss gives him the pay that does not match his nine-hour hard work. The real conversational implicature of his utterance is that the boss should have given him more pay since he had worked such a long time. We must pay attention to the changed context: the relationship of two speakers has changed from wife-husband to boss-worker; the status has changed from equal to superior-inferior; and the pre-linguistic context has changed from words for a request of doing housework to that for an action of giving pay. The conversational implicature is changed as the context changes. The perception of a conversational implicature can not let aside the specific context where the discourse occurs.

V. CONCLUSION

We have talked about the definition, classification, and role of context in discourse analysis from different aspects. However, it is certain that the list can go on as further study deepens. In a word, context plays a very important role in discourse analysis. A discourse and its context are in close relationship: the discourse elaborates its context and the context helps interpret the meaning of utterances in the discourse. The knowledge of context is a premise of the analysis of a discourse. When we study and analyze a discourse, we should bear in mind that no context, no discourse and we should not neglect the related context of a discourse.

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Application of Functional Equivalence Theory in English Translation of Chinese Idioms

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Abstract—Eugene A. Nida's theory of functional equivalence has been highly valued and has influenced the practice of translation in general. It can be applied as a guiding criterion in Chinese idiom translation. This paper attempts to apply the functional equivalence theory to the English translation of Chinese idioms so as to overcome the difficulties encountered by translation practitioners. After the study on literal, free translation and other feasible translating methods, the author believes that it is only the equivalence in both meaning and function that the essence of Chinese idiom translation counts on. In other words, after reading the translation, the target language readers should react the same as the source language readers do to the biggest degree.

Index Terms—Chinese idiom, functional equivalence, translation methods

I. INTRODUCTION

Idioms are usually vivid and forceful. They have been described as the crystallization of language. Without idioms our language would become dull and dry. For one thing, most idioms contain an extremely profound and rich meaning. For another, most idioms carry a vivid image. Idioms mirror the national characteristics in a language and thus always rich in cultural connotation and national flavor. All this is true of Chinese idioms. What is idiom indeed? According to Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English (2003, p.741), idiom is defined as "a phrase which means something different from the meanings of the separate words; the way of statement typical of a person or a people in their use of language." But in 《辞海》(Cihai, 1999, p.117), a Chinese dictionary, idiom is defined as set phrases or sentences, whose structure is often established and can not be easily changed, including set phrase, proverb, maxim, Chinese common saying, and a two-part allegorical saying (语言中定型的词组或句子。使用时一般不能任意改变其组织。包括成语, 谚语, 格言, 惯用语, 歇后语等).

In a word, idioms are set phrases and sentences. They are peculiar not only in their grammatical constructions and established collocations, but also in their specific meanings. When used, their structures and meanings can't be changed at random. Idioms in this study can be roughly divided into set phrases, common sayings, proverbs, two-part allegorical sayings. Set phrases are generally composed of four Chinese characters. A small number of set phrases in Chinese consist of more or less than four characters; but they are so few that people would regard set phrases as four-character phrases. "能者多劳(An able man has more work)" and "空中楼阁(a pavilion in the air)" are two of the examples. Chinese common sayings are widely used in the colloquial language. Compared with set phrases, they are looser in syntax and there is no set number of characters. A typical example is "巧妇难为无米之炊(Even the cleverest housewife can't cook a meal without rice)". A proverb is a traditional or a popular short saying, with the purpose of advice or warning. Some proverbs are open statements, whose meaning is straight-forward; but most proverbs are metaphorical. Quite often it is both informative and instructive. For instance, "少壮不努力, 老大徒悲伤(If a man doesn't work hard when young, he will be sorry for it when old.)" A two-part allegorical saying consists of two phrases, with the first being a simple and concrete analogy, and the second an abstract interpretation. For instance, "八仙过海--各显神通(The Eight Immortals soaring over the ocean, each of them showing their true talent)".

The English translation of Chinese idioms remains as a hard nut to crack for translators since the way a language chooses to express meaning or concepts may only to a certain degree match the meaning in the other language. Chinese idioms reflect the ancient civilization and modern achievements of China. To translate Chinese idioms is not only a good choice to introduce the Chinese culture to the world but also a good help to further the communication between China and the world. With the purpose of finding an effective theory to guide the translation of Chinese idioms, the paper does an analysis of some examples. This will be carried out from a functional equivalence perspective.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

In this part, the author will first review previous studies on the English translation of Chinese idioms, and then

identify some problems in the translation practice.

A. *Previous Studies on the English Translation of Chinese Idioms*

The English translation of Chinese idioms is an old topic in translation studies. There are many relevant researches. In his works entitled *Studies of Chinese Idiom Translation*, Zhang Peiji(1979) proposed a lot of practical methods to solve the problems in translating Chinese idiom into English. Chen Wenbo(2005) explored how to interpret English idioms correctly and translate Chinese idioms into English appropriately as well. Many reserchers (Li Lu,2000; Lv Shiyuan,2003; Li Yunxia, 2003; Shi Yanfang,2004; Ou Jin,2006; Chen Shujiao,Wu Huizhong,2007; Ren Li,Yan Jinbo,2009; Chen Nan,2009) summarized the methods and techniques to translate Chinese idioms on the basis of a great number of specific examples. Xie Xiaolan(2006) argued that translation should reflect cultural and ethnic characteristics of the source language. Zong Zhaorong(2006) analyzed the thinking patterns in Chinese idioms and further put forward the four corresponding translating strategies. Based on the different images idioms arise in the readers' minds, and the various ways translators employ in their translated works, Du Juan & Lu Hao (2009) summarized some strategies of Chinese idiom translation.

However, compared with the thriving practical studies on Chinese idioms, theoretical studies on the English translation of Chinese idioms leg far behind. Only a few researchers (Zeng Qi, 2001;Zhang Jinhua,Jin Hansheng,2003; Guo Xunming,2007; Zhao Dequan, Zhang Shuan,2008;Zhou Xin, YangYiqiu,2009) discussed Chinese idiom translation from different perspectives of cultural translation theory, relevance theory, skopos theory, information theory and pragmatics, and drew their own conclusions accordingly.

B. *Existing Problems*

Because of the unique characteristics of Chinese idioms, many researchers believe that idiom translation is the most difficult part. Although translation researchers have accumulated a lot of experience in Chinese idiom translation, there are still a lot of problems in the translation. First, some translators only focus on the surface meaning of the idioms. The translators might only use the word-for-word translation method but ignore the figurative meaning. For instance, the Chinese idiom “铁杵成针” literally means that “to grind steel rods into needles” and figuratively means that “with assiduous attention or effort, one can accomplish what appeared at first to be impossible”. However, without the knowledge on Chinese culture and metaphor, the translation is unacceptable to the target language readers. So translators should adopt the appropriate method to convey the real meanings of Chinese idioms. Second, due to the different culture and history, there are some idioms that have no corresponding translations in the target language both in literal and pragmatic implication, which will bring difficulty to translators. In this case, if the translators don't understand Chinese culture or history, they could not adopt the right method to transfer the real meaning of the Chinese idioms. Take “塞翁失马” as an example, this set phrase is created in ancient time of China. Its literal meaning is that an old man in the frontier lost his horse. But in a few days, the lost horse came with another horse. Obviously, its figurative meaning is that blessing may come in the shape of a loss. If translators do not know the origin of the idiom, they can not translate it well.

In brief, there are still some problems in the English translation of Chinese idioms. These problems appear mainly because the translators ignore the functional equivalence between the original and the translated works. Nida's functional equivalence theory is the best choice for Chinese idiom translation. The use of functional equivalence theory can minimize errors in translation and achieve the coherence in function and form between the source and the target languages.

III. FUNCTIONAL EQUIVALENCE THEORY

Functional Equivalence Theory put forward by Nida is different from most of the early theories that focus on the verbal comparison between the SL and TL. Nida attempts to offer a new way to produce an equivalent, taking the relationship of the receptor to the text into account. It is believed that “the relationship of the target language receptors to the target language text should be roughly equivalent to the relationship between the original receptors and the original text.” (Nida, 1993, p.112) The basic ideas of Nida's Functional Equivalence Theory lie in the following three aspects.

A. *The Notion of Equivalence*

One way of defining functional equivalence in translation is to describe it as “the closest natural equivalent to the source-language message” (Nida, 1964, p.166). There are three essential terms in this definition deserving our attention: closest, natural and equivalent. Here “equivalence” should not be understood in the meaning of “identity” but only in terms of “proximity”. A functional-equivalence translation is mainly concerned on the equivalence of receptors' response rather than the equivalence of language forms. Using the term of “equivalent”, Nida suggests trying to make the response from target language receptors as proximate as possible to that from the source language receptors.

As far as the linguistic aspect is concerned, the term “natural” implies that the rendering must be readable (related to the language form) and understandable (related to the content) to the target receptors, since different languages have different features of grammar and lexicon. As to the cultural aspect, functional equivalence holds that the rendering

should adopt the culture patterns familiar to the target receptors and a translator should domesticate those foreign culture patterns. It is allowable to make some adjustments in the form and even in the content in order to reach the aim of the functional-equivalent effect.

Nida uses the term “closest” to describe the degrees of proximity between the source language and the target language. Functional-equivalence requires the highest degree of proximity. Personally, the writer holds that here the term “closest” should be analyzed from two different aspects: language form and utterance in meaning. The ideal situation is to make the version “closest” to the original message both in form and meaning. No aspect should be especially emphasized at the expense of the other, but, actually, in the practice of translation, the problem between language form and utterance meaning will always occur, especially when culturally-loaded words or expressions are involved. Transferred information directly determines target receptors’ response, so in most cases, language forms are forced to give way to transferred information in order to get the result of closest response between receptors in two different cultures.

B. *The Notion of Receptor’s Response*

“It is essential that functional equivalence be stated primarily in terms of a comparison of the way in which the original receptors understood and appreciated the text and the way in which receptors of translated text understand and appreciate the translated text” (Nida,1993, p.116). From this point, we can see that what Nida emphasizes is different receptors’ responses that source language and target language cause, i.e, language function, rather than language forms.

Functional-equivalence translation is receptor-oriented and pays great attention to target receptors’ response. Nida puts receptors in a very important place when judging a version. Traditionally, translations are always judged by the comparison between the original text and the translated text. In contrast with formal equivalence translation, functional equivalence translation pays more attention to the receptor’s response and the naturalness of the target language than language forms.

C. *The Notion of Diversity*

Functional Equivalence Theory offers different degrees of adequacy for a qualified translation from the minimal to the maximal, rather than a fixed standard. With the minimal and maximal levels given, all those translations between the two levels are considered acceptable.

Nida points out the great many different factors that the adequacy of a translation depends on “the reliability of the text itself, the discourse type, the intended audience, the manner in which the translated text is to be used, and the purpose for which the translation has been made”(Nida, 1993, p.127). All of these factors work in the production of an adequate translation. A range of varying degrees of equivalence, as a matter of fact, is understandable and reasonable.

Thus, Functional Equivalence Theory provides more freedom for translators in order to deal with problems of specific situations. Compared with many other translation theories, which attempt to work out a single standard, Functional Equivalence Theory not only sets up an ideal definition for translation and have the lowest standard, but also allows a wide range of diversity in translating as well.

IV. APPLICATION OF FUNCTIONAL EQUIVALENCE THEORY IN ENGLISH TRANSLATION OF CHINESE IDIOMS

In this part, the author will focus on the methods in the English translation of Chinese idioms. The author will give concrete illustrations with some typical examples under the guidance of Functional Equivalence Theory.

A. *Literal Translation*

Literal translation is one of the basic methods in translation process. It requires that the translation should be loyal to the source language and keep the same form as the source language. Literal translation can be subdivided into the following kinds:

a. Direct translation

Direct translation can be used under two conditions. Firstly, the original images and figurative meanings of Chinese idioms coincide with those in English. Secondly, an idiom of the original language does not lead to cultural distortion in literal translation and can be accepted by readers of the target language. Direct translation deserves our first consideration in the process of idiom translation if it is functionally equivalent in both designated and associative meanings. Furthermore, if translators use this method in Chinese idiom translation, China’s culture can be fully introduced to the world. The following are some examples to illustrate the direct translation method.

Example 1:

范进因没有盘费，走去同丈人商议，被胡屠夫一口啐在脸上，骂了个狗血喷头道：“不要失了你的时了！你现在只觉得中了个相公，就‘癞蛤蟆想吃天鹅肉’来！……这些中举老爷的都是天上的文曲星！你看不见城里张府上那些老爷，都有万贯家私，一个个方面大耳。想你这尖嘴猴腮，也该撒泡尿自己照照！不三不四，就想天鹅屁吃！趁早收了这心……”（《儒林外史》）

...he had no money for the journey. He went to ask his father-in-law to help. Butcher Hu spat in his face, and poured out a torrent of abuse. “Don’t be fool!” He roared. “Just passing one examination has turned your head completely-you’re like a toad trying to swallow a swan! They are all stars in heaven! Look at the Zhang family in the

city. All those have pots of money, dignified faces and big ears. But your mouth sticks out and you've a chin like an ape's. You should piss on the ground and look at your face in the puddle! You look like a monkey, yet you want to become an official! Come off it." (Translated by Yang Xianyi & Glady)

In this paragraph, "癞蛤蟆想吃天鹅肉", "尖嘴猴腮", "撒泡尿自己照照" are translated "You're like a toad trying to swallow a swan", "(But) your mouth sticks out and you've a chin like an ape's", "You should piss on the ground and look at your face in the puddle" respectively. The translated versions are considerably vivid for the preservation of the images in the original. At the same time, the target text readers will not put great effort in inferring the intended meaning of the source text writer.

Example 2:

宝玉道: "我就是个'多愁多病的身', 你就是那'倾国倾城的貌'。" (《红楼梦》270回)

"I'm the one 'sick with longing'" Baoyu joked, "and yours is the beauty which caused 'cities and kingdoms to fall.'"

In the idiom of "倾国倾城", "国" and "城" use the same image with "city" and "kingdom", and the idiom has the same meaning with "cities and kingdoms to fall". In this Chinese idiom, the translator uses the hyperbole device to describe the beautiful girl in a more effective way. Thus, the same images and figurative meanings of the Chinese idiom are transferred, which brings no misunderstandings to the target language readers.

Example 3:

难道舅舅是不知道的, 还有一亩地, 两间房子, 在我手里花了不成? "巧媳妇做不出没米的饭", 叫我怎么样呢?(曹雪芹, 《红楼梦》, 第24回)

As you know better than anyone else, uncle, that I didn't have any property or land left after my father's death, which I squandered. Even the cleverest housewife can't cook a meal without rice. What do you expect me to do? (Translated by the Yangs)

In the example, the saying "巧媳妇做不出没米的饭" is literally translated as "Even the cleverest housewife can't cook a meal without rice." By doing so, it not only keeps the original form of the idioms but also transfer the original images and figurative meaning effectively. And at the same time it is acceptable to the English readers and will not cause any misunderstanding and wrong association. In addition, the full flavor of Chinese idioms is kept. In English, there is another idiom which is "One can't make bricks without straw", shares the same meaning as "巧媳妇做不出没米的饭". But this English idiom originates from the Bible, thus the idiom is filled with too strong national colorings. How can we imagine that a character in the ancient Chinese novel quoted a western idiom from the Bible? So in this case we should avoid borrowing the idiom in the target language.

More examples listed below may help us better understand the advantages of translating Chinese idioms directly into English:

Example 4:

画饼充饥 To draw cakes to allay hunger

画蛇添足 To draw a snake and add feet to it

牢不可破 to be so strongly built as to be indestructible

易如反掌 to be as easy as turning over one's hand

调虎离山 to lure the tiger from the mountain

望梅止渴 the sight of plums quenches one's thirst

初生牛犊不怕虎 New-born calves make little of tigers.

The above literal translations not only keep the original form of the idioms but also transfer the original image and metaphorical meaning effectively. Furthermore, it keeps the full flavor of the idioms. To sum up, by using the method of literal translation, we can establish the equivalence of the four aspects: forms, meanings, styles and image functions, thus achieving the highest degrees of functional equivalence. In our opinion, literal translation is a good and effective method to establish equivalent translation.

b. Literal Translation with Annotation

Some Chinese idioms contain allusions to historical, legendary, or mythical persons or events in Chinese culture, which are culturally loaded. Translating them in a literal way will sometimes do, but not always, for many idioms can be understood only when the historical background or their origin is completely explained. Then the translators have to do the work with the help of annotation. In a word, this method will promote the target readers' understanding of the original idioms and thus the equivalence of pragmatic effect is achieved. For example:

Example 5:

三顾茅庐 visiting the hut for three times

Annotation: During the period of the Three Kingdoms, AD 220-280, Liu Bei called three times as an unbidden guest at the lonely hut of Zhuge Liang known as the political genius of the age.

Example 6:

东施效颦 Tung Shih imitating Hsi Shih

Annotation: Hsi Shih was a famous beauty in the ancient Kingdom of Yueh. Tung Shih was an ugly girl who tried to imitate her ways.

Example 7:

守株待兔 Watching the stump and waiting for a hare

Annotation: A peasant seeing a hare run against a tree-stump and break its neck abandoned his plough and waited by the stump in the hope that another hare would do the same thing.

The examples above vividly illustrate Chinese idioms by using the specific history stories, ancient legend and customs so that foreigners can accept the meaning of Chinese idioms as well as Chinese unique culture. In brief, literal translation with annotations is not only the demand of conveying meanings but also making the target language readers to understand the culture of the source language. On one hand, it can help the readers understand the real meanings of the source language; on the other hand, it retains the national culture and the original images. Therefore, Chinese culture can be transmitted to abroad. The functional equivalence is achieved in this way.

c. Amplification

Amplification, as a translating method, indicates adding necessary words in the translation without distorting or changing the original meaning. Amplification is used to help the target readers deepen their understanding of the translated text, thus the original meaning is represented more completely and faithfully. The purpose can be realized on the basis of accurate and full comprehension of the original by the translator, thus a prudent and considerate attitude should be held when employing this method.

Example 8:

薛蟠喜之不尽，将此话告诉了薛姨妈。(Chapter 48 of Hong Lou Meng)

H: Xue Pan, delighted at the prospect of getting away so soon, hastened to relay this to his mother.

Here “喜之不尽” is translated into “delighted at the prospect of getting away so soon”. “The prospect of getting away so soon” is added in the rendering although such information doesn’t occur in the exact original sentence but from the context.

B. Free Translation

Free translation not only requires restrictions in structures of source language but also advocates using different expressive forms to convey meanings in source language. There are three situations free translation should be used. First, it is impossible to render idioms by retaining the original images because it would cause misunderstanding or incomprehension among the readers.

Example 9:

粗枝大叶 crude and perfunctory

It is not suggestive to translate it into “bulky branch and large leaf”. People seldom remember the metaphor of “branch” and “leaf”. Then in translation, it is unnecessary to introduce its lifeless image for it is no longer relevant to the meaning of the idiom. It can be translated as “crude and perfunctory”, and foreign readers can understand it in context.

Example 10:

有鼻子有眼儿 describe a thing vividly

This idiom should not be translated as “with a nose and an eye”, it should be understood more in its implied meaning. Therefore, we’d better translate it into “to describe a thing vividly”, in which the images of “nose” and “eye” are totally lost. By translating idioms in this way, the picture, flavor and sound-effect of the original might be lost, but the sense of the idioms can be successfully communicated.

Example 11:

此地无银三百两 A guilty person gives himself away by conspicuously protesting his innocence.

This idiom is from a fable about a man who buried 300 taels of silver underground, but he feared that it would be stolen by others. Then the man put one brand aside, on which he wrote down this idiom. It is an obvious liar. Literally, if the rendering are translated as “No 300 taels of silver buried here”, the target language readers could not understand the figurative meaning of the idiom and they would be puzzled when it appeared in the context. To convey the meaning of the idiom, free translation is a better choice.

Second, when there are no equivalent idioms to borrow.

Example 12:

后又助着薛蟠图些银钱酒肉，一任横行霸道，他不但不去管约，反而“助纣为虐”，讨好儿。(曹雪芹，《红楼梦》，第9回)

In return for money and good meals from Hsueh Pan, he had not checked his disgraceful behavior but actually abetted him in order to curry favor. (Translated by Yang Xianyi & Gladys)

In the example, “助纣为虐” is an allusion. “纣” is a cruel tyrant in the Shang Dynasty. And when people use this idiom they only pay attention to its metaphorical meaning “to help the evil person to do bad things”, showing no interest in knowing who on earth “纣” is. If we translate literally as “to help Zhou to do cruel deeds” without making annotation to explain the historical background, the target readers will be puzzled. Hence it is rendered literally as “abetted”.

Example 13:

杞人忧天 unnecessary anxiety

This is a fable from Lei Zi about a man in the Kingdom of Qi in Spring and Autumn Periods of ancient China. He was groundlessly haunted by the fear all day that the sky would crash down. So he could not sleep well at night and eat much less than before. From the context, apparently, it is not necessary to explain “who is that man in Kingdom of Qi” and “why he worried that sky would crash down”. The rendering of “unnecessary anxiety” is obviously better than a lengthy explanation which might exhaust readers.

Third, literal meaning and figurative meaning in the SL text are hard to be kept in the translated text. If the image of the SL text cannot be remained in idiom translation, a translator should change the image into the one that is more familiar to the reader of the TL. Only by doing so, the implicated meaning in the SL text can be fully understood by the target readers. Therefore the functional equivalence can be achieved.

Example 14:

天有不测风云，人有旦夕祸福 Sudden storms spring up in nature, and the fortunes of men may change overnight.

After read the Chinese idioms “天有不测风云,人有旦夕祸福”, it is difficult for target language readers to understand the relations between “wind”, “cloud” and “people’s fortunes”. If the translator changes the image into “storm”, which is on rushing when it happens and can destroy all the fortunes, the meaning of this idiom will be fully expressed to achieve the maximum equivalence between the source language and the target language. The translator here chooses the same image shared by the two languages to transfer the misfortunes overnight under the guidance of free translation, and it’s a better way to achieve the functional equivalence.

In a word, free translation is by far the most common way of translating idioms when a match cannot be found in the target language or when it seems inappropriate to use idiomatic language in the target text because of differences in stylistic preferences of the source and target languages. This is done on the expense of a neglect of style. In this case, there is always some loss of the rhetorical features, sometimes part of the meaning. The translator attempts to reduce the loss to a minimum by providing supplementary notes so as to provide reader with information necessary for appreciating the idioms.

C. Other Feasible Methods

Apart from the methods mentioned above, there are other feasible methods to be applied in the English translation of Chinese idioms, such as combination, omission, borrowing, and so on. In the following sections, the author will give a brief introduction to five methods connected with functional equivalence effect in Chinese idiom translation into English.

a. Combination

Combination is to use both literal and free translation. As stated above, both literal and free translations have their own merits and demerits. Literal translation stresses the faithfulness to the source language, which can help retain the styles and images by keeping the original forms. But in some cases the mere literal translation will lead to the possible misunderstanding. At this time it is necessary to take the advantage of free translation since it can erase the misunderstanding and make the translated version easily understood. But on the other hand, the vivid images and the exotic flavor in the original text are lost. So in this case, it is necessary to take advantages of the two methods to better transfer the source language meanings to achieve the equivalence both in linguistics and culture. Note how the method is used in the following example:

Example 15:

那薛老大也是“吃着碗里的瞧着锅里的。”(曹雪芹,《红楼梦》,第16回)

Hsueh Pan is another of those greedy-guts who “keep one eye on the bowl and the other on the pan” (Translated by Yang Xianyi & Gladys.)

The idiom “吃着碗里的瞧着锅里的” is used to depict a greedy person. In the rendering “keep one eye on the bowl and the other on the pan”, “keep one eye on” is the free translation of “吃着” and the rest is literally translated. At the same time “greedy-guts” is used to reveal the connotation of this idiom. This rendering employs the combination of literal translation and free translation. Through this we can keep the original images and cultural characteristics. It is also a flexible and efficient way to achieve functional equivalence.

Example 16:

一个碗不响，两个碗叮当 One bowl is quiet, two bowls make a row.

The idiom figuratively implies that one person can not quarrel with himself or herself, but two persons together are not harmonious. The first part of the Chinese idiom literally means that one bowl can not make a sound. In the second part, the rendering transfers the real meaning of the idiom by the method of free translation.

Based on the above examples, we can conclude that Chinese idioms can be translated using the combination of literal and free translation methods to achieve the equivalence effect. In this way, the Chinese cultural flavor in the idioms can be preserved and a brief interpretation of the idiom connotation is provided in the target language readers’ favor as well.

b. Omission

Omission does not mean subtracting any meaning from the original at random but deals with the redundant wording in order to achieve a succinct and idiomatic rendering. Sometimes, if the images of the Chinese idioms can not be retained or transferred in the translation, we usually leave out the images. Sometimes, if the repeated part in the idiom is translated, the translation is somewhat redundant. In this case, the best method for a translator is to choose omission, for

example:

Example 17:

取之不尽，用之不竭 inexhaustible

The idiom is quite nice in the eyes of Chinese speakers, for it is balanced, which conforms to the Chinese culture and the feeling of the Chinese people. But to English readers, who are used to being brief, a feeling of being wordy and strange will be caused if they are translated as the Chinese words. Then the better way for a skillful translator to choose is omission, that is, to be translated as “inexhaustible”.

Omission can be employed in another situation: considering the coherence of the meaning in the context. Let us see an example by Hawkes.

Example 18:

鸳鸯喜之不尽，拉了他嫂子，到贾母跟前跪下。(Chapter 46 of Hong Lou Meng)

Faithful led her sister-in-law through their midst, knelt down at her mistress's feet.

Faithful is the close servant of Grandmother Jia, who is forced to be Jia She's concubine, she strongly opposes to this and feels angry about it. So when the opportunity favors her for her asking help from Grandmother Jia to change the situation, she is happy, but the stronger mood she is experiencing all the time is anger and sadness, for the purpose of avoiding undermining the main clue of the mood, in Hawkes's translation, “喜之不尽” is omitted.

c. Borrowing

Borrowing, which is realized by finding an equivalent idiom in the target language, is the most idealistic way for idiom-rendering. If the translator may find an English idiom which is close to a Chinese idiom in meaning, form, image and association, he may adopt it without hesitation for the rendering. English idioms are ready and familiar to target language readers, adopting them in translation may be helpful for them to read the translated version more fluently and understand the new content more easily, as a result, their response to the text will be “natural”. Some examples are provided here.

Example 19:

贾芸喜不自禁，来至绮霭斋打听宝玉，谁知宝玉一早便往北静王府里去了。(Chapter 24 of Hong Lou Meng)

H: Beside himself with joy, Jia-Yun now continued on his way to Sunset Studio to look for Bao-yu. In point of fact Bao-yu had gone off first thing that morning to call on the Prince of Bei-jing.

English idiom “beside oneself with joy” is borrowed to render “喜不自禁”. Although full equivalent idioms are almost beyond our reach, we may borrow some idioms holding the closest implicated meanings with the original for rendering.

Example 20:

但是朱吟秋在旁边冷冷地给周仲伟的一团高兴上浇了一勺冷水;他说.....(茅盾:《子夜》,第16章)

But Chu Yin-chiu threw cold water on his rising spirits when he said gloomily...

Both “浇了一勺冷水” and “to throw cold water on” use the same image to vividly show the metaphorical meaning “to discourage somebody”, so it's the overlapped part of Chinese and English culture and to borrow the English corresponding idiom is an ideal way of translation in this condition.

Example 21:

以牙还牙 a tooth for a tooth

The translator borrows the English idiom to achieve the functional equivalence. It is much closer to the original version than other English translation versions.

In these Chinese idioms, the translated versions are easy to be remembered. They have similar images with English expressions. In this case, borrowing is the first concern in the process of Chinese idiom translation in order to achieve the functional equivalence. Since idioms are usually rather culture-specific, more often, no two idioms in English and Chinese are totally identical. We can hardly find the absolute equivalent as far as Chinese idioms are concerned, thus if a synonymous English idiom is borrowed in the rendering, it is regarded that borrowing is adopted. Some loss of meaning, form, image and association in intercultural communication is unavoidable.

d. Transposition

Transposition is a seldom-adopted translation method, with which the translation of certain part is transferred to another place in the text for the convenience of the overall arrangement of the sentences, yet the meaning is guaranteed or conveyed in a general sense to the target readers.

Example 22:

太太还说老爷才来家，每日欢天喜地的说骨肉完聚。(Chapter 72 of Hong Lou Meng)

But Lady Wang said that Sir Zheng was so happy to be home again with his family all around him---she says he's hardly stopped talking about “family togetherness” since the day he got back.

In the original text, “欢天喜地” is used to modify the verb “说” as an adverbial, it is transposed after “Sir Zheng” as predicative in the translated text.

e. Integration

Integration means the meaning of the idiom to be translated is integrated with the meaning of some other part in the text as a whole. Integration is helpful in forming terse structure, getting rid of redundant wording as well as keeping a

natural style of the text. Thus the readers may feel the text is easily understood without weakening or distorting the original meaning.

Example 23:

一见是宝玉，又惊又喜，又悲又痛，忙一把死攥住他的手。(Chapter 77 of Hong Lou Meng)

What surprise, delight, sorrow and anguish all mixed in one when she saw who it was. She gripped his hand tightly in hers.

The meaning of “又惊又喜” is integrated with that of “又悲又痛” in a whole as “what surprise, delight, sorrow, anguish all mixed in one” for sake of avoiding repetition and redundancy.

V. CONCLUSION

As the cream of the language, Chinese idioms possess their own unique features. Most of them have fixed structures and regular forms. They are heavily culturally loaded phrases and sentences, which are mainly from history, mystical legends, allegories, religions and so on. In addition, figures of speech and phonological features are frequently employed in Chinese idioms. With such unique characteristics, it is quite a tough and fascinating job to translate Chinese idioms into English.

Based on the relevant survey of Chinese idioms, the literature review of functional equivalence theory, the author puts forward nine translating methods, including literal translation, free translation, borrowing, combination, omission, literal translation plus annotation, integration, transposition and amplification. Among them literal translation can achieve the highest degree of functional equivalence, which emphasizes not only context equivalence but also form equivalence. The other methods are flexible ones to achieve the functional equivalence in certain aspects.

The applying of Nida's functional equivalence theory to the methods on Chinese idiom translation is testified to have some implications both in theoretical and practical aspects. Theoretically, it provides a theoretical framework for this paper. When translating idioms, we should take three notions into consideration, namely, equivalence, receptor's response and diversity. Practically, applicable solutions with examples are suggested.

Admittedly, the methods mentioned here are not always ideal and there may be better methods to be found. But after all, they can serve as reference for translators. At least under the guidance of this, firstly, the translation of Chinese idiom translation will help promote cultural exchange between China and English speaking countries; and secondly, we understand that there is no total equivalence, but only equivalence to some degree. What translators seek is the maximum equivalence for the target reader.

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Language Teaching Materials and Learner Motivation

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Abstract— The motivation of the learner is one of the most important factors in Second Language Acquisition (SLA), meanwhile language teaching materials are having a very important effect and role in language learning and teaching activities. This research focus on how different materials motivate students. Many factors which affect student's motivation towards teaching materials were perceived, such as interest in the subject matter, level of difficulty, relevance to existing knowledge, perception of usefulness.

Index Terms—language learning, teaching material, motivation

I. INTRODUCTION

Success in Second Language Acquisition (SLA) depends on a variety of factors such as the amount of exposure to the natural target language practice, the duration and intensity of the language course, and last but not least, the characteristics of the language learner. Motivation—one element of the learner characteristics is one of the most important factors in the field. Cohen and Dörnyei (2002) contended that motivation is the key learner variable and nothing much happens without it. It determines the degree of effort learners put into foreign or second language learning. The more motivation they may have, the more effort they tend to put into learning the language. Therefore, teachers' biggest concern is always whether students are well motivated and willing to learn what they teach. Then when I observed the class I paid attention to factors which influence students' motivation.

In my observation, I noticed some teaching materials did attract students' interests in language learning. For example, a learner preferred the listening text which was relevant to her background and an up-to-date article from newspaper enhanced students' enthusiasm. Then I recalled, in my teaching experience, I used to design some supporting materials which make the lesson more appealing, more practical in order to enhance students' enthusiasm. For example, in listening class I chose a pop song for completion exercise. In reading class I added some pictures which are relevant to the content of the articles. According to Wachob (2006), teaching materials undergird the construct of motivation. Seven and Engin (2007) also stressed, language teaching materials are having a very important effect and role in language learning and teaching activities. It showed that motivation can come from teaching materials. Therefore, since no research can cover the rather extensive motivational variables I decided to focus on how different materials motivate students. I believe the result of the research will benefit my future work since I could be clear about how to select or develop appropriate materials for my class.

II. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The last four decades have witnessed a considerable amount of research that investigates the nature and role of motivation in SLA process. Gardner & Lambert (1972) pioneered on motivation, proposing an integrative-instrumental duality, which became widely accepted and confirmed by a number of studies. Their ten-year-long research program, in which they found that success in language attainment was dependent on learners' affective reactions toward the target linguistic-cultural group, gave validity to the study of motivation in SLA.

Some studies have attempted to extend Gardner's construct by adding new components, such as intrinsic/extrinsic motivation, intellectual curiosity, attribution about past successes/failures, need for achievement, self-confidence, and other situation-specific variables such as classroom events and tasks, classroom climate and group cohesion, course content and teaching materials, teacher feedback, and grades and rewards.

In the 1980s the learning situation itself received more attention and three sets of motivational components were identified by Dörnyei (1994): i) course-specific motivational components; ii) teacher-specific motivational components; iii) group-specific motivational components. The course specific motivational components relate to the class syllabus, the materials used, the teaching method, and the learning task. Dörnyei uses the conditions presented by Keller (1983) and later by Crookes and Schmidt (1991) to describe these conditions: Interest, Relevance, Expectancy, and Satisfaction.

The first category, interest, is related to intrinsic motivation and is centred on the individual's inherent curiosity and desire to know more about him or herself and his or her environment. The second, relevance is a prerequisite for "sustained motivation and requires the learner to perceive that important personal needs are being met by the learning situation" (Keller, 1983: 406). It refers to the extent to which the student feels that the instruction is connected to

important personal needs, values, or goals. At a macrolevel, this component coincides with instrumentality; at the level of the learning situation, it refers to the extent to which the classroom instruction and course content are seen to be conducive to achieving the goal, that is, to mastering the L2.

Expectancy refers to the perceived likelihood of success and is related to the learner's self-confidence and self-efficacy at a general level; at the level of the learning situation, it concerns perceived material difficulty, the amount of effort required, the amount of available assistance and guidance, the teacher's presentation of the material, and familiarity with the task type. Satisfaction concerns the outcome of an activity, referring to the combination of extrinsic rewards such as enjoyment and pride. There is that determinant of motivation which is perhaps the most traditional: reward, punishment or outcomes. Activities for which the motivating forces are outcomes have been referred to as extrinsically motivated, as opposed to those which are intrinsically motivated (Deci, 1975).

This framework appears to be particularly useful in describing course-specific motives. Thus my research will be based on Dornyei's motivation construct to explore through what ways do teaching materials affect students' enthusiasm of language learning.

III. GENERAL INFORMATION

The class I observed is a Business English class, which aims to help students develop specific skills in using accurate English around a business context. Among eighteen students from various countries, I mainly focused on two learners, a Chinese girl and a Japanese girl. I chose the Chinese girl because observing a Chinese student will have advantages for my future work since I will go back to China to continue my teaching career after completing this course. I chose the Japanese girl because her goal of learning language was totally different from that of Chinese girl. The Chinese girl was doing pre-master in business currently. Business English course was just an optional module for this semester. Her short-term perspective was passing this module. By comparison, the Japanese girl majored in home economics for her undergraduate and intended to take translation course in the future. She would like to take any chance to improve her language ability.

I observed the class for four times and I wrote four journals after each time to record what I had noticed in the class. Besides observation I designed a questionnaire to let learners express their opinion on the teaching materials they had worked with in the class. According to Robson's (1993), whatever form questionnaires take, they should be clear and unambiguous, and easy to answer. The questionnaire consisted of a list of five items in opposition, which are: interesting/boring, relevant to my knowledge/irrelevant to my knowledge, easy to me/difficult for me, useful for me/useless for me and satisfying/unsatisfying. Items were graded on a five-point semantic differential scale. Learners put an "X" against the place on the scale that best described their opinion of the materials. Using this technique researchers can avoid writing statements since respondents are asked to indicate the extent to which they "agree" or "disagree" with it by marking one of the responses (Dornyei, 2007: 105). Finally, I interviewed the Chinese girl and the Japanese girl based on their behavior I observed in the class and the result of their questionnaire.

IV. ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

A. *Teaching Material 1*

It is reading material, an article from recent newspaper, which is about McDonald's franchisee renewing licence. The article was accompanied by a picture, which displayed a successful McDonald's franchisee and his son were laughing and talking about expansion. In the class I noticed the Chinese girl looked at the picture first and talked to her friend by pointing the picture of the article (for further details see visit 4). In the interview, the Chinese girl said: "If there is a picture I will look at it first and then read the article" and the Japanese girl said: "I like this picture since it looks funny". As Seven and Engin (2007) concluded in their research, the more the teacher uses visual and audio materials during the course, the better students concentrate on the lesson. In my observation, the picture, one of visual materials did attract students' interest and attention.

What's more, in the class I also noticed that the Chinese girl paid attention to this article and read it carefully. According to her answers in questionnaire, she was somewhat satisfied with it. In the interview, she told me: "I like this article because it is from up-to-date newspaper and related to the hot topic, financial crisis". In fact, this is a kind of authentic material. Authentic texts have been defined as "...real-life texts, not written for pedagogic purposes" (Wallace 1992). They are therefore written for native speakers and contain "real" language. They are "...materials that have been produced to fulfill some social purpose in the language community." (Peacock, 1997), in contrast to non-authentic texts that are especially designed for language learning purposes. One of the main ideas of using authentic materials in the classroom is to "expose" the learner to as much real language as possible and to giving the learner the proof that the language is real and not only studied in the classroom. Guariento & Morley (2001) stated that extracting real information from a real text in a new/different language can be extremely motivating, therefore increasing students' motivation for learning by exposing them to 'real' language. In addition, authentic materials also give the reader the opportunity to gain real information and know what is going on in the world around them. Authentic texts can be motivating because they are proof that the language is used for real-life purposes by real people (Nuttall, 1996). Thus, nowadays there are recommendations that the language presented should be authentic (Widdowson, 1990).

However, when reading this article the Japanese girl used e-dictionary many times to check vocabulary. She said: "There are many words I do not know and the content of the article is strange to me since I do not major in Business". As a result, she felt this material was somewhat satisfying. It shows the difficulty of teaching materials decreases motivation. Nuttall (1996) gives three main criteria when choosing texts to be used in the classroom suitability of content, exploitability and readability. Suitability of content means the reading material should interest the students as well as be relevant to their needs. Exploitability refers to how the text can be used to develop the students' competence as readers. A text that can not be exploited for teaching purposes has no use in the classroom. Just because it is in English does not mean that it can be useful. Readability is used to describe the combination of structural and lexical difficulty of a text, as well as referring to the amount of new vocabulary and any new grammatical forms present. According to my research, readability, the level of difficulty, can be considered to be the most important of the three. It is not surprising that people are more willing to participate in a task if it does not require too much effort.

B. Teaching Material 2

It is group work. Each group was required to develop a competitive new product to challenge an established brand name and present it in the class. The work includes identifying the name and three special characteristics of the new product, producing consumer profile and promoting details and designing a simple slogan. In the class, the Chinese girl did not complete this task due to other incooperative members. The Japanese girl said two sentences about the slogan of the target product (for further details see visit 3). In the interview, both of them admitted this task was new and interesting. But the Japanese girl said she was not confident since she lacked marketing knowledge. She just read something which were prepared and given by her partners. Therefore, she felt this material was slightly unsatisfying. Kawai (2000) pointed out, from a constructivist perspective, content relevance of learning materials to the learner's existing knowledge is a key ingredient for intrinsic motivation. Deci and Ryan (1985) create the construct of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation theory. Intrinsic motivation concerns behavior performed for its own sake in order to experience pleasure and satisfaction such as the joy of doing a particular activity or satisfying one's curiosity. It is a state where the relevance for the learner of the content of the material is the main reason for learning. According to my research, one of the most demotivating factors for learners is when they have to learn something that they are not familiar with.

C. Teaching Material 3

It is listening material. In the recording, a Chinese business executive, talked about understanding the local cultures and building business relationship in South America and China. In the class, the Chinese girl was willing to share her knowledge of Chinese culture with classmates (for further details see visit 1). In the interview, she said this listening text was easy to understand since she was familiar with the target culture. And the Japanese girl said it was not difficult for her since this aspect of Chinese culture was similar to Japanese. Consequently, both of them rated this material satisfying. As Brozo (2005) concluded in order to foster intrinsic motivation, teacher should try to create learning activities that are relevant to students' lives. One of effective strategies is connecting the subject with your students' culture, outside interests or social lives. According to my research, learners were motivated by materials relating to their culture and their background knowledge.

D. Teaching Material 4

It is speaking material, which focus on polite expression. Two scenarios with sixteen sentences were provided by the teacher, while students were required to express the same meaning in a polite way. In the class, the Chinese girl was not interested in this exercise (for further details see visit 4). In the interview, she said she was fed up with this kind of exercise since she had a lot of similar training when she worked at Asian airline as a stewardess. On the contrary, the Japanese girl she liked this material most among four materials since she think it is not difficult for her and it is useful in everyday life. As Crookes and Schmidt (1991) pointed out a program which appears to meet the students' own expressed needs ... will be more motivating, more efficient, and thus more successful. Cunningsworth (1984) also stressed that the materials should meet students' needs: "Students particularly more sophisticated adults need to feel that the materials from which they are learning have to be connected with the real world and at the same time they must be related positively to the aspects of their inner make up such as age, level of education, social attitudes, the intellectual ability and level of emotional maturity." According to my research, students will be motivated to learn when they regard the material they are taught as worth learning.

V. CONCLUSION

In my research I tested and tried to understand the importance and effects of teaching materials in language learning. I perceived many factors affect student's motivation towards teaching materials: interest in the subject matter, level of difficulty, relevance to existing knowledge, perception of usefulness. These findings are consistent with motivation construct identified by Dornyei (1994). Reviewed above, the level of difficulty will be a good determinant of selective learner attention. What's more, personal relevance makes an enormous difference in students' attitudes toward learning. Finally, visual material and authentic material will arouse students' interest and enthusiasm.

APPENDIX STUDENT QUESTIONNAIRE

The purpose of this questionnaire is to assess the value of the following teaching materials which were used in class this semester. There are no right or wrong answers; we want your own ideas and impressions.

Please mark ONE "X" on each scale to show how you rate the following concepts.

Teaching Material 1

interesting _____:_____:_____:_____ boring
 easy to me _____:_____:_____:_____ difficult for me
 relevant to my knowledge _____:_____:_____:_____ irrelevant to my knowledge
 useful for me _____:_____:_____:_____ useless for me
 satisfying _____:_____:_____:_____ unsatisfying

Teaching Material 2

interesting _____:_____:_____:_____ boring
 easy to me _____:_____:_____:_____ difficult for me
 relevant to my knowledge _____:_____:_____:_____ irrelevant to my knowledge
 useful for me _____:_____:_____:_____ useless for me
 satisfying _____:_____:_____:_____ unsatisfying

Teaching Material 3

interesting _____:_____:_____:_____ boring
 easy to me _____:_____:_____:_____ difficult for me
 relevant to my knowledge _____:_____:_____:_____ irrelevant to my knowledge
 useful for me _____:_____:_____:_____ useless for me
 satisfying _____:_____:_____:_____ unsatisfying

Teaching Material 4

interesting _____:_____:_____:_____ boring
 easy to me _____:_____:_____:_____ difficult for me
 relevant to my knowledge _____:_____:_____:_____ irrelevant to my knowledge
 useful for me _____:_____:_____:_____ useless for me
 satisfying _____:_____:_____:_____ unsatisfying

Thank you for completing this questionnaire

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A Representative of the New Female Image—Analyzing Hester Prynne’s Feminist Consciousness in *The Scarlet Letter*

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Abstract—*The Scarlet Letter* is generally considered to be Nathaniel Hawthorne’s best work and one of the indubitable masterpieces of American literature. The heroine of the novel—Hester Prynne, though on a binary position as a woman in Puritan society, defies power and puts up a tenacious fight against the colonial rule combined by church and state. From her rebellious actions, we can see Hester’s feminist consciousness. With this noble character, she becomes totally different from the traditional women who are always obedient to the unfair rules enacted by men. It can be sensed that a new female image is born. This paper tries to analyze Hester’s feminist consciousness at the respect of her rebellious spirit, self-reliance and strong mind, in this way to evaluate Hester Prynne as a representative of the new female image. Through this kind of analysis, we can better dig in the figure of Hester, and regarding her as a new woman also has a positive social meaning in encouraging women today to strive after the lofty ideal— an equal status between men and women.

Index Terms—female image, Hester Prynne, feminist consciousness

I. INTRODUCTION

Nathaniel Hawthorne is regarded as one of America’s few truly successful and original novelists, who’s novel *the Scarlet Letter* has widely attracted people’s attention. As an honest and thoughtful writer, Hawthorne narrates the story of Hester Prynne’s miserable life, reveals women’s low status of the seventeenth-century Puritan New England, and meanwhile, exposes mercilessly the cruelty and the prejudice against women of the Puritan society (*Analysis of The Scarlet Letter*). Although shamed and alienated from the rest of the community, Hester does not fall but becomes a miniature of a resistant, “a Feminist Angel”, a strong woman looking forward to the equality between men and women.

In *the Scarlet Letter*, Hawthorne depicts the society as it actually was in the 17th century Puritan America, which has been considered as a reflection of women’s problems at that time. Even though women are strong, brave, industrious, kindhearted, and with a lofty devoting spirit, their whole life is very tragic in the end. It deeply reveals not only the Puritan’s bitterness and the women’s hardship, but also the strength of the Puritan consciousness and the lowness of the women’s status. This heroin of the novel, Hester Prynne, has such a noble character that she is undoubtedly recognized as a representative of the new female image.

II. DEVELOPMENT OF FEMALE IMAGES

A. Traditional Female Images

In the traditional culture, the female image always centers on two opposite aspects: the first type is the discriminated femaleness. Men and women are placed unequal positions since the day God created them. For a long time, men are considered to have rational mind and superior intelligence and the capacity for leadership. They are endowed with positive meaning and always the subjects to be praised. On the contrary, women are inferior to men at all aspects. They are more emotional and they sustain society with their nurturance, not capable of reasoning and organization. The roles, which women play, are negative. Not only is their charm denied, but also they are associated with viciousness and dissoluteness in the men’s eyes.

The other type is the praiseworthy femaleness. Guan (2004) argues that after coming into the middle period in the Middle Ages, men do not attack women any more. Instead, they begin to flatter women’s merits and achievements. Women are eulogized again and again for their vacations--as wives to support husbands and as parents to take care of children--and for their spirits of self-sacrifice for the family. The humanism during the Renaissance breaks up with the traditional concept that regards women as demons. In addition, it endows women with another new meaning, that is, women are like angels, rescuing men’s souls and leading them to the holy paradise. However, to some degree, this so-called enhancement of women’s status is not a social phenomenon but just a literature one. The excessive ideal female image does not destroy the existing sexism. To the opposite, it becomes the best excuse for men’s limiting women within the small circle of family life. The reason and power still belong to men whereas what really belong to women are their beautiful bodies and frail minds.

B. *The New Female Image*

The above-mentioned two types of women are designed according to men's wills to make sure the stability of men's social status. Men are able to construct philosophical, scientific, and religious systems which reinforced their dominant position, in the process defining women as less than men, almost as sub-human species, and excluding women from all sources of power. Zhang (2000) argues women are undoubtedly dependents, first of their fathers, then of their husbands, and in case of widowhood, dependents of their sons, if they had any, or of any surviving male relatives. The two types of women are under control of men, having no right of independence.

However, in the novel *the Scarlet Letter*, Hawthorne creates us a brand-new female image-- Hester, who is different from traditional types. Although Hester suffers enormously from the shame of her public disgrace and from the isolation of her punishment, in her inner heart she can never accept the Puritan interpretation of her act as she believes that her desire for love freedom is not evil, but with dignity and grace. Hester retains her self-respect and survives her punishment with ever-growing strength of character. She protects herself through her own thoughts, forming a new female image possessing qualities of rebellious spirit, self-reliance and strong mind. These qualities are just what feminism advocates. Therefore, the prominent difference between traditional female images and the new one lies in that the latter has the feminist consciousness. With this noble character, new women dare to defy power and put up tenacious fights against the unfair rules that determine their lower status in the society. It is the feminist consciousness awakening that enables women to do things that they have never done before; moreover, this feminist consciousness embodies the inherent dignity of femaleness and highlights the worth of women.

III. ANALYSIS OF PRYNNE'S FEMINIST CONSCIOUSNESS

As Austin Warren has called Hester "a feminist in advance of the season", it can be seen the successful portrait of the image of Hester. In the novel, her feminist consciousness is carefully depicted, reflected at the respect of her rebellious spirit, self-reliance and strong mind. It is her feminist consciousness that endows her attractive character.

A. *Hester's Rebellious Spirit*

Hester's Rebellious Spirit embodies her feminist consciousness prominently. With this valuable spirit, she defies power and puts up a tenacious fight against the colonial rule combined by church and state.

1. Hester's Attitude towards Her Punishment

The Puritan society in the 17th century America, with its freezing and self-denying doctrines cast disgrace upon the passions. Li (2006) described that the Puritan membership in the Puritan community, after all, is based on the ability of that community to judge by external signs instead of the interior conscience of men. They cannot understand the heart of humanity.

The ideal society of Puritanism is "Holy Community", so everyone of the community must comply with rules of Puritanism. The rulers do not allow anyway breaking away with the "Holy Community", let alone to revolt it.

Hester is a young and beautiful woman who has brought a child into the world with an unknown father. She is condemned to wear a scarlet letter "A" on her breast and suffer public shame on the scaffold. Hester rebels it, "by an action marked with natural dignity and force of character". When she walked to the scaffold from the prison, she holds her head high and remains in full public view without shedding a tear, "as if by her own will"

Hester's rebellious spirit is also reflected in the elaborate needlework of the scarlet letter. There are "fantastic flourishes of gold-thread", and the letter is ornately decorative, significantly beyond the Puritan laws that call for somber, unadorned attire. She shows her skill in needling work, and it seems like that she takes pride in her token of isolation.

While she might be feeling agony as if "her heart had been flung into the street for them all to spurn and trample upon", her face reveals no such thought, and her demeanor is described as "haughty". She displays a dignity and grace that reveals a deep trust in her.

Later, the young priest Arthur Dimmesdale, in fact Hester's love, implores Hester to name the father of the baby and this way her penance may be lightened. To people's astonishment, she says "Never". When asked again, she says, "I will not speak!" while this declaration relieves Dimmesdale and he praises her under his breath, it also shows Hester's determination to stand alone despite the opinion of society. She uses individual rights and regards them as weapons to fire the Puritanism.

Exhausted from the punishment at the scaffold emotionally and physically, Hester is continually oppressed to wear the scarlet letter "A" on her breast all her life, which is a symbol indicating shame as a much lenient punishment. Her beautiful hair is hidden under her cap; her beauty and warmth are gone, buried under the burden of the elaborate scarlet letter. When she removes the letter and takes off her cap in the forest, Hester once again becomes the radiant beauty. Symbolically, when Hester does these actions, she is in fact removing the harsh, stark, unbending puritan social and moral structure.

Obviously, what Hester has done manifests her challenge to the whole dismal severity of the puritanical code of law. In her deepest heart, she can never accept the puritan rules and becomes a rebel against the rules. No wonder that some unkind puritans reproach her such as "what is it but to laugh in the faces of our godly magistrates, and make a pride out of what they, worthy gentlemen, meant for a punishment?" (Hawthorne, 2001, p.8)

2. Hester and Love

Femaleness is always connected with love, but the presence of Hester, as the novel says, is the beginning of tragedy. She is the representative who suffers from irrational marriage. Prior to her marriage, Hester was a strong-willed and impetuous young woman—she remembers her parents as loving parents who frequently has to retain her incautious behavior. The reason why Hester marries Roger Chillingworth, the author does not give a clear answer, whereas from the sentence “it seemed a fouler offence committed by Roger, than any which had since been done him, that in the time when her heart knew no better, he had persuaded her to fancy herself happy by his side”, readers can get the idea that their marriage is not based on the basis of love.

Chillingworth spends long hours over his book and experiments, paying little attention to his wife Hester. Although he is “misshapen from his birth-hour”, he deludes himself with the idea that “intellectual gifts might veil physical deformity in a young girl’s fantasy”. Chillingworth takes Hester as a wife with the only purpose of kindling “the household fire” in his lonely and chill heart. However, his selfishness pulls Hester into the dark abyss. When Hester recalls the life spent with Chillingworth, she believes it to be “her ugliest remembrance”. “She marveled how such scenes could have happen! She marveled how she could ever have been wrought upon to marry him!”

Corresponding to Chillingworth’s malformation with “one of the shoulders rose higher than the other”, Hester is tall, “with a figure of perfect elegance on a large scale”. Even Chillingworth himself has to acknowledge “Mine was the first wrong, when I betrayed thy budding youth into a false and unnatural relation with my decay”. However, to reader’s surprise, this kind of abnormal marriage in under protection of puritan law and gets the recognition of the puritan public.

Hester is condemned to wear a scarlet letter “A” on her breast and suffer public shame in the scaffold. The scaffold is a painful task to bear; the townspeople gather around to gossip and stare at Hester and her newborn child Pearl. Due to her protection to her lover Dimmesdale and her desire for true love, Hester supports herself with unimaginable courage and endures unbearable misery, without telling the name of her lover. She makes up her mind to stand alone despite the opinion of the society. Hester emerges as a selfless lover making no demands on Dimmesdale and accepting her fate without any sign of criticism. The greatness of Hester can be seen from her lover’s compliment in Hawthorne’s work: “wondrous strength and generosity of a woman’s heart”.

In order to protect the life and good fame of Dimmesdale, Hester promises to conceal her husband Chillingworth’s true identity. But when she witnesses the intense misery against which the minister Dimmesdale struggle, and sees that he stands on the verge of lunacy, she determines to redeem her error to stop Chillingworth from hurting Dimmesdale further. Finally, Hester resolves to meet Chillingworth, and does what might be in her power for the rescue of the victim on whom he has so evidently set his gripe.

Hester’s unflinching love to Dimmesdale is also reflected in her desire to escape with him to a new land. “Is the world, then, so narrow? Doth the universe lie within the compass of yonder town? Wither leads yonder forest track? ... There thou art free! So brief a journey would bring thee from a world where thou hast been most wretched, to one where thou mayest still be happy!” (Hawthorne, 2001, p .165) It is much to be regretted that Dimmesdale dares not quit his post. At the crucial moment, for the sake of arousing him to pragmatic idealism, Hester fervently resolves to buoy him up with her own energy. She says continually and firmly, “Thou art crushed under the seven years’ weight of misery. But thou shall leave it all behind thee! ... Leave this wreck and ruin here where it hath happened. ... begin all anew! ... the future is yet full of trail and success. ... exchange this false life of thine for a true one... preach! Write! Act! Do anything save to lie down and die!” (Hawthorne, 2001, p .166) encouraged by Hester, the minister eventually resolves to flee with her. In order to give Dimmesdale encouragement and hope further, Hester, without the least hesitation, takes the scarlet letter from her bosom and throws it off, and next, she heaves a long, deep sign, in which the burden of shame and anguish departs from her spirit.

3. Hester and Her Child Pearl

Hester has a child and raises her by herself. She names the child pearl, “as being of great price — purchased with all she had—her mother’s only treasure”. Hester is a woman full of motherly love that she showers on Pearl. It is her love and concern for Pearl that makes her wonder her wonder if her child is abnormal. She worries about her lack of control and her shunning playmates.

In Hester’s opinion, “Providence, in the person of this little girl, has assigned to Hester’s change the germ and blossom of womanhood, to be cherished and developed amid a host of difficulties”. (Hawthorne, 2001, p .130) However, it has reached her ears that some of the leading inhabitants decide to deprive her of her child only because they cannot trust an immortal soul, such as Pearl, to the guidance of one who has stumbled and fallen amid the pitfalls of this world. Considering Hester, Pearl is her very life, her only treasure purchased with all she has. By the control of this idea, Hester defends her right to raise Pearl bravely while in the confrontation with Governor Bellingham. This is her first time to rebel and challenge the church and the secular ruler in public. Although Hester is isolated and cut off from help, and so conscious that it seems scarcely an unequal match between the puritanical magistrates, she still set forth and is ready to defend them to the death. She cries with almost a fierce expression, “God gave me the child. He gave her in requital of all things else, which she had taken from me. She is my happiness! ... Thou shall not take her! I will die first!” (Hawthorne, 2001, p .72) At this time Hester realizes that she has the responsibility and capacity to raise the child, so she repeats, raising her voice almost to a shriek, “God gave her into my keeping; I will not give her up.” (Hawthorne,

2001, p. 72) Clearly, Hester, as an ordinary woman, cries out for nothing else, but for her indefeasible rights, which shows her extraordinary courage and rebellious spirit. With Dimmesdale's interference, Hester succeeds in keeping her Pearl with her.

In the novel, Hawthorne portrays Pearl with following feature: she is individual exist and escape far from the puritan society. She is a wild rose, abeam of sunlight a brook, and a lovely angel. The appearance of Pearl as Heater's daughter gifted so many virtues is a rebellion against Puritanism obviously.

In the puritan society, the mother should admonish her daughter to conform various kind of rules prescribed in the community. To be exactly speaking, the mother should teach her daughter how to be obedient to her future husband. However, being different from traditional mothers, Hester does not give Pearl this lesson. Through the scarlet letter "A", she conveys her potential maternal consciousness to Pearl, which enables her to understand female body and female passion. Wei (2003) argues that just like Hester's wish, Pearl does not follow her mother's way. She breaks the puritan rule permitting sons to have the right of succession, and accepts the inheritance from Roger. Thus Pearl becomes the richest heritress in the New Land. At last, she visits Europe and finds her lover. Pearl's happiness shows Hester's win to Puritanism and humanism's win to Puritanism.

B. *Hester's Self-reliance*

Recalling from her own experience, Hester believes that women are regarded as dependents upon men in the puritan society. This situation leads to women's tragic lives. With the lofty ideal of gaining self-reliance, women have to take action as soon as possible, just as what Hester thinks about:

"As a first step, the whole system of society is to be torn down, and built up anew. Then, the very nature of the opposite sex, or its long hereditary habit, which has become like nature, is to be essentially modified, before women can be allowed to assume what seems a fair and suitable position. Finally, all other difficulties being obviated, woman cannot take advantage of these preliminary reforms, until she herself shall have undergone a still mightier change ..."

By the control if this idea, Hester revolts against the social order of puritan society tenaciously. Not only has she won the self-reliance in economy, but also in thought.

1. Hester's Independence in Economy

In the Puritan society, who would succeed and who would fail are not determined by himself or herself, but by God. Man is divided into two groups. And the bad people cannot save or relieve themselves until they appeals to God's help. Li (2006) argues that this is a holy idea and cannot change; whereas Hester is an exception and changes it through her deeds. Though at her time, "It was the art almost the only one within a woman's grasp of needlework"; Hester possesses it that "sufficed to supply food for her thriving infant and herself". "Her needlework was seen on the ruff of the Governor; military men wore it on their scarves, and the minister on his hand; it decked the baby's little cap; it was shut up, to be mildewed and molded away, in the coffins of the dead." (Hawthorne, 2001, p. 39) These noble and holy places are decorated with her fine needlework. Undoubtedly, Hester gains her self-reliance in economy without appealing to God's help. She even does not turn to her lover Dimmesdale or her husband Chillingworth, who should have been responsible for her miserable life, for help. This is the true success for the femaleness, interpreting that women are not dependents upon men. They can earn their lives with their own hands and intelligence.

Thinking over into the deeper meaning, Hester's needlework is not only an art, but also a way for her to let off her emotions and passions. "Women derive a pleasure, incomprehensible to the other sex, from the delicate toil of the needle; to Hester it might have been a mode of expressing, and therefore soothing, the passion of her life."

2. Hester's Independence in Thought

In the puritan society, a woman should keep adherence to her husband, even she has not a bit love for him. And furthermore, she should kill her natural love within her, instead of letting it release and spoil. However, Hester does not follow this rule at all. She breaks away from her husband whom she did not love and falls in love with Dimmesdale. She dares to pursue her love freedom. It can be seen from her whole story that Hester never neglects such human values as individuality, personal freedom and private life. She has her own secret. When asked about her lover's name, she says "Never!" Hester uses individual rights and regards them as weapons to fire the Puritanism.

Her self-reliance in thought is repeated again when she confronts Governor Bellingham over the issue of Pearl's guardianship. She defends the mighty power with unimagined great courage, "God gave her into my keeping, I will not give her up!" Hester's action proves that the femaleness is not the weak, but to the opposite, the strong, who is able to find out methods to rescue themselves.

For the seven solitary years, "Hester never battled with the public, but submitted; incompliantly ... she never raised her head to receive their greeting. If they were resolute to accost her, she laid her figure in the scarlet letter and passed on." (Hawthorne, 2001, p. 46) outwardly, she wears the letter that labels her as an evil woman. Inwardly, she exists in her speculations, her solitude, her quiet hours with Pearl, her needlework, and finds these good. Though "the scarlet letter by which man had marked Hester's sin had such potent and disastrous efficacy that no human sympathy could reach her", satirically, it is just the scarlet letter that becomes her passport into regions where others dare not to tread. As Hawthorne describes: "She looked from this estranged point of view at human institutions, and whatever priests or legislators have established ... The tendency of her fate and fortunes had been to set her free ... Shame, despair, solitude! These had been her teachers, stern and wide ones, and they had made her strong." (Hawthorne, 2001, p. 168)

Shamed and alienated from the rest of the community, Hester becomes contemplative. She speculates on human

nature, social organization, and large moral questions. She is able to look at the people objectively and see much she was not able to see before. "Walking to and fro, with those lonely footsteps, in the little world with which she was outwardly connected, it now and then appeared to Hester that gave her a sympathetic knowledge of the hidden sin in other hearts." The people of the town are so busy covering up their faults and hiding their human passions, that they cannot see their own or each other's faults. Hester, who wears her mark of exclusion openly, does not have to worry about the opinion of others, and gains an institution — an insight into the hearts of the people who throw out.

By the novel's end, Hester has become a proto-feminist mother figure to the women of the community. Meng (2003) describes that the shame attached to her scarlet letter is long gone. Women recognize that her punishment stemmed in part from the town father's sexism, and they come to Hester seeking shelter from the sexist forces under which they themselves suffer. This fact suggests that Hester's self-reliance in thought has gained recognition among women.

IV. CONCLUSION

Through the whole story of *The Scarlet Letter*, it can be known that Hester is an extremely distinctive woman compared with traditional ones. Although suffering enormously from the shame of her public disgrace and from the isolation of her punishment, she still holds her head high and remains in full public view without shedding a tear. In order to protect her lover Dimmesdale, Hester makes up her mind to stand alone despite the opinion of society. In her inmost heart, she believes that her love to Dimmesdale is of dignity and grace. With her fine needlework, she manages to earn a living for her and her child Pearl. Hester, a woman with feminist consciousness, never falls but continually struggles against the evil forces. She dares to face her existence as a human being, especially as a woman.

All of her actions analyzed in this paper undoubtedly embody Hester's noble character of rebellious spirit, self-reliance and strong mind, which is exactly what feminism advocates. It can be concluded that Hester, with the feminist consciousness, has become the representative of a new female image, just as Nina (2000) describes, "In portraying the figure of Hester, Hawthorne creates the first real female protagonist as well as one of unforgettable heroines in American novel." (Nina. B. 2000)

Therefore, the definition of the new female image has come out, that is, one with the feminist consciousness. This kind of femaleness dares to trust her and to believe in the possibility of a new morality in the world, thus they are able to reform the old world and create a new one instead. In the novel, Hester indeed sets a typical example; unfortunately, owing to some limitations, such as he owns human weakness and the prejudice of the Puritan society, she cannot become a thorough feminist. In spite of this, the image of Hester plays an active role in promoting of feminism later. Through her life, Hawthorne puts forward a serious and considerable subject: How can women gain their deserved rights of equality and freedom? Li (2004) argues that although Hester does not realize her ideal, her new female image with the feminist consciousness will encourage women today to strive after the lofty ideal.

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Cultural Differences in Chinese and English Address Terms

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Abstract—Chinese and English address terms vary in types and characteristics. Chinese address system is more complex with more terms and a wider scope of application. As a special part of language, address terms are closely related to culture. Through the comparison between the Chinese and English address terms, the social and cultural elements embodied in the difference of the two systems can be revealed. The cultural difference in value concept, sense of hierarchy and sense of equality, and the different attitude toward the role of family greatly influence the difference between Chinese and English address terms.

Index Terms—address term, comparison, cultural difference

Language is the carrier of culture. Address term as a special part of language is closely related to culture. “An address term, or address form, refers to the word or words used to address somebody in speech or writing” (Dai, 2002, p127). Address term, which can reflect the relationship between speakers and the cultural connotation, is a kind of special language symbol. Compared with English address system, the Chinese address system is more complex with more types and a wider scope of application. Their differences are closely related to the different social and cultural background of their own.

I. THE COMPARISON BETWEEN CHINESE AND ENGLISH ADDRESS SYSTEMS

Chinese and English address systems are different but both of them can be classified into two types: kinship address and address in social intercourse.

A. Kinship Address

Kinship address can be further divided into two types: address of relatives and address of the non-blood.

a. Address of relatives

In modern Chinese, relative titles can also indicate people's status. For example, position in the family hierarchy (people of parents' generation: 伯, 舅, people of the same generation: 哥, 堂弟, 表姐), paternal or maternal relatives: 姑, 姨, blood relatives or relation by marriage: 哥, 嫂子. However, in English relative titles are more general and ambiguous. A term often has several meanings. “sister” can be 姐姐 or 妹妹; “grandmother” is either 奶奶 or 外婆; “uncle” may be 叔、伯、舅、姑父; “cousin” is even omnipotent: 堂兄弟姐妹、表兄弟姐妹 are all cousins. There is neither sex distinction.

In Chinese, brothers and sisters often address each other according to the age, such as 二哥, 四妹. But in English-speaking countries people conventionally call names. They even directly call their parents' brother or sister their names.

b. Address of the non-blood

In Chinese a considerable part of relative titles can address people who have no blood relationship, such as 叔叔, 爷爷, 大哥, 伯母. We can see that the extending of kinship address is very common and the whole society can be related by kinship address. On the contrast, English kinship address is barely extended. “aunt” and “uncle” can only be used to address familiar or intimate persons, and they are usually followed by addressee's name, for example, Uncle Tom, Aunt Lucy.

B. Address in Social Intercourse

Address in social intercourse is classified into the following types:

a. Post and rank address

Generally speaking, in Chinese the words that express social status, such as job, post, professional title, can all be used in the appellation. Job appellation such as teacher, driver, lawyer; post appellation such as director, minister, manager, secretary; professional title appellation such as engineer, accountant, lecturer; title appellation such as general, colonel. They are often used with names to show speaker's respect. On the contrary, in English post and rank address is not often adopted. The form “title + last name” is often used to address imperial kinsmen, government officials and people in religion and military circle, for example, President Bush, Prince William, Pope John. The form “common profession or post + last name” is used to call doctors and professors, such as Doctor Smith. For the common address form “老师”, we can not find its corresponding address form in English. In English-speaking countries students call male teacher “Sir” and female teacher “Miss” or “Mrs.”, such as Mr. Brown, Miss Stone. Sometimes they simply call their teachers ‘Sir’ or ‘Miss’. Generally speaking, in Chinese post and rank address is much more extensive and complicated than in English.

b. Name address

In Chinese name address is often used among the same generation. Among the kiths and kin pet names are often used such as 小丽, 亮亮. Only the lover or the close relative uses the first name alone to address, for example, 丽、亮. The difference of address demonstrates the degree of familiarity.

In English name address is an important component of the whole address system. People's last name, first name, full name and pet name exist simultaneously. To intimate speakers, nickname or pet names are used more often. When Americans meet a person for the first time, they often ask him or her to call their first name. They even address parents and superior their first names. In Chinese first name alone is a very affectionate form of address and hence we should use it carefully between different sexes to avoid misunderstanding.

c. General term

English general term mainly includes Mr., Mrs., Miss, Ms, Madam, sir and lady. The former three are often used with last name. "Ms", a respecting term appearing in recent decades, is the result of Women Emancipation. The Chinese general term is as follows: 同志、师傅、老师、先生、小姐、女士. In the past, "同志""师傅" was very popular. Their range of usage became narrowed recently. "老师" is used very widely. Many people whose jobs are not related to teaching are also called "老师". "先生" and "小姐" are used most frequently in social intercourse. One point we should pay attention is that "先生" in Chinese can be either male or female, for example, 杨绛先生. It does not completely correspond with Mr. or Sir in English.

II. SOCIAL AND CULTURAL DIFFERENCES THAT DETERMINE THE DIFFERENT CHINESE AND ENGLISH ADDRESS TERMS

"Basically the language is the result of a kind of culture and the society, so it must be understood in terms of culture and society" (Liu, 1998, p. 183). The language stems from culture and reflects this culture, and culture permeates in the language again. Chinese and English address systems are the results of inside social communication of each nationality, reflecting each nation's custom and culture. From the different address systems the following social and cultural differences in Chinese and English can be reflected:

A. *Difference in Value Concept*

Chinese culture recommends being modest, prudent and the spirit of devoting for others, while the western culture represented by British and American culture stresses individuality and puts emphasis on self-orientation and independence. So the core of Chinese communication is other-oriented while the core of western communication is self-oriented. The former puts the collective value in the highest position and the latter regards personal value highly. Consequently, Chinese use more respecting terms and modest words. They always like putting themselves in a lower position in communication in order to show courtesy, such as "晚辈"、"您"、"令尊". In English, the respecting terms can be cut off. "您" and "你" can be both expressed as "you". "晚辈" and "令尊" have no corresponding address forms in English.

B. *Difference in Sense of Hierarchy and Sense of Equality*

Because of the influence of the ancient Confucianism over Chinese culture, the thought of hierarchy still occupies an important position in social relationships. Chinese usually add the post appellation after the surname to show respect and the addressee's identities when addressing people who have posts. Higher authorities often address subordinates their names. In western culture, consciousness of equality is relatively strong. There is no stern idea of hierarchy. They address others by given name among ordinary people, colleague, the superior and the subordinate, parents and children. They usually ask others to call their first name in order to establish equal relationship with others. Mr./ Mrs./ Ms./ Miss. is added before the surname if necessary. For example, they introduce the superior as "this is Mr. Wang, our dean"; while Chinese say "这是王主任".

Chinese traditional society is a patriarchal one. Old and young are clearly demarcated among kinfolks. The seniority in the family is rigorously enforced. It is considered to be very rude for the younger generation to address the elder by name. In Chinese "老" represents a kind of qualification, dignity, and authority. Chinese often use "老" with surname to address others. People call elders "张老" "李老" while "老张" "老李" are used among the same generation to show they are familiar. But if we add "Old" before the surname of British or American to address them, it will make them feel baffled.

C. *Difference Regarding the Role of Family*

Family is the basic composition unit of the society and the relationship in family is the foundation of the complicated social relationships. In the history of China, such traditional idea as "raising sons to support one in one's old age" is deep-rooted, so the extended family makes up the basic unit of society. In kinship address the position in the family hierarchy is rigorously enforced and kinfolk's relation becomes more and more complicating. On the contrary for British and American, the basic family members only include parents and children; what's more, the big family has been replaced by the nuclear family because people have changed the view of bearing. In this way the number of kinfolks were reduced obviously; the relationship among relatives became more and more simple, and the appellation is simplified too.

In addition, Chinese subconsciously think family enlarges the society. Traditional interpersonal relationships in China are actually tied by kindred. In this kind of interpersonal relationships, people have extremely strong attachment to family. So in Chinese address terms, kinship address is greatly extended to outsiders. A child can call strangers "叔叔"、"阿姨". Adults can call others "大哥"、"伯母". But westerners think "a man's home is his castle", namely a person's family is sacred and inviolable, therefore the British and American are not used to bringing the non-blood into the network of relatives.

III. CONCLUSION

Address terms is the precursor of communication and an essential component of language. Stemming from different nationalities, the Chinese and English address systems are formed in different language systems, and exist simultaneously in different social cultural background for a long time. So there exists great difference which would make foreigners confused. The cultural difference in value concept, sense of hierarchy and sense of equality, and the different attitude toward the role of family greatly influence the difference between Chinese and English terms. Both language learners and users should know well about the English and Chinese address terms, including the social and cultural elements embodied in them. It's necessary for successful cross-cultural communication.

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Promoting Learner Autonomy through Developing Process Syllabus—Syllabus Negotiation: the Basis of Learner Autonomy*

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Abstract—In the 21st century, the importance of helping students become more autonomous in their learning has become one of its most prominent themes. Autonomy is usually defined as the capability to take charge of, or responsible for, one's own learning. Nowadays, autonomy is widely accepted as a desirable goal in education. With promoting learner autonomy as the ultimate goal of education comes the question of how to foster learner autonomy. In this essay, we are arguing for the provision of circumstances and contexts for language learners through developing process syllabuses in the language classroom to help them make decisions for their own learning through negotiations. This practice of negotiated syllabus emphasizes the value of collaborative learning, learner-centredness, learner autonomy and shared decision making. We practiced producing process syllabus in the Advanced Speaking and Listening Course between 2006 and 2008 and we found out that through negotiations of purposes, contents, ways of working and evaluation, students are going through the various stages of producing languages and by shifting the power into students' hands, they become highly motivated and whole-heartedly involved and take on greater responsibility for their own learning.

Index Terms—learner autonomy, process syllabus, negotiations, responsibility for one's own learning

I. INTRODUCTION: LEARNER AUTONOMY AS THE DESIRABLE GOAL OF EDUCATION

Learner autonomy has attracted more and more attention in education especially in the western world since 1970s. Nowadays, autonomy is widely accepted as a desirable goal in education, and “few teachers will disagree with the importance of helping learners become more autonomous as learners” (Wenden, 1991, P.11). Holec (1981, p.3) defined autonomy as “the ability to take charge of one's own learning”. Dickinson(1987, p.11)accepted the definition of autonomy as “the situation in which the learner is totally responsible for the decisions concerned with his/her learning and the implementation of these decisions”. Little (1990, p.7) suggests that learner autonomy is essentially a matter of the learner's psychological relation to the process and content of learning. In Pennycook's (1997, p.45) political-critical viewpoint, development of autonomy and agency must involve becoming “an author of one's own world”. All the definitions of autonomy entail capacity and willingness on the part of the learner to act independently and in cooperation with others, so as to be a socially responsible person. Modern education places great value on the development of the learners' humanistic qualities and “humanistic education is based on the belief that learners should have a say in what they should be learning and how they should learn it, and reflects the notion that education should be concerned with the development of autonomy in the learner” (Nunan, 1988, p.20). Developing from moves towards communicative language teaching, recent innovations in classroom practice have emphasized the value of collaborative learning, learner-centeredness, autonomy and shared decision-making in the classroom. “One corollary of learner-centeredness is that individualization will assume greater importance, as will the recognition that the autonomy of the learner is our ultimate goal” (Brookes & Grundy, 1988, p.1).

With promoting learner autonomy as the ultimate goal of education comes the question of how to promote learner autonomy and how to make it more likely that learners take charge—at least temporarily of the whole or part of their learning, especially in Chinese context. In China, working in the context of a centralized educational system which prescribes curricula, authorizes textbooks and sets external exams, students are used to taking the teacher as the authority and expert in handling the textbooks and making decisions about what they should learn and how they should learn. For teachers, it is easier to produce a well-planned, neatly packaged curriculum by deciding well in advance exactly what is to be studied and where and when and how it is to be presented. However, we trust that when students are involved in the process of decision-making, options and choices and when they can have their say through

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negotiation and when they become aware of learning procedures, they will learn best, because ‘People learn best from utterances in which they have a strong personal stake or “investment”’(2000, cited in Pnina Linder). Therefore, it is important for teachers to provide the circumstances and contexts for learners to help them rather than prevent them from exercising their autonomy so that they can take charge of the whole or part of their language learning. Here in this paper we are arguing for the provision of circumstances and contexts for language learners through developing process syllabus in the language classroom to help them make decisions for their own learning through negotiations because we trust that “a classroom based upon negotiated knowledge and procedures allows the learner autonomy on an equal footing with others in the group and as a contribution to the good of the learning community” (Breen and Littlejohn, 2000, p.22). The significance of negotiation for language learning was originally recognized by Evelyn Hatch when she explored how learning might actually derive from the kinds of interaction in which learners may be involved (Hatch, 1978). Process means taking students through the various stages of producing language and it emphasizes the value of collaborative learning, learner-centeredness, learner autonomy and shared decision making in the language classroom. The nature of a process syllabus is, through ongoing process of negotiation, to help students make clear of their alternative assumptions and interpretations, identify the range of achievements and difficulties in the work and reveal their preferences and alternatives in ways of working.

“Fundamental to the nature of classroom work is the type and content of the syllabus which frames the work teachers and students do together” (Breen & Littlejohn, 2000). In traditional syllabuses, the content is prescribed by syllabus writers before a course begins, therefore, traditional syllabuses are predictive documents because they set out what is to be taught. These syllabuses are product-oriented, which focus on the outcomes of instruction, i.e. the knowledge and skills to be gained by the learner. However, process syllabuses focus on the skills and processes involved in learning language and the learning experiences themselves rather than on the end products of these processes. An important characteristic of the process syllabus is that it is an infrastructure rather than a learning plan, with the syllabus designer no longer pre-selecting learning content, but providing a framework for teacher and learners to create their own on-going syllabus in the classroom (Breen, 1987a, p.166), thus allowing for changing abilities, learning needs, and perceptions in the learners, without specifying particular content, methodology, lexis, structure, or grammar (Breen, 1987a, p.168). The process syllabus is a radically analytic syllabus. In its strong form at least, not only the content but the materials, methodology and types of assessment used in a course are not pre-determined but are negotiated between the instructor and the learners throughout the course. That is, learners help select course content and materials and provide input on how they want to be taught and assessed. Process syllabuses have therefore evolved “as a means of planning, implementing and evaluating negotiation in the classroom, and the decisions to which teachers and students may jointly arrive” (Breen & Littlejohn, 2000, p.2). It distinguishes itself from conventional, content syllabuses by identifying classroom decisions as potentials for negotiation whereby teacher and students together can evolve and work through the actual curriculum of the classroom group (Breen & Littlejohn, 2000, p.29).

II. A PROCESS SYLLABUS IN PRACTICE: PRACTICE OF A PROCESS SYLLABUS ON THE COURSE OF ADVANCED LISTENING AND SPEAKING

For many years, from the year 2000 until now, together with a group of teachers in my department (College English Department, DaLian University of Technology), we have been doing research on how to improve learner autonomy through strategy training, developing our own teaching materials and setting up self-access center; and in 2006, we began to focus on the research of developing “process syllabus” in the language classroom through negotiation with students and negotiation between students. We understand from our experience that it is easier to produce a well-planned, neatly packaged curriculum by deciding well in advance exactly what is to be studied and where and when and how it is to be presented than to produce “process syllabus”, an on-going syllabus based on negotiation. Working in the context of a centralized educational system Chinese students are used to following prescribed curricula, using authorized textbooks and studying hard for external exams. They tend to regard the teacher as the authority and expert in handling the books and teaching them the concepts and knowledge in the books, so they are used to listening to the teacher carefully and taking notes in class, answering the questions asked by the teacher and finishing the tasks designed by the teacher either individually or in groups. In a word, Chinese students do not have much say in deciding what they should learn and how they should learn. Most of the time, they are just passive recipients instead of active and critical thinkers. However, our interest and desire with “process syllabus” and teacher-learner negotiation stemmed from our belief that it will bring a lot of benefits, and that it can help students to become life-long, independent learners in the long run. We believe that negotiating a syllabus will help to take into account the wants and needs of the students and promote learner motivation, and more importantly it will encourage students to take much more responsibility for their own learning, in this sense, their learner autonomy will be greatly improved. We trust that when students are involved in the process of decision-making, options and choices and when they can have their say through negotiation and when they become aware of learning procedures, they will learn best, because ‘People learn best from utterances in which they have a strong personal stake or “investment”’(2000, cited in Pnina Linder). With such strong belief, in spite of the difficulties and challenge, we started to practice “process syllabus” on the course of Advanced Listening and Speaking between 2006 and 2008.

The course of Advanced Listening and Speaking is the only remaining practical language course for juniors and

seniors at our university and it fell outside the language-acquisition and language-testing part of the degree scheme. All the students have passed National Band-4 College English Test and most of them have passed national Band-6 College English Test. Moreover, we do not have prescribed curriculum, authorized textbooks for this course, so we can choose our own teaching materials to meet the students' needs. Another factor in our favor is that this may well be students' last English-language course in life and they are highly motivated to make it useful to what they are doing at the moment, or to what they want to do after they have graduated. We operate the process syllabus in four classes, each consisting of 25/26 students from Economics Department and Management Department. They are required to take this course to reinforce their English study by their departments (Usually students are not required to enroll in English courses after two years' study at college). The course is timetabled for a two-hour session once a week during the academic year. We carried out the negotiation process in four areas as Breen and Littlejohn suggested: purposes, contents, ways of working and evaluation.

At first meeting we introduced the concept of negotiated syllabus to our students, which is an important step to the success of the fulfillment of the process syllabus. We must help students understand the importance of being responsible for their own learning and how we are going to create the circumstances and context for them to exercise autonomy and take charge of their language learning. I still remember how puzzled and excited they were. They were puzzled because they had never heard of this concept before and they had never thought they could be involved in the process of developing a syllabus. From kindergarten on they have been passively following the syllabus designed and prescribed by educators and teachers. Now when they were given the right to develop their own syllabus, they were at a loss what to do at the very beginning. Meanwhile, they were also excited because they were eager to try something new and they were bored with the centralized educational system with prescribed curricula and authorized textbooks. They were at their late junior year and were eager to make this final English course useful to them in their future work. In this sense they were happy to choose the topics and materials they think useful to them. We are grateful that they were not against this new method of teaching and learning; instead, they were very supportive and cooperative.

A. *Negotiation of Purposes*

At the start of the first session, we presented a questionnaire to the class to get to know the attitudes, experiences, needs and wants of the students. Fig. 1 illustrates the questionnaire we designed and used.

Questionnaire: What Are Your Wants and Needs?	
Name:	Student Card Number:
Department:	
1. What would you expect that we should do in this Advanced Listening and Speaking course? What are your expectations? Or could you make some suggestions about what should be done to help you gain the most?	
2. What difficulties did you have with your listening and speaking?	
3. What types of activities did you benefit/enjoy most in your previous English class at senior middle school or at college?	
4. How do you like to work in class?	
a. on your own	
b. in pairs	
c. in groups	
e. in a taught class	
5. What kind of learning materials do you like?	

Figure 1

First, we gave students 30 minutes to write down their answers alone. Then, we began to have an oral discussion about their expectations, their English learning experiences and their suggestions. Finally, these questionnaires were analyzed and the findings were presented to the class and then agreed procedures of work were drawn up. The questionnaire engendered a climate of sharing and thinking about learning and a climate of trust.

Based on the questionnaire and the discussions, we finally set the aims for this course.

1. Listening and speaking strategies training: The analysis and the discussions show that these students are at different levels. Some of them have great difficulty with their listening and are not brave enough to open their mouth to speak English at all and they told me this course should not be called advanced listening and speaking, for they haven't reached the advanced level. Therefore, they need the basic training of listening and speaking strategies.

2. Developing listening and speaking skills through doing: they need to be actively involved in the activities in which they need to practice their listening and speaking. In fact, they will be involved in every stage of their learning process instead of sitting there, waiting for the teacher to assign the tasks to them and finish the activities designed by the teacher.

3. Developing collaborative and team work spirit: they need to work in groups to accomplish the tasks. They will form "student teachers" groups and work out their teaching plan through student-student negotiation before they "teach" in class.

4. Becoming an independent life-long learner: This is the aim we set for them. We trust that practicing negotiation can lead to learner independence, learner assumption of responsibility for learning and potential for life-long learning.

B. *Negotiation of Content*

For this course there are no prescribed and authorized textbooks. We can enjoy the freedom to choose our own

teaching and learning materials, however, it is difficult to decide on the content in this sense. We have already set our goals at our first meeting, therefore, the choice of the content must agree with those aims. We need to discuss what topics, themes should be chosen, what skills, strategies or competencies should be improved and what puzzles, problems or focus for investigation should be addressed. To make it easier we finally decided that the content should be topic-based. Based on the topics, we will conduct skills and strategies training and help students work out their puzzles and problems.

At the end of the first session we assigned students the task of thinking about what we need to cover in this course and what topics, themes, or specific uses of learning this course should be focused on. They were required to bring back their choice of topics at the second session. At the second session we had a very heated discussion about what topics and themes we need to focus on and how the learning work should be carried out. We did the discussion/negotiation in small groups (4-or-5- person groups) first and they tried to reach agreement on their choice of the topics. Then the group leader presented the results to the class and explained why they chose those topics. Finally, the whole class reached an agreement on the topics that need to be covered in this course. They made the choice of the topics based on their own interest, their ability and strengths, and their needs. At the end of this session they have also decided on the topics they are going to teach as “teacher group”, which will be discussed in the next section and they are required to think about how they are going to teach, what activities they will design, what tasks they should assign to their “students” and how they are going to organize the class activities and evaluate their students’ learning outcomes. That is, they will act as “teachers” and they will come up with their own teaching syllabus.

In the process of negotiation we are trying to help students understand that the process is the most important content of this course and they will learn a lot more in the process of negotiation and accomplishing the tasks than reverting to teacher dependency. Everyone should commit himself to the joint responsibility for making the course meaningful and productive.

C. *Negotiation of Methods*

The method of working on this content is also negotiated. The class is divided into 5 groups, each group consisting of 5-6 persons. Each group will be in charge of two topics and design tasks by themselves. They decide what resources they should use, what types of materials would be most appropriate, what working procedure or set of instructions should be followed and what can best be done in class and outside class. They also organize the whole class to carry on the tasks they have designed. In the process, they negotiate with each other through cooperation and find out the best way to carry out the tasks. We provide help and guidance they need and give them supervision before they present their teaching to the whole class. In fact, they are student teachers.

Here is the process of negotiation of method. Having decided on the topic, teacher groups will work together and discuss what tasks they will design to achieve their teaching aims. In the process they might have a lot of discussions and even arguments, but finally they must reach an agreement in order to accomplish their teaching task. When they are clear about the tasks they are going to carry out, each member will choose the task they are interested in by taking into account their ability and strengths and then they begin to design activities and find the appropriate materials by resorting to the resources in the library and on the Internet. In this process they will work individually but individual can make a difference because they are working toward the same goal and each makes his own share of contribution. After each member has done their share, the group will come together again and incorporate their tasks together and produce their teaching syllabus in which they will present their aims, the content (the tasks) , the method and they must be clear about what tasks they are going to assign to their “students” to involve all the students into the learning process. Next, they will rehearse under the teacher’s guidance before they begin their teaching in class. Finally, they “teach” in class and are evaluated by the teacher and their “students” at the same time. (See fig. 2)

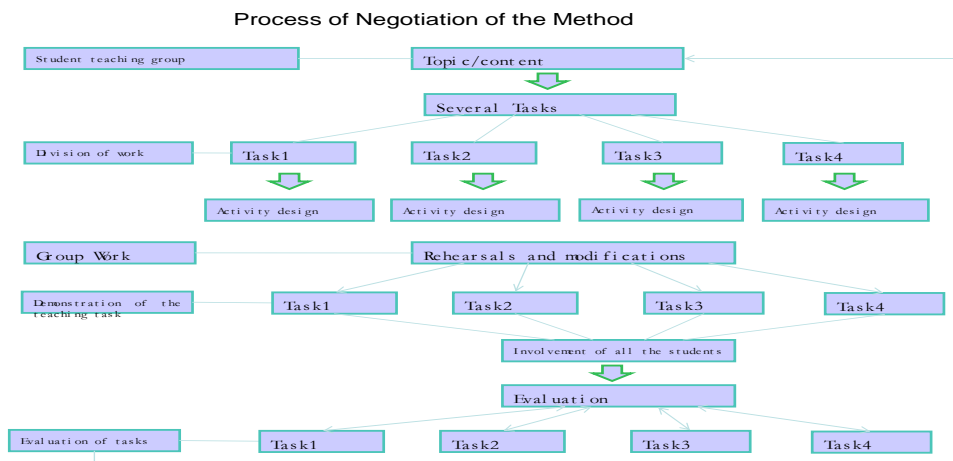


Figure 2: Process of Negotiation of the Method

D. Negotiation of Evaluation

In the students’ previous experience their performance is only evaluated by the results of the exams: Mid-term exam (30%) and final exam(70%), but for this course we practiced formative evaluation (see the evaluation forms below). Students are evaluated by their participation in their preparation for class activities in their groups, by their performances in class activities and by their contribution to the class activities. Each student will be evaluated by their group members first about their contribution to the accomplishment of tasks, based on the following criteria: how much contribution they have made in the designing of tasks, in the choice of materials, in the discussion of methods of how to carry out the tasks and in the technical aspects such as making a PowerPoint, playing video programmes, etc. Then the student teachers will be assessed by the whole class. Each student is a “judge” and they grade the “teachers” based on their observation of the teachers’ performance in class: how they are presenting the tasks, how they are organizing the class activities and to what degree they have achieved their aims. We teachers will grade each student based on their overall performance. In sum, the final grade is decided by the three evaluations: one done in their own groups, one by the class and one by the teacher. This process evaluation will account for 50 percent of the total final mark. Another 50 percent is decided by the final exam, which mainly tests students’ listening skill. Here are evaluation forms we have used.

GROUP EVALUATION

Group members	Preparations(Ss’ involvement in the choice of materials, designing activities, rehearsing, cooperating with others and making PPT) 20 points	Design of Tasks/ Activities 10 points	Performances (language and content) 20 points	Total 50 points
1. Name				
2. Name				
.....				

CLASS EVALUATION

Student Teachers	Choice of materials 10 points	Design of tasks/Activities(Ways of working on the content) 20 points	Performances (language and content) 20 points	Total 50 points
1.				
2.				
.....				

TEACHER’S EVALUATION

Students	Choice of materials 10 points	Design of tasks/Activities(Ways of working on the content) 20 points	Performances(language and content) 20 points	Total 50 points
1.				
2.				
.....				

STUDENTS’ FINAL MARKS

Students	Formative Assessment (50%)				Final Exam (50%)	Total (100%)
	Group Evaluation	Class Evaluation	Teacher Evaluation	Average of the three evaluations		
1.						
2.						
.....						

The above is the illustration how we practiced process syllabus on the course of Advanced Listening and Speaking. It can be condensed into the following chart.

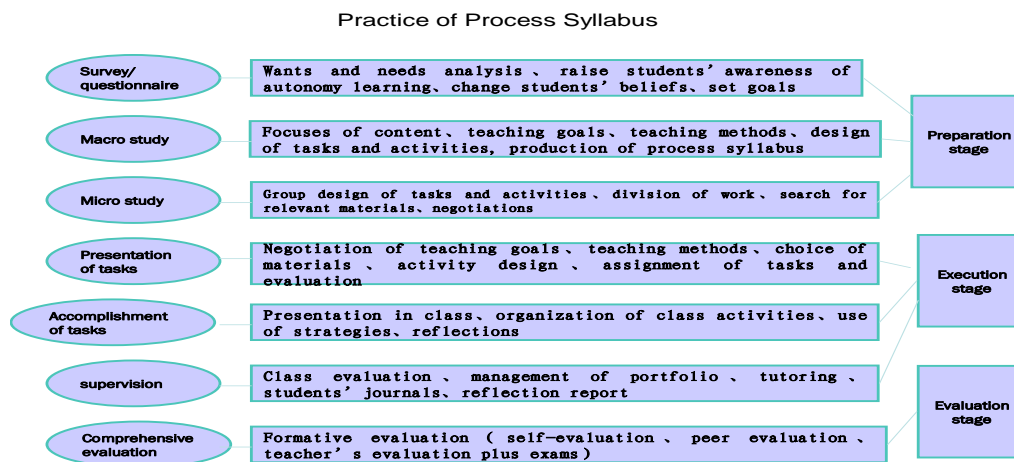


Figure 3: Practice of Process Syllabus

III. REFLECTIONS AND DISCUSSION: SYLLABUS NEGOTIATION-THE BASIS OF LEARNER AUTONOMY

Conventionally, it is assumed that it is the teacher's role to make decisions with regard to purposes of the work, focus of content, ways of undertaking the work and evaluation of students' performances, both covertly as part of planning and classroom management and through overt instructions at key moments in a lesson. However, through two years' experiment and several years' learner autonomy research, there are several justifications for raising such decisions to the level of overt negotiation with students. The process of negotiation functions as managing teaching and learning as group experience and students are highly motivated when they are given the power to make the decisions, options and choices by themselves, when their wants and needs are taken into account and when they have their voices heard by others. Here we would like to cite students' reflections to summarize the benefits of undertaking the process syllabus (Every student is required to write about their reflections on this course in their summarization at the end of each semester).

A. *The Class is Students-dominated: Teachers Teach Less, but Learners Learn More*

"It seems that the teacher was liberated in class, but we learned more than just listening to the teacher's lecturing," commented student A in his reflections. Student B made the similar comments:

I have been learning English for almost eight years, but it is the first time that I have experienced such an innovative and original method, which fully motivates us to learn actively by ourselves. We acquire new things by doing things with our hands, with our mouth and more importantly with our minds. In previous English lessons it was always the teachers who did most of the talking (lecturing) in class, it seems they taught us a lot, but we learned very little.

The students realize that in class it is not the teacher who is dominating the class, but the students are. It has totally changed the conventional teaching method of students sitting there listening while the teacher is lecturing as an authority in front of them. In this course it is students themselves who are "teaching", and in the process of making a teaching plan, choosing teaching and learning materials, designing class activities and evaluating learning outcomes, they have learned a lot more. This corresponds with J. A. Comenius' education thought, "Let the main object... to seek and to find a method of instruction, by which teachers may teach less, but learners learn more." (website: <http://www.leading-learning.co.nz/famous-quotes.html#teaching>)

It is believed that students can progress in their ability to learn by becoming aware of the processes through which they learn, by conceptualizing their learning experiences, by being actively engaged in steering the process and by taking responsibility for organizing their learning experience (Esch, 1996, p.37). In this course we greatly encourage students to conceptualize their learning experience by being actively engaged in steering the process and by taking responsibility for organizing their learning experience, which has proved very beneficial to students.

B. *Process Syllabus Allows for Changing Abilities, Learning Needs, and Perceptions in the Learners*

The Process Syllabuses focus on the skills and processes involved in learning language and the learning experiences themselves rather than on the end products of these processes. An important characteristic of the process syllabus is that it is an infrastructure rather than a learning plan, with the syllabus designer no longer pre-selecting learning content, but providing a framework for teacher and learners to create their own on-going syllabus in the classroom (Breen, 1987a, p.166), thus allowing for changing abilities, learning needs, and perceptions in the learners, without specifying particular content, methodology, lexis, structure, or grammar (Breen, 1987a, p.168).

As teachers, we have all noticed how variously our different learners and groups of learners approach learning tasks. Sometimes learners with considerable proficiency in one domain perform surprisingly poorly in another. Sometimes a student with insufficient English surprises us with a striking skill in some particular area. Student D made the following

comments:

With time passing by, I have gained more and more confidence. I have grown from a shy boy, who was full of fear and panic at the thought of speaking English, to a confident man who enjoys speaking English. I enjoyed every minute in the English class.

This student is poor at oral English, but he is talented at computer and is a very good singer. He is responsible for making a PowerPoint and using English songs to help students practice pronunciation, intonation and other phonetic skills such as liaison and stress. His skill and strengths helped his group finish the tasks successfully and also helped him build up confidence. Being an “expert” on a topic noticeably increased self-esteem, and getting more and more confident week by week gave the learners a feeling of genuine progress. I have witnessed his becoming more and more actively involved in class activities. What’s more, other classmates of his are also positively influenced by his change. Here are the comments made by students E:

The lesson I like most is to learn how to improve pronunciation. I love listening to English songs, but I never paid attention to my intonation. After that lesson I became keen on improving my spoken English by listening to English songs, which is very helpful to me. I must say the English songs collected by D are very classic and catchy. His wonderful singing and confident teaching impressed me a lot. I trust he must have spent a lot of time making the preparations. I benefited a lot from this lesson.

Student G’s reflections also prove that students can enjoy learning from their peers with different abilities and perceptions.

This semester in the Speaking and Listening course I learned how to cooperate with others and how to listen to other’s ideas and suggestions. I found that everybody is very creative and has their own thoughts and good ideas, which helped me a lot in my own study. In addition, in the process of preparing the activities and participation in the activities, my thought and my abilities have been improved, which helped me increase my confidence.

From the students’ reflections, we can also learn that students are likely to have much to learn from their peers and they can be a rich resource for each other. Learners, regardless of their aptitude or ability, were capable of a positive and productive involvement in selecting their own content and learning procedures.

C. The Students are Highly Motivated and Responsible for Their Own Learning

The listening and speaking course in the first year at college is very boring, because most of the time we were doing discussions on the topics given by the teacher. This year, we had a new English teacher, who introduced a completely new method of teaching. Ms Ma entrusted the dominating power with us. We decided what we should learn in each lesson and we are “teachers” and had the power to make evaluations of the performances of students. At the beginning we didn’t understand why the teacher did so, but in the process we realized this method could promote our motivation and develop our abilities. When we were being student teachers, we needed to prepare a lot of materials, which, in fact is a process of learning. What’s more, we can decide on the content, which allows us to choose the topics, such as movies, cartoons, basketball, travelling, which we have great interest in to promote our learning of English.

The above comments were made by students C, from which we can conclude that by shifting the power into students’ hands, they become highly motivated and take on greater responsibility for their own learning. The learner is not simply a passive recipient in the process. Knowles (1990) argues that adults should have a strong voice in their education and in the way they learn. They are likely to be-or to wish to be-self-directed learners and usually need to be assured about the purpose of the learning. He also argues that adult learners move from dependency to self-directedness and use their life experience to enhance learning. Furthermore, learners were also positive in accepting responsibility for their own learning. These were also the findings of Dam and Gabrielsen when they investigated the extent to which young learners were capable of making decisions about the content and processes of their own learning (Nunan, 1996). We believe that in the process of negotiation and collaboration with group members when they are making decisions about the aims, the content, the ways and the evaluations, especially when they are presenting something to another group/class, it called for greater responsibility to their own group and led to increased motivation and greatly improved accuracy. The success of each group’s presentation was measured by the response and feedback of the other groups; thus there was a measure of in-built evaluation and a test of how much had been learned.

IV. CONCLUSION

Dewey believed that the educational process should encourage open-mindedness, wholehearted involvement, and, significantly, a sense of responsibility to oneself and the wider community (Dewey, 1938). Student-initiated teaching combined with syllabus negotiation brought all the learners to be more open-minded to other’s ideas, thoughts, suggestions and even criticisms, because greater control over the learning process, resources and language cannot be achieved by each individual acting alone according to his or her own preferences and collective decisions need to be arrived at by individuals achieving consensus and acting in concert. Collaborative decision-making requires the constant balancing of an individual’s agenda with everyone else’s as well as the balancing of particular goals with personal purposes and preferences for learning. In the classroom group, genuine autonomy has to be exercised in an interdependent way (Breen & Littlejohn, 2000, p.22). In the process of fulfilling the tasks they must be wholeheartedly involved to bring benefits not only to themselves but also to other students they “teach”. Above all, it enables them to

begin to take control of their own learning in ways that will be effective in terms of goals that they have determined for themselves. This practice of negotiated syllabus helps students to break out of the cocoon of dependence on the teacher. Once this has happened, negotiation inevitably becomes an ongoing process. It is thus that the foundations of autonomy are laid.

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Computer-assisted Foreign Language Teaching: Theory and Practice

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Abstract—One of the important components of applied linguistics is to study how computers are used in language teaching. This paper tries to scan the three stages of computer-assisted language learning (CALL) development, the relationship between CALL and linguistic theories and research methods. The paper also discusses some practical issues on CALL in China.

Index Terms—CALL, theoretical approaches, CALL research, CALL practice

Recent years have seen a bloom of interest in using computers for language teaching and learning. A decade ago, the use of computers in the language classroom was of concern only to a small number of specialists. However, with the availability of multimedia computing and the Internet, the role of computers in language instruction has now become an important issue confronting large numbers of language teachers throughout the world. This specific field is usually called computer-assisted language learning (CALL). The acronym CALL will be used as a short-cut term, for sake of brevity and convenience, which includes computer-assisted instruction (CAI), computer-assisted language teaching (CALT), computer-assisted language testing (CALT), as well as e-learning (Gu, 2006).

I. THE HISTORY OF CALL

Computers have been used for language teaching since the 1960s. The history of CALL can be roughly divided into three main stages: Structural /behavioristic CALL, communicative CALL, and integrative CALL (Warschauer, 2000). Each stage corresponds to a certain level of technology as well as a certain pedagogical approach. Table 1 below shows the three stages of CALL.

TABLE 1

Stage	1970s-1980s: Structural/ behavioristic CALL	1980s-1990s: Communicative CALL	21st Century: Integrative CALL
Technology	Mainframe	PCs	Multimedia and Internet
English-Teaching Paradigm	Grammar-Translation & Audio-Lingual	Communicative Language Teaching	Content-Based, ESP/EAP
View of Language	Structural (a formal structural system)	Cognitive (a mentally-constructed system)	Socio-cognitive (developed in social interaction)
Principal Use of Computers	Drill and Practice	Communicative Exercises	Authentic Discourse
Principal Objective	Accuracy	And Fluency	And Agency

(Warschauer, 2000)

Structural /behavioristic CALL was conceived in the 1950s and implemented in the 1960s and 1970s. Informed by the behaviorist learning model, this mode of CALL featured repetitive language drills, referred to as drill-and-practice. The best-known tutorial system, PLATO, ran on its own special hardware consisting of a central computer and terminals and featured extensive drills, grammatical explanations, and translation tests at various intervals (Ahmad, Corbett, Rogers, & Sussex, 1985).

Communicative CALL emerged in the late 1970s and early 1980s, at the same time that behavioristic approaches to language teaching were being rejected at both the theoretical and pedagogical level, and when new personal computers were creating greater possibilities for individual work. Communicative CALL stressed that computer-based activities should focus more on using forms than on the forms themselves, teach grammar implicitly rather than explicitly, allow and encourage students to generate original utterances rather than just manipulate prefabricated language, and use the target language predominantly or even exclusively (Jones & Fortescue, 1987; Phillips, 1987). Popular CALL software developed in this period included text reconstruction programs (which allowed students working alone or in groups to rearrange words and texts to discover patterns of language and meaning) and simulations (which stimulated discussion and discovery among students working in pairs or groups).

Integrative CALL shifts to a perspective which seeks both to integrate various skills (e.g., listening, speaking, reading, and writing) and also integrate technology more fully into the language learning process. In integrative approaches,

students learn to use a variety of technological tools as an ongoing process of language learning and use, rather than visiting the computer lab on a once a week basis for isolated exercises.

II. MAJOR THEORETICAL APPROACHES TO CALL

While the changes in language teaching are often characterized in terms of a polar shift from structural to communicative, we usually perceive a more complex overlapping of three theoretical movements--structural, cognitive, and socio-cognitive--in the recent history of language teaching (Kern & Warschauer, 2000). Because each of these three theoretical perspectives has influenced how computer technology has been used in language teaching, we will illustrate these three major theoretical approaches to CALL briefly.

A. Structural-behavioral Approaches to CALL

The earliest CALL programs, consisting of grammar and vocabulary tutorials, drill and practice programs, and language testing instruments, strictly followed the computer-as-tutor model. Developed originally for mainframe computers in the 1960s and 1970s, though still used in different variations today, these programs were designed to provide immediate positive or negative feedback to learners on the formal accuracy of their responses. This was consistent with the structuralist approach which emphasized that repeated drilling on the same material was beneficial or even essential to learning.

B. Cognitive Approaches to CALL

In line with cognitive/constructivist views of learning, the next generation of CALL programs tended to shift agency to the learner. In this model, learners construct new knowledge through exploration of what Seymour Papert has described as "microworlds", which provide opportunities for problem-solving and hypothesis-testing, allowing learners to utilize their existing knowledge to develop new understandings. Extending a tradition of thought popularized by John Dewey and Alfred Whitehead that learning occurs through creative action, Papert (1980) and his colleagues at the M.I.T. Media Laboratory flip the earlier computer-as-tutor metaphor on its head, seeing computers as things to be controlled by, rather than controlling learners. The computer provides tools and resources, but it is up to the learner to do something with these in a simulated environment (e.g., in Papert's Turtle Logo program, learners program a turtle to carry out their instructions).

C. Socio-cognitive Approaches to CALL

With socio-cognitive approaches to CALL we move from learners' interaction with computers to interaction with other humans via the computer. The basis for this new approach to CALL lies in both theoretical and technological developments. Theoretically, there has been the broader emphasis on meaningful interaction in authentic discourse communities. Technologically, there has been the development of computer networking, which allows the computer to be used as a vehicle for interactive human communication. Computers can play as mediation tools that shape the ways we interact with the world (e.g., accessing and organizing information through databases, spreadsheets, and word processors). Word processors, for example, facilitate the invention, revision, and editing processes of writing, allowing quick, easy (and reversible) reshaping of text. The purpose of programs based on this socio-cognitive approach was to allow the learner to reconstruct the original texts and, in the process, to develop their own constructions of language. Computer networking allows a powerful extension of the computer-as-tool, in that it now facilitates access to other people as well as to information and data.

To summarize, the computer can play multiple roles in language teaching. It originated on the mainframe as a tutor that delivers language drills or skill practice. With the advent of multimedia technology on the personal computer, it serves as a space in which to explore and creatively influence microworlds. And with the development of computer networks, it now serves as a medium of local and global communication and a source of authentic materials. This multiplicity of roles has taken CALL far beyond the early "electronic workbook" variety of software that dominated the second and foreign language marketplace for years and has opened up new ways in foreign language teaching. These trends are summarized in Table 2 below.

TABLE 2:
THE ROLE OF CALL IN STRUCTURAL, COGNITIVE, AND SOCIO-COGNITIVE FRAMEWORKS

	Structural	Cognitive	Socio-cognitive
What is the principal role of computers?	To provide unlimited drill, practice, tutorial explanation, and corrective feedback.	To provide language input and analytical and inferential tasks.	To provide alternative contexts for social interaction; to facilitate access to existing discourse communities and the creation of new ones.

III. RESEARCH ON CALL

Just as the paradigms of CALL have changed, so has research on the role of computers in the language classroom.

Early CALL research focused mostly on the language performance of students who had used CALL programs, attempting to determine whether those programs were superior to other methods for maximizing structural accuracy. The cognitive paradigm brought about research that looked at the development of individual processes, strategies, and competencies, using measures such as motivational surveys, observations, recordings of keystrokes, and think-aloud protocols. The socio-cognitive paradigm and an emphasis on learning through computer networks have brought about a focus on the way that discourse and discourse communities develop during use of computer networks (Kern & Warschauer, 2000). Table 3 summarizes the implications for research methods of the various CALL approaches.

TABLE 3:
RESEARCH IMPLICATIONS FOR VARIOUS CALL APPROACHES

	Structural	Cognitive	Socio-cognitive
orientation	product	cognitive processes	social and cognitive processes
methodology	quantitative: experimental-control comparisons	both quantitative and qualitative	principally qualitative: discourse analysis, analysis of sociocultural context
principal kinds of data	quantities/frequencies of words, errors, structures	think-aloud protocols, questionnaires, computer-recorded data (e.g., keystrokes)	transcriptions of social interactions, ethnographic observations and interviews

IV. ISSUES OF PRACTICE ON CALL

Viewed against the CALL history in terms of the global context, CALL in China seems to have no history. Computers applied for educational purposes are only a very recent event. Nevertheless, the turn of the millennium witnessed cyber rush in China with some CALL faculties established within a very short space of time (Gu, 2006). So China seems to have bypassed the pre-network CALL and stepped straightway into Web-based CALL. In the new context, we must confront some issues of practice on CALL.

A. *The Model and Pedagogy of CALL*

Generally speaking, there are three kinds of CALL models: 1) computer supported classroom teaching, 2) hybrid teaching, and 3) completely online course, long distance or local (Xie, 2007). These three types basically summarize the current CALL situation in China. However, the first two are much more popularly carried out than the last one which needs to proceed both in terms of research study and practical involvement.

New technologies do not only serve the new teaching/learning paradigms, they also help shape the new paradigms. The very existence of networked computers creates possibilities for new kinds of communication. A pedagogy of networked computers must therefore take a broad view, not only examining the role of information technology in language learning, but also the role of language learning in the information technology society. If our goal is to help students enter into new authentic discourse communities, and if those discourse communities are increasingly located online, then it seems appropriate to incorporate online activities for their social utility as well as for their perceived particular pedagogical value.

B. *CALL Software and Resources on Internet*

Where the computer is not seen as a substitute for a teacher, smaller, more limited, but more flexible software that individual teachers will use as an add-on to instruction or that will be placed in libraries as language references and resources would be more welcomed and practical. Language teachers could easily acquire this category of software, with hundreds of programs available. However, we must design some software with the thought of providing an integrated teaching solution--something that will (1) provide realistic, native-speaker models of the language in a variety of media, (2) offer a language learning curriculum,(3) do a needs assessment, (4) determine the best next step for the learner and provide practice with that skill area,(5) record what the student has done, along with an evaluation ,(6) be available at any hour and require no additional pay or benefits (Warschauer & Healey, 1998).

One of the great benefits of the growth of multimedia is that software vendors (and language teachers) no longer feel bound to grammar practice as the main goal of computer use in the language classroom. While the process has taken longer in the foreign language arena than in English language teaching, the movement toward communicative teaching with computers is clearly taking place (Warschauer & Healey, 1998). There are still a great many grammar and vocabulary drill programs available, but at least the vocabulary ones have started to be contextualized and to incorporate graphics, audio recording and playback, and video. Drills do have a place in language learning, particularly in the first stages of vocabulary acquisition where giving the same information in multiple modes, such as visual plus aural plus textual, enhances recognition and recall (Warschauer & Healey, 1998). More sophisticated error-checking can provide students real help in the feedback they receive, directing them to further practice or moving them to the next stage. Those who do need extra help with those aspects of language that improve with practice can use small, focused programs to give them additional time and assistance outside of regular class time.

Another direction in current software is the integration of media. As computer storage and memory prices have

dropped, software developers have been able to add in graphics, sound, animation, and video clips. Foreign language teachers are particularly helped by access to a variety of media to help make the language come alive to students for whom it is largely a distant abstraction. This trend can only accelerate, with faster and more powerful computers making longer video and sound clips practical. Intelligent CALL will fit the medium to the learner, ensuring that the media work in concert to enhance understanding. Developers need to restrain the urge to add anything and everything just to make a fancy-looking product, and instead focus in on selecting media to fit pedagogy, not vice-versa (Kozma, 1991). Hence, students can obtain large quantities of language data and the tools to examine the "data-driven learning". They can then build their own explanations of how language works. Having discovered the linguistic rules themselves, students are more likely to remember and use them through resources on internet.

C. *The Practitioners of CALL*

The practitioners in the new CALL era must master some basic conceptions and skills. As facilitators, teachers must in many ways know more than they would as directive givers of information. Facilitators must be aware of a variety of material available for improving students' language skill, not just one or two texts. They also need to know how to teach learners to use the material effectively. Teachers as facilitators have to be able to respond to the needs that students have, not just what has been set up ahead of time based on a curriculum developer's idea of who will be in the classroom.

Therefore, the practitioners themselves should obtain some basic skills which include: word operating and editing, electronic communication, simple internet front-page making, web resources searching, reorganizing and reusing, e-exercising and e-testing, and etc. Only with these concepts and skills, can the practitioners take advantage of the new era of CALL practice.

V. CONCLUSION

The role of CALL has changed greatly. Previously, it was used mainly for drills and exercises. Technological and pedagogical developments now allow us to better integrate computer technology into the language learning process. Multimedia programs incorporating speech-recognition software can immerse students into rich environments for language practice. Varied Software and large language corpora provide students' the means to investigate language use in authentic context. And the Internet allows for a great number of opportunities to communicate in the target language and multimedia information.

Future developments in networked communication, multimedia, and artificial intelligence will likely converge, creating a potentially more central role for the computer as a tool for authentic language exploration and use in the second language classroom (Warschauer & Healey, 1998). As our focus of attention gradually shifts from the computer itself to the natural integration of computers into the language learning process, we will know that computer technology has taken its rightful place as an important element of language learning and teaching.

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An Empirical Study of Stereotyped Images of China in American Media

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Abstract—The image of a country, like that of a person, is supposed to be recognized as a positive one while often stereotyped. The paper firstly explains what image and China's National Image are. Based on these, the term stereotyping is led in. In order to prove this, two examples of hot topics related to stereotyped image of China in U.S. media are given. They are China's One Child Policy as well as Tibet Issue and Xinjiang Riot. As the body, the paper further discusses the birth control policy which discourages people from producing more than one child; in addition, it speaks about the status quo and the history of Tibet and Xinjiang and what Chinese government has been doing in the two zones. Subsequently, three reasons of stereotyping are illustrated before the suggested solutions and conclusion are given finally.

Index Terms—China, stereotyped image, U.S. media, One Child Policy, Tibet Issue and Xinjiang Riot

I. INTRODUCTION

This paper mostly uses CNN and NYT as the example of American media. CNN is one of the representatives of Electronic media and NYT is one of the representatives of national wide newspaper.

The image of a person needs to be recognized as a positive one. So are countries which are made up of people and run by political elites. Historically speaking, political leaders have recognized that images matter. They have tried to promote favorable characters and get rid of unfavorable stereotypes of themselves. China's leaders are no exception.

But the people of any country are exposed to the media and naturally are affected and even induced to think of certain images in certain ways. The public has the right to be shown the fact about the people and image of another country to improve the international image of that country and to stop negative stereotyping.

A. *What is Image*

An image, as Rubinstein (1980) defined it, "is a message that is sent one individual or group to another." If a country is defined by the American media as a "rogue" state, chances are this country is isolated.

The image of one nation in another is determined greatly by the opinion of their leaders. The majority of people have no chance to personally see what a foreign nation is like, but they see images of these countries in the media. Ever since 1989, China's negative image in the U.S. media has been a hot topic of concern. Why?

The American media had been trying to "demonize" China by deliberately focusing on the negative side. The American media practitioners, however, denied that they had intentionally done anything to demonize China. They argued that the U.S. media's China coverage had been fair and normal enough. The debate starts from these two different viewpoints (Pan, 2003).

B. *What is China's National Image*

The Chinese government has tried to build the following images of China in international affairs: a peace-loving country, victim of foreign aggression, socialist country, bastion of revolution, anti-hegemonic force, developing country, major power, international cooperator (Wang, 2003).

Wang's research (2003) illustrates the following with figures. Americans share the view that China is a communist country. Americans generally agree with China's projected images of itself as a developing country and major power. Americans sometimes view China as exhibiting opposing hegemonic behaviors, but more often they see China as engaging in hegemonic behaviors. They sometimes view China as a victim of foreign aggression, but more often see China as victimizing its own neighbors. China portrays itself as a peace-loving nation, international cooperator, while Americans think exactly the opposite. According to the data here, they have never seen China as peace-loving. Instead, they frequently regard China as militant. Why are American images of China sometimes similar to, but often at odds with China's projected images?

Objectively speaking, China's economical backwardness and low living standards are the key elements to indicate its development status. While if judged subjectively, other images are thus more controversial such as anti-hegemonic force, peace-loving nation, and autonomous actor are more subjective subjects.

II. ON STEREOTYPING

Before defining stereotyping, let's look at a classical example:

Jack Cafferty, the CNN anchor, abused Chinese in his program:

"Well, I don't know if China is any different, but our relationship with China is certainly different. We're in hock to the Chinese up to our eyeballs because of the war in Iraq, for one thing. They're holding hundreds of billions of dollars worth of our paper. We also are running hundred of billions of dollars worth of trade deficits with them, as we continue to import their junk with the lead paint on them and the poisoned pet food and export, you know, jobs to places where you can pay workers a dollar a month to turn out the stuff that we're buying from Wal-Mart. So I think our relationship with China has certainly changed. I think they're basically the same bunch of goons and thugs they've been for the last 50 years." (Cafferty, 2008). On May 15, 2008, according to Chinese Foreign Ministry spokesman Qin Gang, CNN President Jim Walton sent a letter to Zhou Wenzhong, Chinese ambassador to the United States: "On behalf of CNN I'd like to apologize to the Chinese people for that. CNN has the highest respect for Chinese people around the world and we have no doubt that there was genuine offense felt by them over the Jack Cafferty commentary." CNN, however, denies that an apology to the Chinese government was ever made, stating that it was meant for the Chinese people alone. So the China image of CNN was obviously stereotyped. Although the apology was made, the bad consequences had been created because of the power of media. That's why they prefer to risk stereotyping at the least cost of making an apology.

We can see segment of a whole from the above. The word stereotyping was first used by journalist Walter Lippmann (1922) in his classic *Public Opinion* to describe judgments made about others on the basis of their ethnic group membership. Today, the term is more broadly used to refer to negative or positive judgments made about individuals based on any observable or believed group membership.

"Stereotypes are unconscious habits of thought that link personal attributes to group membership. Stereotyping is an inevitable concomitant of categorization: As soon as an observer notices that a "target" belongs to a stereotyped group (especially an out-group), characteristics that are stereotypically linked to the group are activated in the observer's mind." (Reskin and McBrier, 2000). Stereotyping is a cognitive component, a set of beliefs about a distinguishable group, wherein particular traits are thought to be characteristic of the entire group. They reflect beliefs what we think EVERY member of that group are like.

Statistically, at least one source has stated that more than 90% of media content disseminated by the western media headed by the US. More than 70% are spread from the transnational media in the west. The western media headed by the US control the discourse hegemony around the globe, hence, the stereotyping will continue fermenting in it (Wang, 2003).

There are many studies about this issue. T. Christopher Jespersen in his book *American Images of China, 1931-1949* attempts to explain why Americans throughout their history have viewed China, in part, with "naivete, paternalism, and awe." (Craft, 1996). China has been a named cottage industry and its fast rapid development has rehashed the old debate of why Americans and their leaders have consistently misperceived China.

Among the media to study for example of this stereotyping, besides CNN, "The New York Times" is essential. As the most prominent American newspaper, "The New York Times" has always self-claimed to be open-minded, objective and fair. It embraces the well-known motto "All The News That's Fit to Print", which is also printed on the front page as a masthead logo dating back to 1896.

However, there are still mounts of criticism, alleging that NYT, in the coverage of China, focuses only on the negative aspects of China. There seems to be two-sides of the portrayal of China's Image, Truth or Bias? I believe that on one hand, there is no persuasive, systematically gathered evidence to show that the U.S. media has been conspiring to demonize China. But on the other hand, we oughtn't to ignore that national interest as well as the media's critical nature predispose its negative inclination in covering China and may distort China's image (sina, 2009).

III. TWO EXAMPLES OF HOT TOPICS RELATED TO CHINA STEREOTYPED IMAGE IN U.S. MEDIA

A. *China's One Child Policy—The Birth Control Policy Discourages People from Producing More than One Child.*

China's one child policy which limits couples to one child was established by Chinese leader Deng Xiaoping in 1979 to limit China's population growth. Although designated a "temporary measure," it continues a quarter-century after its establishment. China will not consider changing its one-child policy for at least a decade for fear that a population surge could spark social and economic instability. The policy has prevented an additional 400 million births. China's population currently stands at 1.3 billion, growing 16 to 17 million annually.

On the other hand, it is not an all-encompassing rule because its limit actually applies to only a portion of the population who are ethnic Han Chinese living in urban areas. Citizens living in rural areas and minorities living in China are not subject to the law. Since rural couples are allowed up to two if their first child is a girl. The country's ethnic minorities are also exempt from these rules. This rule has caused a disdain for female infants to be like abortion, neglect and even abandonment which will result in the disparate ratio of 114 males for every 100 baby females under four. It is normal to be 105 males to 100 females.

Nonetheless, statistically, China's total fertility rate (the number of births per woman) is 1.7, much higher than slowly-declining Germany at 1.4 but lower than the U.S. at 2.1 (2.1 births per woman is the replacement level of fertility, representing a stable population).

Some media are very responsible for their reports. CNN's Ted Turner says Chinese one-child policy is not draconian. However, some non-mainstream media like Internet sources seem to be very negative on this case, not a blog is provoking. For example, Smeaton (2009) in his blog, wrote, the Chinese regime's 30-year record of infanticide, forced abortion, forced sterilization, torture, imprisonment and other crimes is so voluminous that Turner's comments are analogous to denying the Holocaust.

In a 28-word sentence, Smeaton used 8 acrimonious and very draconian wordings like regime, infanticide, forced, sterilization, torture, imprisonment, crimes and Holocaust.

Still, some others think that the one child policy is no respect the rights of the individual, but culturally, now in many Chinese's idea, the rights of the society collectively should prevail over the personal decisions. Many people know that China is an overpopulation country and it is the most populous country in the world. It has 1.3 billions people now. And it will be 1.5 billions people until 2033. It will be the summit population at that time. If it were not controlled, there would be a population explosion which may endanger beyond China.

In a word, the China's one child policy is a population control success since it is fit for China's situation. China is farseeing and responsible for her descendants.

B. *Tibet Issue and Xinjiang Riot*

a. China's status quo and Tibet history

China is not a single Ethnic nation, in fact, 56 ethnic groups make up China, including Han, Mongols, Koreans, Muslim, Tibetans etc. They are united as Chinese, so, in other words, China is just as multicultural as many countries.

Some solid facts can show why Tibet was, is, and always will be a part of China. Tibet has been a part of China for thousands of years. This is the "Legitimacy" as well as the fact.

What Chinese government has been doing in Tibet:

In 1903, due to the weak Qing Dynasty, British gained control over Tibet as a colonial region and treated them as slaves. In 1950 when Chinese regained Tibet, Tibet was still in a slavery society under Dalai Lama's puppet regime. The Chinese government spends 200 million Yuan (40 million US Dollars) a year developing Tibet, building schools, hospitals, infrastructures and etc.

Western news media like CNN would like to attack other countries' sovereignty and some governments never stop trying to split other countries apart. Nobody wants their home country to break it apart. CNN referred to Tibet as a "country." CNN's policy is to refer to Tibet as "Tibet Autonomous Region of China." Ironically, CNN's reputation is based on reporting global news accurately and impartially.

The coverage of CNN is pro-separatism, seeming that the Tibetan people are being oppressed. They are the products of their culture and their anti-communism. It still has a potential "cold-war" mentality.

b. Xinjiang Riots:

About Xinjiang:

The Xinjiang Uygur Autonomous Region (XUAR) is a largely Muslim area in the far northwest of China. In area it is the largest province-level unit in China, accounting for about one-sixth of China's total area. The most populous ethnic group is the Uygurs, after whom the XUAR is named. The Uygurs are Turkic ethnically and culturally, and strong adherents of Islam (Mackerras, 2001).

July 5 Riots:

The blood-thirsty maiming and slaughtering of civilians, as young as six years old, in Urumqi on July 5, is heinous homicide, barbarity against humanity, and terrorist act on China. They really did something "big": Up to 160 civilians were killed, and hundreds more seriously injured. The barbarity has astonished China and the world.

"Although the key July 5 reports by foreign media have improved to some extent, bias in the reporting still exists," said Phoenix Satellite Television commentator Lawrence Ho (2009).

The New York Times were found to be using real pictures with inaccurate captions. bbs.chinadaily (2009) tells a story: A New York citizen named Janet who grew up in Xinjiang commented in response to a New York Times report describing a "peaceful demonstration." "Does this mean lives are not important? If your wife or husband was killed, could you still call it "peaceful demonstrations?" Janet said. "The New York Times should do more research and not release this kind of false report.

Like Bin Laden who wanted the United States on fire and in ruins, the masterminds and ringleaders of "July-5" killings, hidden in China and abroad, are dreadful of and loath a strong and unified China. Like "September 11" to Americans, "July 5" will serve as a reminder to all Chinese people. The government must be ready and steadfast in a heightened alertness to combat fanaticism and terrorism, all the time. Meanwhile, China's anti-terrorism efforts ought to integrate with world's collective anti-terror regime to terminate terrorist financing, and rid it off (Li, 2009).

I might add, the criminals that CNN is speaking up for in Xinjiang unfortunately do not represent the Uyghur people. Actually, the people are honest and peace-loving in nature.

IV. THE REASONS OF STEREOTYPING

A. *The Enmity Sentiment towards Communism.*

Western media attention is usually paid to China's political system and its record on human rights. The U.S.

journalists tend to ascribe all China's problems, political, economic, and social, to China's communist system, a system that the American media dislike. On the subject like Chinese political system, Chinese economic reform, human rights, the Taiwan Issue, or Tibet, west media believe that the United States can "teach" China how to do it (Pan, 2003). The negative image fits well with the American stereotype of communist countries. The biases of China on the American media are just short of saying they hate China, their prejudice towards China is no less than those that openly admit it.

B. Cultural Difference, Especially in Religious Belief

Although research now shows religion has less and less influence in American life, it is still the dominant value of the American society which is determined by its culture, especially on the "Bible Belt". Among them, to some degree, the Americans' sense of being God's chosen people and the related concept of "manifest destiny" have greatly influenced American view of China and other countries. In the past 200 years of history of U.S.-China contact, China has been despised as a place of "heathens" or "pagans". This view is still popular today among many American media, especially because of the "alien" political system China has now (Pan, 2003).

C. Due to American National Character: Sense of Calling and Being More Concerned about Other Countries

American media show us the dominant assumptions held by the mainstream American society about China: Judge China with American standard, interrupt China domestic affairs with the excuse of being concerned of their freedom and democracy. Actually, no country is numb; they all are concerned about the happiness of their people.

V. THE SUGGESTED SOLUTIONS AND CONCLUSION

American media MUST get rid of its inherent stereotyping to change this stereotype on China. It's a pity to see that the American media like CNN hasn't realized the strength of Chinese public so far, and still take it for granted that all anti American media activities are supported and sponsored by Chinese government. They stereotype again. They underestimate Chinese people, which misleads them to a wrong direction.

It is also a valuable lesson for the American media to move towards a balanced and professional approach to journalism since the people of the world deserve a truthful, trustworthy, and intelligent reporting of events. The audiences need to be rightly informed. Before releasing the news, it is advisable do more research if it is uncertain so as not to mislead the readers or audiences. Otherwise, it will not only cheat the people but also hurt their feeling including the people in the news.

Educate the readers, to hear all parties, not to fix their eyes on the shadowy parts of China that the media has provided. Give an ear to more voices. China has more sunshine. Report China in a more tolerating way, not choosing to be negative. We all like a harmonious world.

Put oneself in someone's shoes and have a transposition, some reporters in the U.S. media are not anti-Chinese. For example, Nicholas Kristof of the NYT reported from and lived in China for years. His writings are widely read and he is definitely NOT anti-China. But some do not. Jack Cafferty of the CNN and the bloggers like John Smeaton refuse to understand something from other's perspective, they prefer to think in their own American way.

All China can do really is keep cautious and counter the Western propaganda with educated and understandable political education.

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On the Effectiveness of Applying English Poetry to Extensive Reading Teaching

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Abstract—English poetry plays an important role in fulfilling the goals of extensive reading teaching, but English poetry teaching is less than satisfactory in extensive reading teaching due to learners' attitude and traditional teaching methods and so on. Therefore, this thesis makes a study of the effectiveness of applying English poetry to extensive reading teaching from two aspects: the characteristics of English poetry and the functions of English poetry in extensive reading teaching. And in the end, this thesis puts forward some suggestions for how the teacher appropriately makes use of English poetry in extensive reading teaching.

Index Terms—English poetry, extensive reading teaching, characteristics of English poetry, functions of English poetry, effectiveness

I. INTRODUCTION

Extensive reading is one of courses to develop learners' language proficiency. The goals of extensive reading teaching are: to enlarge learners' vocabulary, to develop learners' reading comprehension and skills, to raise learners' cultural and intercultural awareness, to cultivate learners' logical thinking ability and so on. Someone thinks the ultimate goal of extensive reading is to produce independent and critical readers or to prepare students to be maximally effective in real life reading or to 'transfer' what they have learned into real life reading (Hamers and Csapó, 1999). The author thinks the ultimate goal of extensive reading teaching is to improve learners' creativity and self-cultivation and the author also believes that English poetry will play an important role in fulfilling the goals of extensive reading teaching if English poetry is properly used in teaching.

However, English poetry is often excluded from extensive reading materials and even though some poems have been selected and used as texts in some extensive reading textbooks, poetry teaching is less than satisfactory in extensive reading teaching. On one hand, in modern society, most learners are learning for a living or just to meet social need. They become indifference to the art and don't think it does much good to spend much time on reading English poetry. Even if someone might be attracted by poetic language, they would sacrifice their 'personal needs' for a 'bright' future. Even when they are taught English poems, they just listen to the teacher who helps learners solve linguistic puzzles. On the other hand, many teachers still focus too much on lexical and grammatical points or pay much attention to limited practice in various reading skills and strategies but give less attention to the development of learners' creativity and moral integrity which the essential-quality-oriented education stresses. So English poetry teaching becomes something like solving linguistic puzzles with the result that the aesthetic effects of English poetry can not be fully appreciated by learners who have no interest in poetry at first or will lose interest in learning English poetry.

Actually, English poetry, with its aesthetic values, is very useful reading material if it is used in an appropriate way. This thesis will carry out a study of effectiveness of applying English poetry to extensive reading teaching from the following aspects: the characteristics of English poetry and the functions of English poetry in extensive reading teaching.

II. THE CHARACTERISTICS OF ENGLISH POETRY

English poetry is the essence of English literature. According to *Oxford English Dictionary (XI)*, poetry may be defined as the expression or embodiment of beautiful or elevated thought, imagination, or feeling, in language adapted to stir the imagination and emotion, both immediately and also through harmonic suggestions latent in or implied by the words and connections of words actually used... Poetry is a form of literary art in which language is used aesthetically and evocatively. Poetry often uses particular forms and conventions to suggest alternative meanings in the words, or to evoke emotional or sensual responses, and to achieve aesthetic effects as well. The following part will mainly focus on three characteristics of poetry: musical sound effects, concise expressions and rich images.

A. Musical Sound Effects

Poetry is closely related with music. Just as Edgar Allan Poe states that "Poetry is music which is combined with a pleasurable idea, the rhythmical creation of beauty in words". Ezra Pound defines poetry as "...a composition of words set to music" (Pound & Ford, 1982, p.20). English poetry creates beautiful and musical sound effects through the

regular repetition of stressed and unstressed syllables, alliteration and rhyme and so on. Let's take Alfred Tennyson's poem *The Eagle* as an example.

The Eagle
 He clasps the crag with crooked hands;
 Close to the sun in lonely lands,
 Ringed with the azure world, he stands.
 The wrinkled sea beneath him crawls;
 He watches from his mountain walls,
 And like a thunderbolt he falls. (Liu Shoulun, 2003, p.18)

The above short poem displays a strong musical sense. First, the poet mainly utilizes the iambic-tetrameter form of meter, but he changes iambic foot into trochaic foot in the beginning of the second and third lines. In this way, the poem effectively depicts imposing and valiant image of the eagle with slowing down the speed of the lines. Second, the poet makes use of alliteration such as the sound /k/ in the words "clasps," "crag," and "crooked", and /l/ in the words "lonely" and "lands" and so on, assonance such as the sound /æ/ in the words "claps", "crag" and "hands", /əu/ in the words "close" and "lonely" and so on, and rhyme /ændz/ and /ɔ:lz/ to endow the poem with magnificent and tuneful melody. These musical devices not only vividly depict the majestic image of the eagle but also lighten the reader. And the reader may better appreciate the beauty of English if he reads the poem repeatedly and become more interested in learning English.

B. Concise Expressions

Poetry uses unusual words or uses the words in unusual ways to convey meanings, emotions, or ideas to the reader. Laurence Perrine states that, "Poetry is the most condensed and concentrated form of literature, saying most in the fewest of words than any other forms of literature" (Perrine, 1982, p.9). Poems often make deliberate use of imagery, word association, and sound effects to produce aesthetic effects and evoke the reader's emotion and imagination. Let's take some lines of e. e. cummings' poem *in Just—* as example.

in Just—
 spring when the world is mud-
 luscious the little
 lame balloonman
 whistles far and wee
 and eddieandbill come
 running from marbles and
 piracies and it's
 spring
 when the world is puddle-wonderful (Liu Shoulun, 2003, p.334)

In the above lines, these few words "mud-luscious", "balloonman", "wee" and "puddle-wonderful" not only endow the spring with color, taste, and vigor but also portray a joyful season and a carefree and pure world of children to the reader. The special formation of words and the meanings of them naturally throw the reader into thinking and imaging of the wonderful season and the vigorous life. So concise expressions in the poetry show the expressiveness of language and can better inspire the reader's emotion and imagination. And the reader will better understand the magical effect of the language and become more interested in learning language in reading poetry.

C. Rich Images

Image is a concrete representation of a sense impression, a feeling, or an idea. In some poems one image predominates either by recurring throughout the work or by appearing at a critical point in the plot. Often poets use multiple images throughout a work to suggest states of feeling and to convey implications of thought and action. The charming or the aesthetic effect of the poetry largely depends on the images that the poet carefully chooses to express his or her intentions or feelings. For example,

To Autumn
 Season of mists and mellow fruitfulness,
 Close bosom-friend of the maturing sun;
 Conspiring with him how to load and bless
 With fruit the vines that round the thatch-eaves run;
 To bend with apples the moss'd cottage-tree,
 And fill all fruit with ripeness to the core;
 To swell the gourd, and plump the hazel shells
 With a sweet kernel; to set budding more,
 And still more, later flowers for bees,
 Until they think warm days will never cease,
 For summer has o'er-brimm'd their clammy cells. (Liu Shoulun, 2003, p.322)

In the above stanza, the poet displays to the reader a charming and colorful harvest season with the images of vision

(curved vines, ripen apples, moss'd cottage-tree, swelled gourd, plumped shells, budding flowers, busy bees), the images of taste (mellow fruitfulness and sweet kernel), and the images of touching (warm days and clammy cells). And just with these images, the poet endows the autumn with visible, tangible shape and color. Reading the poem, the reader can easily feel the beauty, the power and vigor of the autumn with the help of the images. And the reader may be affected by the vivid images and the feeling that the images convey and will develop a greater interest in poetry and in the language as well.

III. THE FUNCTIONS OF ENGLISH POETRY TEACHING IN EXTENSIVE READING TEACHING

Like other written materials, English poetry not only can help learners enlarge vocabulary, enhance general language competence, and enrich intercultural knowledge with vivid expressions and cultural information, but also can improve learners' guessing and predicting skills with its special uses of words and deviant forms. In a word, English poetry can be useful material to develop learners' reading competence if it is properly used in teaching. Besides, the author thinks English poetry can efficiently makes up for the deficiency of the traditional extensive reading teaching with its special characteristics.

A. *Enhancing Learners' Motivation*

According to Crookes and Schmidt, motivation refers to "interest in and enthusiasm for the materials used in class; persistence with the learning task, as indicated by levels of attention or action for an extended duration; and levels of concentration and enjoyment." (Peacock, 1997, p.145) English poetry can be used to enhance learners' motivation in the following ways. First, learners will be delighted with musical sound effects and can better appreciate the beauty of English and fascination of language of poetry. The more learners read the poem, the greater interest they may show in the language and in learning language. Second, the concise expressions in poetry can inspire learners to explore and appreciate the power of language in conveying meanings. For example, the word "mud-luscious" in the poem *in Just*—not only suggests it is just after raining but also makes the reader feel the taste of spring. So any careful learner will be delighted by the word and may become more active in learning English. Third, images in poetry can improve learners' appreciation of poetry's aesthetic effects when they fully appreciate the real meaning that the images convey in the poems. In short, English poetry teaching can arouse learners' interest and passion of learning English in class and after class.

B. *Stimulating Learners' Imagination*

Reading is related closely with thinking and without thinking there is no reading. Just as Goodman states that "The writer encodes thought as language and a reader decodes language to thought by means of interaction between language and thought in reading". (Goodman, 2006, p.12) And imagination can help the reader read between lines. Imagination is regarded as the mental capacity for experiencing, constructing, or manipulating "mental imagery". It is also regarded as responsible for inventiveness, creative and insightful thought. Imagination not only can help the reader have a better understanding of the reading material and but also can improve readers' inventiveness or creativity as well.

According to *Webster's Third New International Dictionary of the English Language*, poetry is writing that formulates a concentrated imaginative awareness of experience in language chosen and arranged to create a specific emotional response through its meaning, sound, and rhythm; ...a quality that stirs the imagination or gives a sense of heightened and more meaningful existence. So poetry may be the very useful material to stimulate learners' imagination. For example, the "lame balloonman" in the poem *in Just*— may let the reader think of the colorful balloons and the walk and the spiritual state of the man carrying the balloons. Reading the poem *To Autumn*, the reader seems to see the ripen fruits and busy bees and seems to smell the fragrance of fruits and followers. All the images in the poem may inspire the reader to imagine the wonderfulness of the season. Therefore, we can say that poetry is better material to enrich the reader's imagination with its special form and to encourage the reader's creativity compared with prose, novels and other technical materials and so on.

C. *Broadening Learners' Experience*

Poetry mirrors life in a rather indirect and condensed way with deep connotative meaning. It is what is extract from life and is true to life. Just as Perrine says, "Poetry through fascinating description contributes a lot to the store of human experience. Poetry as a whole is concerned with all kinds of experience—beautiful or ugly, strange or common, noble or ignoble, actual or imaginary." (Perrine, 1982, p.9) The experiences or the truth that the poet creates in the poem will make the reader accumulate more experience of life and have a fresh or deep insight of life. For example, Alfred Tennyson's poem *The Eagle* does not simply tell the reader the story of the eagle but it implies the life of human beings. The line "The wrinkled sea beneath him crawls" indicates that the man should face and struggle bravely with hard surrounding or situation. And e. e. Cummings' poem "*in Just*—" presents the reader the vigor of spring and the enthusiasm of children and childlike enthusiasm of adults. After reading the poem, the reader may feel life is really splendid like the wonderful spring and will love life more than before.

D. *Improving Learners' Self-cultivation*

Poetry is an art form that presents the reader wonderful things that one may neglect in daily life. Just as Eleanor

Farjeon puts it in his poem *Poetry*:

What is poetry? Who knows?

Not a rose, but the scent of the rose;

Not the sky, but the light in the sky;

Not the fly, but the gleam of the fly;

Not the sea, but the sound of the sea;

Not myself, but what makes me

See, hear, and feel something that prose

Cannot: and what it is, who knows? (Yang Limin, Xu Kerong, 1985, p.34)

The above poem shows the nature of poetry and suggests the enjoyment of reading poem. In another word, the reader seems to be enjoying the magnificent scenery or listening to a tuneful melody of the nature when he is appreciating a good poem. In the appreciation of poetry, learners must be affected by the aesthetic effects of poetry and will become very sensitive to art and develop a keen feeling for poetry or genuine art. And poetry always conveys the poet's feeling, as Wordsworth states that poetry is "the spontaneous overflow of powerful feelings recollected in tranquility" (Chang Yaixin, 2006, p.17). Learners' character will be nurtured by the feeling that the poetry conveys and the learners will become more cultivated and more optimistic to life. Therefore, we can say that poetry teaching can be an effective way to realize the aim of aesthetic education: enliven learners' spiritual life and improve their self-cultivation.

IV. CONCLUSION

Nowadays, most learners are eager to seek quick success and instant benefits in the present competitive society. They are concerned more about material wealth rather than spiritual needs. Most learners are indifference to the art and to others and the spiritual civilization is worsening day after day at the university campus. In order to change the above situation and the traditional extensive reading teaching that lays much emphasis on learners' linguistic competence, the author thinks it is very significant to apply English poetry to extensive reading teaching.

English poetry, with its aesthetic values, not only is very useful material to improve learners' language competence and motivation of learning English but also is valuable material to enhance learners' imagination and creativity. Furthermore, English poetry can broaden learners' experience of life and improve learners' self-cultivation if English poetry is properly presented in class. First, the teacher should be proficient in English poetry and possess extensive knowledge including the cultural knowledge. Second, the teacher should carefully choose poems with the linguistic knowledge that is appropriate for learners' English level and also should choose poems of diverse themes—love, nature, youth, society and so on to meet learners' interest. Third, the teacher should use the proper teaching method—student-centered and interactive teaching method to stimulate students' motivation and challenge students' creativity. In a word, English poetry will be very helpful in fulfilling all the ultimate goal of extensive reading teaching which aims at enhancing learners' aesthetic consciousness, creativity and self-cultivation if it is properly used in extensive reading teaching.

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A Study on Public Speaking in Korean Education for Chinese Students

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Abstract—It is necessary to have adequate opportunity to use the foreign language in order to get the language skills, especially the oral expression skills, in the procedure of learning a foreign language. The author uses a method of public speaking in the real lecture in order to provide more opportunities for Chinese students when teaching them Korean. The aim is to encourage the students to have a confidence and increase the interesting on studying Korean, and also to put the knowledge what they learned from the textbook into the practice. The instructors implementing the method need to understand the relevance of public speaking education and to know its processes. In addition to drawing on the best teaching practices, instructors also need continuous support for professional and instructional development in the new teaching area. Actually through the public speaking method, students' reading ability, listening and speaking ability in Korean has been improved to a large degree. Another unexpected result is that the method also creates a platform of exchanging the information among students.

Index Terms—Korean education, public speaking, output, effect analysis

I. INTRODUCTION

The target of teaching a foreign language is to develop the students' comprehensive skills such as listening, speaking, reading, writing and translating. All of the above skills and other language skills are an interrelated unity of studying a foreign language. In the procedure of teaching Korean in China's university, a phenomenon can be found easily, that is, many students can't understand what they heard in Korean instantly, but can understand easily when reading it, and the most difficult thing for them is to speak in Korean correctly. The reason is that there is a process of change between the printed words and spoken words. However, if students are able to speak something in Korean, they can get the meaning without any difficulties when reading it due to the omission of the process of mental translation, as mentioned by Meimei, Chen (2004, P27), and also can write it down correctly in Korean.

It is necessary to have adequate opportunity to use the foreign language in order to get the language skills, especially the oral expression skills when learning a foreign language. During the period of teaching Korean, or the communication with Korean scholars and friends, the author found that at present the majority of Korean learners are pretty good at Korean listening, reading and writing, but there are some problems in their speaking ability, in particular, to speak Korean accurately and fluently. And the lack of speaking ability will also largely affect the quality of translation in the future. Currently, most students in our Korean department are studying hard to prepare for the middle or high levels of the Korean Language Proficiency Test. It cost them a lot of time and effort to prepare, but very few students take the time to exercise their oral expression. Most of the students rely mainly on classroom teaching to practice speaking, only a small number of students looking for the opportunities to practice speaking Korean after-school.

On the other hand, there are various speech contests for the students of Korean department every year in China. At the time of recommending students to participate in the competition, the author felt that the training of normal oral presentation skills is very necessary. According to the investigation on the graduates of Korean department of our university, it is also found that most of them were not hired when they went to look for a job, because their Korean were not fluent or lack of immediate response when interview. It also made the author recognize that how important for the students of Korean department to improve their listening and speaking abilities in practice. In order to provide more opportunities for students, the method of public speaking is put into practice, and it plays a good role in stimulating the students' enthusiasm and implementing the teaching objectives.

II. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Traditional teaching model of foreign language focuses on the correct form of language. The comprehensive teaching theory of Wilkins (1976) stressed that the teaching activities must surround with the language form of lessons. First, teachers explain the vocabulary, grammar, sentence patterns and other knowledge points which appeared in the text. And then organize the students to practice them, so as to master the knowledge what they learned. But this method would isolate the point of linguistic knowledge so that the students are often unable to quickly grasp the new language points and grammatical form, even the simple language forms. And the students can master the language forms only

through a long time of practicing to match the form and language function well.

Because the above language teaching methods can not reach the expected learning effects, teachers should change the approach to provide students with sufficient "comprehensible language input", and encourage students to open their mouth without too much emphasis on the accuracy of language form, but focused on the significance of communication instead (focus on meaning, Krashen 1988), to complete the transmission of information without considering the language errors. Teachers can also adjust the student's language input according to their language level at any time, so that to achieve the aim of not only leaning the correct form of language, but also a success communication. Success Communication depends on the quality of oral expression to a large extent. When the learner fails to communicate with others, they will force them to express more precise, more coherent, and more elegant in foreign language. Swain (1995) pointed that output is a process which leads the learners from the semantic to the syntactic process. Output in practice will force the speaker to pay more attention to express exactly in order to achieve a comprehensible output. Comprehensible output refers that the speaker not only conveys information, but also conveys in accurate, consistent and decent way. Studies of Gass & Selinker (2001) showed that comprehensible output plays specific four roles for the output of syntax and morphology, namely: Testing hypothesis, Feedback, Automaticity, and Move from semantic processing to syntactic process.

The function and importance of output mentioned above play a more active role for learners, and enable learners to organize language in a high way, also facilitate learners to complete the transition from the state of semantics uncertain understanding to the state of using grammar exactly. The whole process of output will be a process of combining language form, meaning and function, and it is a crucial part in learning a foreign language, learners need to consider which kinds of form can express what they think exactly.

Actually public speaking is an output with high demand. It requires students to conduct extensive reading firstly, then choose the topic what they interest to speak, and using the relevant knowledge of the language points to express in a specific period of time, also be accurate, fluent, and decency. The final stage, that is Q&A, not only checked the students' listening ability, but also trained their adaptability. Teacher can instruct the students to answer the questions in a simple, targeted way. Public speaking links all aspects of the process of learning language together, including the choice of words, connect the sentence and the complexity of sentences and so on. It is a relatively effective way to expand the speaker's presentation ability and language skills.

III. RESEARCH DESIGN AND CONCRETE IMPLEMENT

The author uses the method of public speaking in a real lecture. Before the lecture students are allowed to read a large number of extra-curricular readings, and to find an interesting article or topic. When it is the turn to have the public speaking, student needs to finish a speech within a limited time (usually 3 minutes for speech, 1-2 minutes for answering the question). For example, student can describe a person who he likes or introduce a book or a good movie, and answer the other students' questions after finishing his speech. Finally the teacher should sum up and note the deficiencies of the public speaking.

The public speaking referred in this article is implemented in the specialized courses of Korean department at the Oriental Language and Culture Institute of Qufu Normal University. In the first semester, the freshmen are still in the stage of learning primary Korean, and busy in mastering the pronunciation and simple dialogue. For them, public speaking in Korean will lead the majority of students to have a speech with similar content, and the listeners are easily boring with that kind of speech. Sophomore students relatively adapt to learn the Korean language, but they also need to develop a sense of language. Junior and senior students can already speak everyday Korean fluently, but there are some problems appeared when they want to express their thought in Korean accurately more or less. So, the author presented different requirements of public speaking for different grades.

Specific speaking, in the first semester freshmen's public speaking can be used in Chinese or mixed with English, each student can get five minutes to have their public speaking at the beginning of every lecture (two hours). As a sample of Grade 2008 (include 30 students) which the author taught, each student got twice chances to have the public speaking per semester. The author instructed the other students to note when listening to the speaker, so does the teacher. Thus the teacher can correct the error within 3, 5 minutes after public speaking according to the note what he took just now. And guide the other students to give question on the topic what he listened. It can not only improve their presentation skill, but also correct errors and mistakes occurred in their public speaking, and also train the other students' listening, deepen their emotional communication.

Beginning from the second semester, students are demanded to speak in only Korean with an easily understanding content and a reasonable structure. The speaker needs to express clearly, and answer questions simply, logically, also need to leave a deep impression and useful inspiration to the others.

Thinking about most of Junior and Senior students are busy in preparing for the Graduate Test and looking for a job, and some students do really not like to have a public speaking, so when I arrange the speaking task for them, I asked them to give me a name list who really want to have the speech at the first class each semester. At this stage public speaking is carried out one student per week in turn. Due to the long time preparation, so the student is demanded to have an in-depth conversation on a particular topic without the problems such as loose content, much pause, repeat, and inconsistent so on. The aim of public speaking for them is to train them to have continuous speech ability.

The purpose of Korean language teaching is to improve the student's comprehensive ability, especially the oral expression ability. The method of public speaking has a significant effect on improving the oral expression skills of students. Generally speaking, public speaking needs three stages. Firstly, speaker needs to prepare a topic carefully. The selected topic should be innovative and attract the other students, but also with the professional, combining current events, such as the world economic crisis, South Korea (North Korea) economic, social, cultural and other aspects; Secondly, the speaker needs to elaborate the selected topic with a reasonable structure, a clear and concise language and so on; Thirdly, the speaker needs to answer the others' question in a strong logic way. For the speaker, the above three aspects are the challenges of knowledge, logical thinking, and language skill. From the point of view of the learning process, public speaking is a good way to train and improve students' language skills.

IV. EFFECT ANALYSIS

After the implement of public speaking for two years, the author made an investigation to analyze the effect of the method. Respondents of the Survey are the students of Grade 2006, 2007 and 2008 in Korean Department, College of Oriental Language & Culture, Qufu Normal University. Number of questionnaires issued is 89 and number of questionnaires recovered is 65. The content of Questionnaire contains 10 questions including the investigation of its effect on language learning, personal abilities, such as whether it is helpful to the expansion of knowledge. Each question has four answers, it has great help, much help, less help and no help separately. Respondents were asked to only choose one answer. Specific survey content and survey results please see Appendix.

Through analyzing the survey results, we can see that the method of public speaking has great or much help for the students' self-confidence, when the students select the answer of this question, 61 students chose the two kinds of answer mentioned above, accounted for 94% which is a very good sign. It is impossible to be successful or create miracles with confidence. And self-confidence is very important for foreign language learners, especially self-confidence can bring the positive effects on a speech contest, it can not be ignored. Of course, one speech will not be a successful speech only with the confidence while without the good language skills.

Then what is the effect of the public speaking method on language learning? The questionnaire results show that the method can increase the students' Korean vocabulary and a sense of Korean language, also it is helpful to improve the students' writing skills, listening ability, cognitive ability of grammatical errors. There were 49, 50, 51, 45, 48 students separately chose the answer of great help and more help when they were asked about above-mentioned questions. On the specific point of view, 75% students felt that the public speaking method can increase their Korean vocabulary. As we know, vocabulary relies on not only the accumulation of memories but also the practice, only the vocabulary is enriched, listening, speaking and translation will be the simple things relatively.

On the improvement of the writing ability and hearing capability, on one hand, 51 and 45 students think that there are great help and much help, accounting for 78% and 69% respectively. On the other hand, 12 (accounting for 18%) and 19 (accounting for 29%) students felt there is no obvious help for their Korean study. It reflects the method has indirect effects on improving the Korean listening and writing ability. It also shows the method can play a positive role when creating a sense of language, cognitive syntax errors.

With regard to response capability, there are 27 students (accounting for 42%) considered it has great help, 24 students (accounting for 37%) considered that it has much help, 12 students (accounting for 18%) felt it has no obviously help, and one student (accounting for 2%) think that there is no help. In addition, 44 students (accounting for 68%) felt that public speaking method does helpful to broaden their knowledge. There are 52 students (accounting for 80%) who are very fond of this method, and 46 students (accounting for 70%) felt that they used Korean thinking when they stood on the stage.

Generally speaking, the survey showed that the students' evaluation on public speaking method is positive, students enjoy and participate in this activity actively, it is also an important step to develop their language skills by communicate with the target language. It also can be seen through the survey that the public speaking can broaden students' knowledge, enhance their confidence, promote the Korean language learning and can improve their oral expression.

V. CONCLUSION

By implementing the public speaking method, the author found that students' reading ability, listening and speaking ability in Korean has been improved to a large degree, and increased their interesting on studying Korean. It also can put the knowledge what they learned from the textbook into the practice. For the teacher, it is easier to complete teaching purpose effectively, and also helpful to communicate with the students which he taught. But in the actual engagements, we should emphasize the dominant position of students, activate the communication between teachers and students and the interaction between students. It also need to encourage students to innovate and do not let the activity become a mere formality. In short, the ability of oral Korean will not be improved in a short period, and need a long-term exercise properly. Only the teacher try to practice and explore consciously, the students' Korean ability and integrated language ability will be improved.

APPENDIX A: QUESTIONNAIRE AND ITS SURVEY RESULTS

(Number of questionnaires issued: 89, Number of questionnaires recovered: 65)

Questions	Great Help	Much Help	Less Help	No Help
1. Public Speaking before Class has ~ for increasing your Korean Vocabulary.	10	39	15	1
2. ~ for expending your knowledge.	21	23	19	2
3. ~ for increasing your sense of Korean language.	21	29	11	2
4. ~for increasing confidence to express in Korean.	37	21	6	
5. ~for improving your writing ability in Korean.	17	34	12	1
6. ~ for improving your listening ability in Korean.	16	29	19	
7. ~for increasing self-confidence to take part in a competition.	40	21	4	
8. ~for recognizing the grammar errors.	12	36	16	1
9. ~for improving your response ability during the stage of Q&A.	27	24	12	1
10. How do you like the method of Public Speaking before class?	Like it very much. 18	Like it moderately. 34	Don't care much for it. 8	Don't like it. 3

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Drawing Tree Diagrams: Problems and Suggestions

Qiang Wang

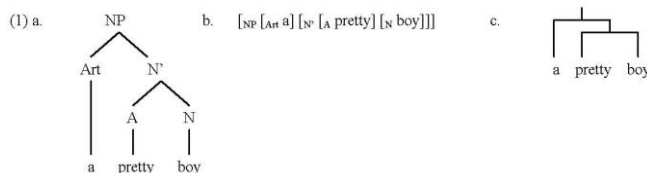
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Abstract—Starting from the theoretical goal of syntax, and taking the difference between pedagogical grammar and syntax into consideration, this article, based on the author’s teaching practice and review of exam papers, analyzes common problems in drawing tree diagrams such as ternary branching and improper marking of grammatical categories, followed by proposals for constructing such representations, with a view to helping students to achieve reasonable and elegant drawings, and also to helping teachers to teach syntax more fruitfully.

Index Terms—tree diagram, drawing, problems, suggestions

I. INTRODUCTION

Syntax is the study of the principles and processes by which sentences are constructed in particular languages. Syntactic investigation of a given language has as its goal the construction of a grammar that can be viewed as a device of some sort for producing the sentences of the language under analysis. (Chomsky, 1957, p.11) Put simply, syntax studies how to combine words into bigger linguistic units – phrases or sentences. At present, introductory linguistics courses are generally available to juniors majoring in English at most Chinese universities, where syntax is usually viewed by both teachers and students as one of the most important and difficult chapters of the course. In syntax, tree diagram and labelled bracketing are widely employed to characterize hierarchical structures of phrases or sentences. A tree diagram, or tree, is a two-dimensional diagram used in generative grammar as a convenient means of displaying the internal hierarchical structure of sentences as generated by a set of rules. (Crystal, 2008, p.494) Labelled bracketing, or labelling, is a term in grammatical analysis for the explicit marking of the parts or stages in a structural analysis of a sentence. (*ibid.* p. 263) They are shown in (1a) and (1b) respectively in characterization of the structure of *a pretty boy*.



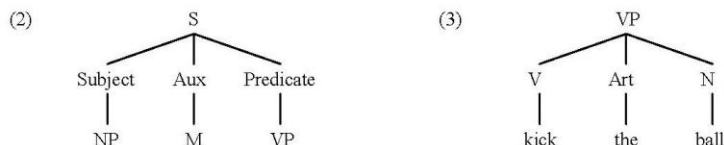
(1a) and (1b) are in contrast to (1c), immediate constituent analysis (IC analysis), also a way of characterizing phrase or sentence structures, proposed by descriptive linguistics, or structural linguistics. IC analysis segments or cuts a phrase or sentence into two and then cut these parts into two until morphemes are obtained. (Gleason, 1961, p.128-148) But it segments structures in form only while marking no lexical and phrasal categories, which is not helpful to understand the internal constituents of a structure, and the semantic relation between constituents in particular. In contrast, tree diagram is intuitive and vivid, capable of explicitly demonstrating the internal hierarchy of a phrase or sentence, and the intimacy of its constituents and their sequence of merge, although it takes up more space. In less space, usually one or two lines, labelled bracketing is not so intuitive. Moreover, both (1a) and (1b) mark categories or nodes, making up for the disadvantage of immediate constituent analysis. In general, tree diagram is the most widely used tool of formalizing phrase or sentence structures in syntax, in case the space is available.

Due to the great difference between tree diagram and proposals of pedagogical grammar and descriptive linguistics, students find it difficult to draw tree diagrams. In English linguistics textbooks currently used in Chinese universities, such as Hu (2001), Dai & He (2002) and Liu & Wen (2006), there are no detailed elaborations on how to draw tree diagrams in chapters of “Syntax”. Students cannot find satisfactory solutions for such representations, either, in further readings recommended by teachers, such as Radford (1988), Ouhalla (1999) and Poole (1999). In view of the current situation, this article analyzes ten common problems that students incline to have in drawing tree diagrams for assertives, negatives, interrogatives and some relative clauses, found in practical teaching of syntax for juniors of English major with Chongqing University of Posts and Telecommunications in southwest China and review of their exam papers. It is followed by suggestions, including general idea and procedures, with the aim of helping students with drawing of reasonable and elegant tree diagrams, and to help teachers with more fruitful teaching of syntax.

II. ANALYSIS OF PROBLEMS IN DRAWING TREE DIAGRAMS

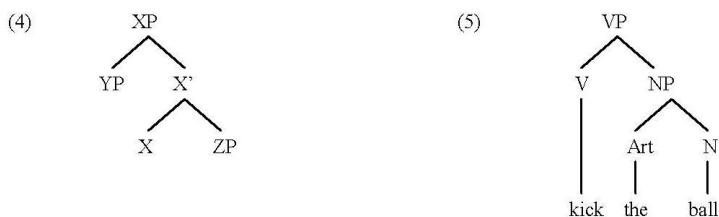
A. Ternary Branching

Currently available textbooks adopt both ternary and binary branching trees arbitrarily without any comment on their respective merits and demerits. Part of earlier research of syntactic theory also employed ternary branching trees characterizing sentence structures as shown in (2) below (see Chomsky, 1965, p.69) , for such sentence as “Sincerity may frighten the boy”. Beginners of syntax tend to draw ternary branching trees as shown in (3) below for the sole purpose of simplicity, as they put all the words in the same level and then merge them once and for all.



All would agree that, the three words in (3) should not be in the same level. Instead, “the” is semantically closer to “ball” than to “kick”. In this way, “the ball” can form a constituent. So the phrase marker (3) is not reasonable.

Ternary branching makes prominent the grammatical functions and categories of constituents of a sentence as well as the linearity of constituents. However, it cannot effectively demonstrate the internal hierarchy of a phrase or sentence, the semantic intimacy of its constituents and their sequence of merge. With the development of syntactic theory, ternary branching has been replaced by binary branching. Derived from immediate constituent analysis, the binary branching method parses a big unit into two smaller units each time in segmentation of structures. Theoretically speaking, binary branching is a fundamental principle of X-bar theory (see Jackendoff 1977) as shown in (4) below and the antisymmetry of syntax (see Kayne 1994). With binary branching adopted, (3) above shall be rewritten as (5) below, where *the* merges with *ball* into an NP which in turn merges with *kick* into a VP.

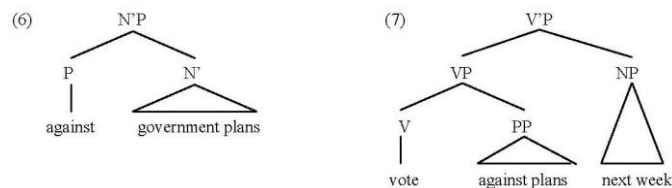


Xiong (2009) argues that the phrase structure in the generative grammar is endocentric to constrain possible phrase structures, and its branch is binary to represent the asymmetry between the constituents in the structure. In modern syntax, binary branching has become a fundamental principle of drawing tree diagrams while merging two grammatical categories that are semantically close to each other into a larger category each time has become a basic method for representation and a core operation in the theory of grammar. Binary branching trees like (5) shall be applicable to most, if not all, characterizations of phrase structure in syntax.

B. Improper Marking and Representing of Categories

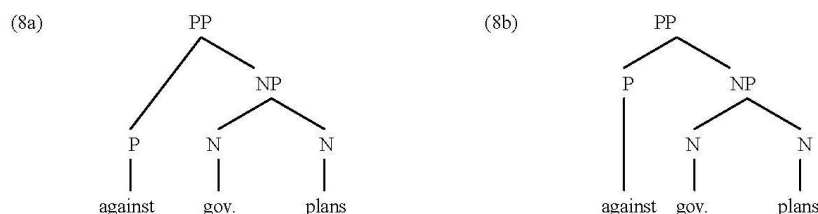
Marking categories is a basic skill for drawing of tree diagrams. Nevertheless, categories in syntax are different from parts of speech, or word classes, in pedagogical grammar. Perfect comparison and contrast between the two can be found in Xu (2007). Some students tend to use parts of speech in pedagogical grammar to mark categories in trees, e.g. marking auxiliaries such as *will*, *would*, *may* and *might* as Aux, a sentence as S, and a subordinate clause as S'. It is known that one of the theoretical goals of syntax is to pursue uniformity and generalization in characterizing phrase structures. In syntax, I(nflection) includes not only Aux but also the infinitival marker *-to* and inflectional morphemes such as *-ed* and *-s*. Hence, *will* shall be marked I. I is usually regarded as the head of a sentence, so a sentence is in fact a projection of I. That is why a sentence shall be marked as IP rather than S. A subordinate clause is usually composed of a complementizer, or C, including *that*, *if*, *whether* and *for* in English, followed by a sentence, or IP. As C indicates whether the subordinate clause is declarative or interrogative, C is usually regarded as the head of a subordinate clause. In other words, a subordinate clause is a projection of C. Hence, a subordinate clause shall be marked as CP rather than S'.

In addition to category marking, problems with representing of categories are also found, as shown in (6) and (7) below.



C. Ill-formed Structural Hierarchy

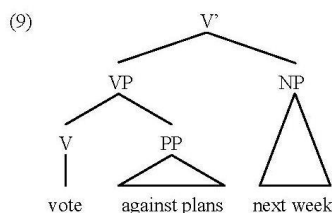
The linear sequence from left to right is a superficial property of sentence, but the structural hierarchy is its nature (Chomsky, 1957, 1975). This point can and must be reflected on the tree. A large unit is composed of smaller units, but the relationship between units is different. A common example is subject-object asymmetry – the relationship of object with predicate verb is quite close, but the relationship between subject and predicate verb is not (Xu, 1988, p.26, 55). The hierarchy highlights the semantic closeness of constituents and the sequence of merge in a tree. When labeling the category for the phrase “against government plans”, some students ignore its hierarchy, as (8a) shows:



“government” and “plans” are in a modifier-head relationship in (8a), and therefore it is right to put the two nodes “N” and “N” in the same level. But putting the three nodes “P”, “N” and “N” in the same level is wrong, because their syntactic positions are different. In the phrase “against government plans”, the preposition “against” is the head, “government plans” acts as the complement of “against”, and “against” merges with the overall complement “government plans”. Therefore, P should be in the same level with NP in the tree. A right practice is to elevate P to the same level as NP, as (8b) shows, demonstrating the structural hierarchy of the phrase and the aesthetics of tree diagram as well. An informal requirement for such hierarchy is to put two nodes only at each level.

D. Confused Relationship between Intermediate and Maximal Projections

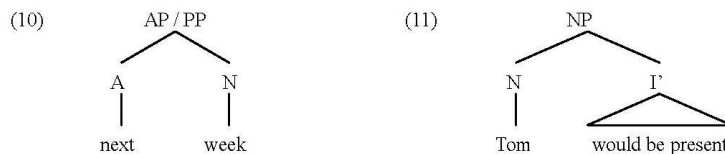
In syntax, the projection higher than lexical categories and lower than maximal projection is called intermediate projection. It is not an ultimate category, that is to say, there are other constituents which have not been merged yet. They are usually written like N', N'', V', V'' with quotation marks. The maximal projection, also called phrasal projection, is a full phrase, with no more constituents to be merged, e.g. NP and VP. Therefore, in any two adjacent levels in the projection system, an intermediate projection must be below a maximal projection. There also exists above-below relationship within an intermediate projection. For example, V' and V'' must be below VP, N'' must be above N' and so on. It's found that some students make mistakes as (9) below:



(9) confuses the relationship between an intermediate projection and a maximal projection. V' must be the intermediate projection, and VP the maximal projection. The intermediate projection V' must be below the maximal projection VP. The right practice is exchanging the positions of V' and VP in (9), with V' merging with NP, projecting into VP, a phrasal category.

E. Projection from Incorrect Heads

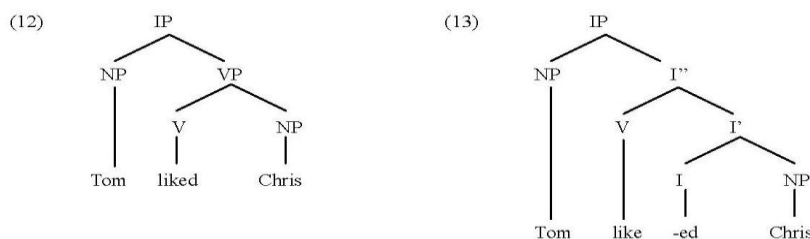
In syntax, any phrasal category comes from projection of its head, and therefore recognizing the head correctly is crucial to determine a phrasal category. Some students fail to locate the head correctly. As a result, the phrasal category has nothing to do with any lexical category in the tree, as (10) and (11) show.



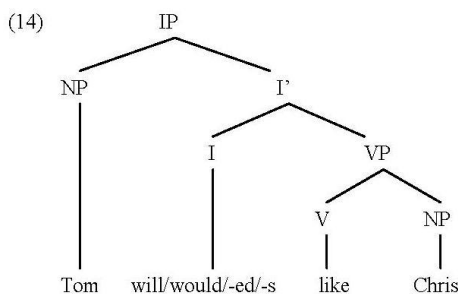
In (10), marking “next week” as AP or PP is wrong. A phrasal category must be marked according to its head. If the head of a phrasal category is N, the phrasal category must be an NP. If it is A, the phrasal category must be an AP. For more information concerning heads in grammatical theory, see Zwicky (1985), Hudson (197) and Corbett et al. (1993). In short, the phrasal category with a head X must be identified as XP that is a fundamental point of view of X-bar theory. Pedagogical grammar tells us that in the phrase “next week”, the head is obviously “week”, and its lexical category is N, so the phrase must be identified as NP, not AP. It cannot be PP either, because neither of the lexical category “next” and “week” is a preposition P. (11) regards *Tom* as head and labels the overall sentence as NP, which is obviously wrong. In pedagogical grammar, the sentence *Tom would be present* can never be a noun phrase NP. Secondly, it does not locate the head of the sentence correctly. In syntax, the head of a declarative sentence must be an I. For (11), *would* must be the head. So the overall sentence should be marked as IP, the maximal projection in the (11), where NP should be revised to IP.

F. No Separation of Inflectional Morpheme from Verb and / or Prepositioning of Infl

With regard to sentences such as *Tom liked Chris* in which a verb is attached with an inflectional morpheme, some students do not separate the verb from its inflectional morpheme when they represent the tree derivation, as (12) shows, or separate the verb from its inflectional morpheme, but the order is not right, as (13) shows.



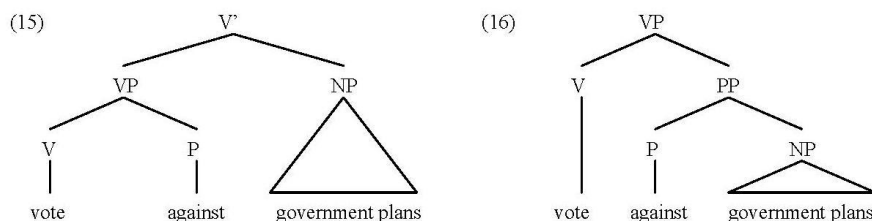
Here we focus on the separation of a verb from its inflectional morpheme and their linear order. In a tree, the reason for the separation of a verb from its inflectional morpheme and put the inflectional morpheme in front of the verb is for the purpose of uniformity in drawing tree diagrams. We know that use of I is based on syntactic analysis of complete or typical English sentence, such as *Tom will like Chris*, i.e. S→NP AUX VP. In syntax, different from pedagogical grammar, the verb “like” is not the head of a sentence. Instead, the auxiliary “will” becomes the head, because if we transform this sentence into its negative and interrogative counterparts, we have to rely on the auxiliary, and the tense is also reflected in the auxiliary. The phrase marker of the sentence is shown in (14) below.



“liked” is one of the inflectional forms of “like”, with an inflectional morpheme *-ed*. In order to unify analysis, in the tree, we separate all the inflectional morphemes from the verb, and place them in front of the verb. The relative position of inflectional morphemes *-ed* and *-s* to *like* is the same as *will* to *like*. The tree of *Tom liked Chris* is also shown in (14).

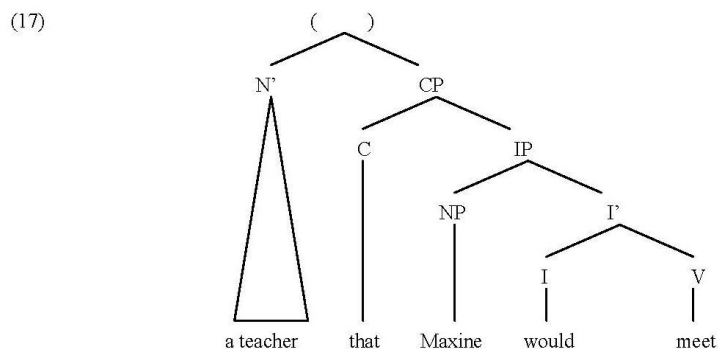
G. Wrong Sequence of Merge in Embedded Phrases

For such embedded phrases as “vote against government plans” where a PP is embedded in a VP, some students tend to, following the practice of pedagogical grammar, view “vote against” as a VP like “look after”, by merging “vote” and “against” first and then merging the resulting construction with the NP “government plans”. This leads to a wrong tree diagram as shown in (15) below.



In the first place, a mistake indicated in subsection D above also exists in (15), that is, confused hierarchy between the intermediate projection V' and the maximal projection VP. Here we focus on the sequence of merge in embedded phrases. In tree diagrams it is not acceptable to merge “vote” and “against” first. It is known that if two constituents can be merged, they must have intimate syntactic and semantic relation – head-complement relation or modifier-head relation, expressing a relatively complete semantic interpretation following merge. In the VP “vote against government plans”, “against” is not the complement to “vote”. Hence, they cannot be merged. Instead, the complement of “vote” is the PP “against government plans” in which “government plans” and “against” shall be merged first as the former is complement of the latter. Following such analysis, a correct tree is shown in (16) which clearly shows the head-complement relationship between the constituents of the phrase.

In addition, for such phrases embedded with a relative clause as “a teacher that Maxine would meet”, some students, again influenced by pedagogical grammar, tend to hold the view that a clause must be larger than a sentence and a VP must be larger than an NP. This leads to a wrong drawing of tree, as shown in (17) below.

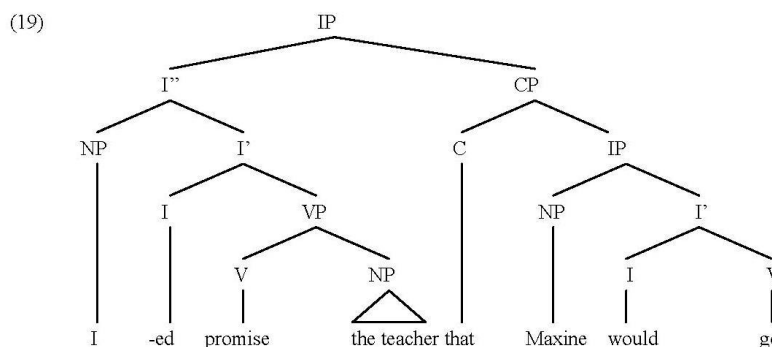
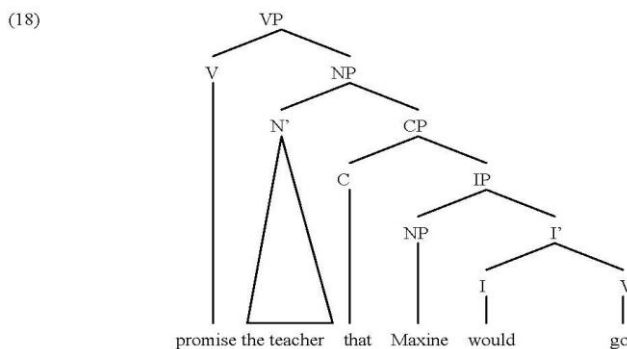


Some students mark the maximal projection, i.e. the place with an empty bracket, as CP, perhaps because they see there is a CP below already, or make no mark at all, perhaps because they are afraid there would be no unit larger than CP or IP. Pedagogical grammar tells us that “a teacher that Maxine would meet” is an NP. What makes it complex is the relative clause following “a teacher”. One of the basic tenets of syntax is that language is recursive (see Chomsky, 1957, 1975; Wang, 2008a, 2008b). Clauses can be embedded, so a sentence can be larger than a clause and an NP can be larger than a VP or even a clause. (17) as a whole is an NP which contains an N', i.e. “a teacher” and a CP, i.e. “that Maxine would meet”. Filling in the blank bracket with an “NP” would make the tree complete and correct.

H. Misrepresentation of Different Clauses

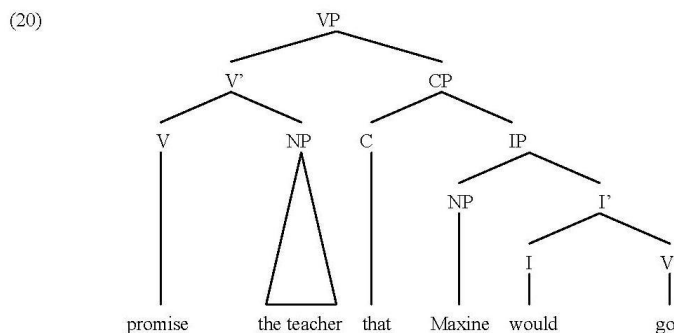
In pedagogical grammar, there are differences among subjects, relative clauses and complement clauses in terms of form and meaning. It is not easy to reflect such differences in a tree. How to represent relative clauses in a tree has already been discussed in the previous subsection, so here we turn to the representation of complement clauses as in “I promised the teacher that Maxine would go”, where “the teacher” is an object and *that*-clause is its complement. However, some students are found to mistake this complement clause for a relative clause, as shown in (18) (with I and *-ed* omitted).

It is wrong to view the *that*-clause as a relative clause and to directly merge it and “the teacher” into an NP. The result of such merge is incomprehensible as “the teacher that Maxine would go” cannot constitute any relatively independent and complete semantic interpretation. A similar mistake shown in (19) is also found.



Such a scheme seems perfect at the first sight, but it is wrong indeed, as obviously the main clause “I promised the teacher” is not in the same syntactic position as the subordinate clause “that Maxine would go” (the complement of “promised”). They are not in a head-complement relationship, hence it is impossible for them to be merged in the same level. Semantic interpretation following such merge is incomprehensible, neither. In (19), the *that*-clause is not like a relative clause, nor a complement clause, in fact.

The right comprehension is that “promise” first merges with “the teacher” and then with *-ed*. (20) shows the right representation (with I and *-ed* omitted).

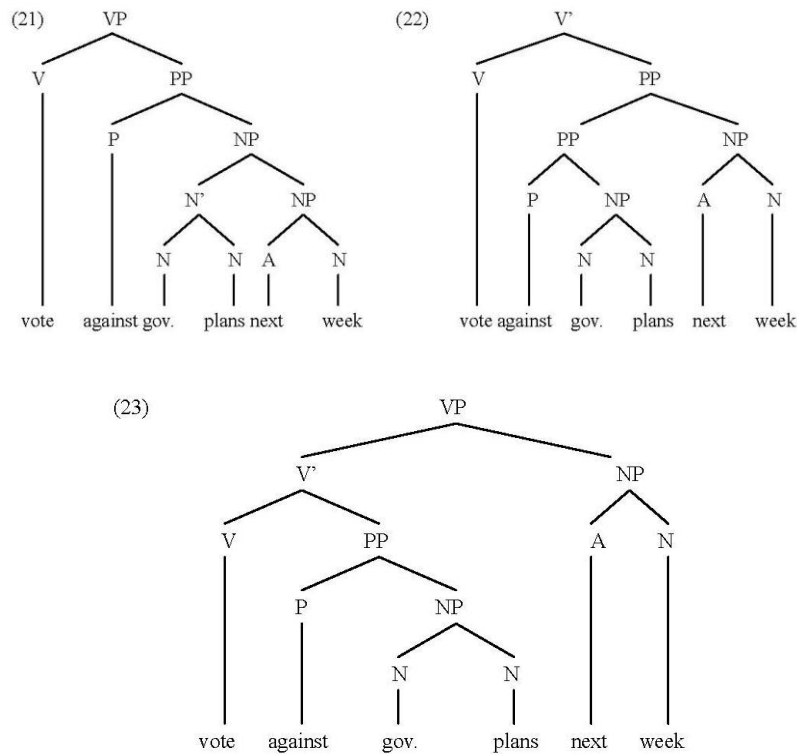


Here, it is reflected that “the teacher” serves as the object of “promise” and “that Maxine would go” as the complement. Semantic interpretation following such merge is comprehensible.

1. Mistreatment of Adverbials

It is known that an adverbial can modify a VP or a sentence, but generally not a NP or PP only. For example, in the sentence “They will vote against government plans next week”, in terms of meaning the adverbial “next week” modify “vote against government plans” or “they will vote against government plans”, but not “against government plans” or “government plans” only. Some students are found to make wrong representations such as (21) and (22) (with “they will” omitted).

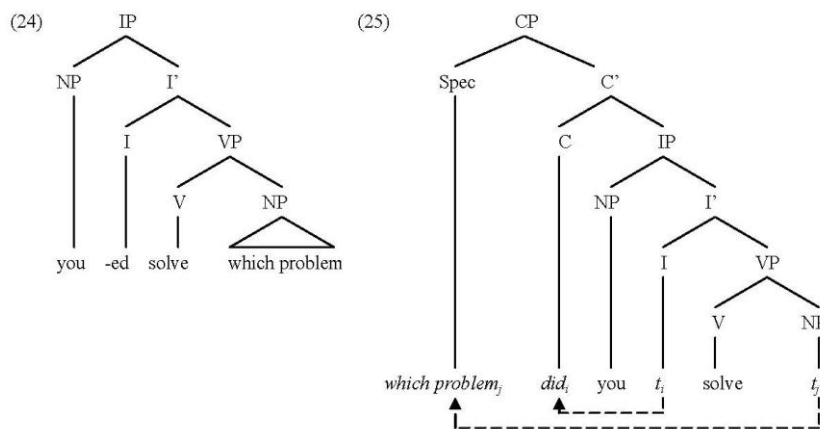
Here we focus on how to deal with adverbials in a tree. (21) is wrong in that the NP “government plans” is directly merged with the adverbial “next week”, which means that “next week” modifies “government plans”. This must lead to semantic incomprehension for lack of semantic basis. The sentence “They will vote against government plans next week” should be partly paraphrased as “vote against government plans when next week comes” but not “vote against government plans to be made next week”. Therefore, “government plans” should not be directly merged with “next week” as they are not in a modifier-head relationship. The right representation is shown in (23) (with “they will” omitted).



This clearly demonstrates the syntactic relation that the adverbial “next week” modifies the VP “vote against government plans”, and correct interpretation of the sentence.

J. Misrepresentation of WH-questions with Constituent Movement

Constituent movement may happen in syntax of WH-questions. For example, in “Which problem did you solve?”, the WH-word “which problem” is located behind “solve” as its complement in deep structure, and then moves to the beginning of the sentence, i.e. [Spec, CP], in surface structure. It is also possible that, not strictly speaking, there is no constituent movement in syntax of WH-questions. For example, in “Who taught you?”, the WH-word “who” is located at the beginning of both deep structure and surface structure, without any overt movement. Some students find it difficult to represent WH-questions with constituent movement. Pedagogical grammar tells us that WH-questions are derived from declaratives via yes-no questions with the addition of WH-words. Therefore, we shall start from declaratives to draw trees of WH-questions step by step. For this example, we shall start from characterizing its deep structure “[you [-ed [solve [which problem]]]]”, in which the WH-word “which problem” is located behind “solve” as its complement due to the subcategorization requirement of the verb “solve”, as shown in (24).



First, transform the structure into an interrogative in which -ed, the inflectional morpheme, is moved to a place in front of “you” as a complementizer (C) and changed to “did” in the course of morphological realization as -ed is not a word. Next, move the WH-word “which problem” to a place in front of “did” as a specifier (Spec). The traces for such two movements are shown as t_i and t_j in (25). Then, mark the indexes for the moved constituents and their traces in pairs

to show their co-indexation, and indicate the routes of movement with arrowheaded dotted lines. Representation of yes-no question is also shown in the lower part under C' in (25).

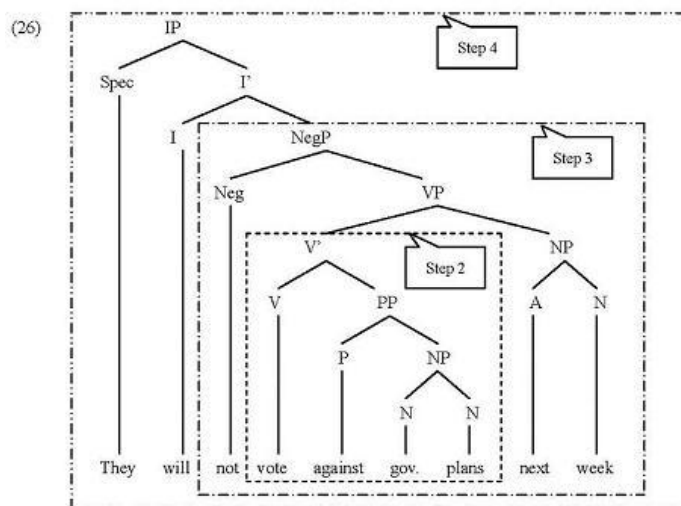
III. SUGGESTIONS

After analysis of common problems found in the author's teaching practice of syntax and review of exam papers, and now taking a typical English sentence "They will not vote against government plans next week" as an example, we summarize a general idea and steps of drawing tree diagrams as follows.

General idea: Step by step merge phrases from right to left and from bottom to up while maintaining hierarchy, and mark appropriate lexical and phrasal categories until we merge all the constituents and get the maximal projection.

Steps: First, determine the semantic closeness between constituents (i.e. words), and figure out the subject-predicate-object and attributive-adverbial-complement of the phrase or sentence. Next, represent structures of the predicate verb based on head-complement or modifier-head relationship. Then, merge the verb phrase with Neg, adverbial, and complement (if any). Finally, merge the inflectional word I with subject. Consider (26). Step 2 to 4 are shown in frames with different dotted lines.

We know that in this sentence, "they" is the subject (Spec); "will", the auxiliary, is inflection I; "not" is Neg; "vote against government plans" is verb phrase VP; "next week" is adverbial. From right to left, by means of step-by-step merge, we merge "vote against government plans", then merge with the adverbial "next week" into VP, then merge with negative word "not" into NegP, and finally merge with the inflection "will" and the subject (Spec) "they" until we get the maximal projection IP. The second to fourth step can be seen in the figure. Among the four steps of representation, the second step is the key process. Merging the predicate verb phrase often determines whether the final trees are right or not. Many of the problems discussed above are caused by the incorrect merging of the verb phrase. In ordinary circumstances, it requests us to merge phrases from right to left. For more complex sentences, we also need to consider whether there are other special situations to be dealt with.



IV. CONCLUSION

The article analyses ten common problems in tree diagram drawings and propose a general idea and steps of such representations. Tree diagram is an effective tool to characterize the internal hierarchical structure of natural language. Drawing tree diagrams is a basic skill of syntax studies. It is based on not only the pedagogical grammar's understanding and new thought of syntax as well. We are sure that if we master the methods and frequently practice, we must be able to draw reasonable and elegant tree diagrams in the near future.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

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Comparison between CBT and PBT: Assessment of Gap-filling and Multiple-choice Cloze in Reading Comprehension

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Abstract—The main purpose of the article is to determine whether there is equivalence between computer based test and paper based test. A lot of comparable research has been conducted to investigate the equivalence between two test formats, but their results are inconsistent, which causes controversy in the field of research. Moreover, many of these studies are conducted in the other countries, especially in the USA, but few in China. Therefore, it is necessary to conduct the respective research in the Chinese context. Based on Honaker's two standards for equivalence of computer based test and paper based test, the experiment is made to explore the equivalence between CBT and PBT.

Index Terms—CBT, PBT, psychometric equivalence, experiential equivalence

I. INTRODUCTION

For three decades, educational theorists have proposed many ways in which computers might influence education. Although it was not until the 1970's that computers began having a presence in schools, since then the use of computers in education has increased dramatically. The National Center for Education Statistics reports that the percentage of students in grades 1 to 8 using computers in school more than doubled from 31.5 in 1984 to 68.9 in 1993 (Snyder & Hoffman, 1990; 1994). Similarly, the availability of computers to students in school increased from one computer for every 125 students in 1983 to one computer for every 9 students in 1995 (Glennan & Melmed, 1996). Now in China, computers are being used more in schools than ever before. In most middle schools, students have easier access to computers.

As the number of computers has increased, theories about how computers might benefit students' reading have proliferated. Actually, some researchers have carried out formal studies to examine whether reading on computer is better than reading on paper. Educational Testing Services (ETS) is already offering the GRE as computer based tests in 180 countries. In 1998, the Educational Testing Services launched CBT TOEFL in the US and numerous countries around the world. In the New Year, the CET committee has decided to adopt the Computer Based Language Testing (CBLT) on Band 4.6 tests. So just as Educational Testing Services (1997:2) predicted "computerized assessment might have been the 'road less traveled' in the early 90s, but today it is the future of testing."

II. BACKGROUND

Two major computer testing procedures have been introduced: computerized adaptive testing (CAT) and computer based testing (CBT). To facilitate the present study, these two testing procedures will be differentiated. Computer adaptive testing refers to a sophisticated form of testing, where the computer dynamically selects items to administer to a given examinee based upon his/her earlier item responses on the test. Most proposed systems for developing adaptive tests are based on the item response theory, and most adaptive tests are primarily used in ability and achievement tests (Ju, 1993). Computer based testing as applied in this study, however, generally refers to using a computer to give exactly the same test as one in a paper and pencil format. That is, it has the same test questions and presents them in exactly the same order as the paper and pencil version of the test. Most computer based testing was developed based on the classical test theory, and have been extensively studied (Dunn, Lushene, & O'Neil, 1972; Elwood, 1972; Kiely, Zara, & Weiss, 1986). Computer based testing provides many advantages, such as greater standardization, reduced testing time, immediate test results, and the ability to measure item response latencies. With the increasing availability and utilization of microcomputers in educational institutions, the market for computer based tests will continue to grow.

As computer based tests become available, the equivalence between computer-generated scores and corresponding paper-pencil scores becomes a critical issue. Criteria for the equivalence between two formats of a test include

psychometric equivalence and experiential equivalence (Honaker, 1988). The psychometric equivalence depends on the format of administration effect involving mean scores, distributions and correlations with scores between two test formats under the consideration of methodologies. If computer-based test and paper-pencil test results come up with these standards, then validity data from one format can be directly generalized to the other. Psychometric equivalence is considered to be the primary concern in determining the equivalence between two test formats. Moreover, the other concern involves the evaluation of experiential equivalence, based on the influence of individual difference on the computer-based test involving the factors such as computer experience and computer anxiety. If these factors distract the result of computer-based test, then the equivalence between two test formats are threatened.

Many testing programs are increasingly administering the same tests in both PBT and CBT formats. For example, the TOEFL program concurrently delivers PBT and CBT in approximately 228 countries every year. Similarly, the GRE General test is offered in the US, Canada, and many other countries in paper-pencil and computer-based formats. Mills, Potenza, Fremer, and Ward (2002) speculate that this trend will continue to increase, because of an increase in availability of microcomputers in educational settings, a substantial improvement in the speed of computers, and a significant reduction in cost. CBT has many advantages over PBT, which include faster score reporting, savings on paper and personnel resources and costs of scoring services (Wise & Plake, 1990), and development of new methods of assessment such as simple adaptations of multiple-choice items to more innovative item types (Jodoin, 2003). Despite these advantages, an important question that arises when tests are administered in both formats is whether or not the scores produced are interchangeable (Wang & Kolen, 2001; Gallagher, Bridgeman, & Cahalan, 2002). For example, scores derived from CBT as compared to PBT might reflect not only the examinee's proficiency on the construct being measured, but also differences in formatting (including typing vs. hand-writing) and/or computer proficiency.

There is a large body of research that documents the comparability of scores obtained from PBT and CBT. Lee (1986) investigated the relationship of past computer experience on the scores of college students on a computer-based arithmetic reasoning test and concluded that students with little or no computer experience scored significantly lower than students who had previous experience with computers. Similarly, an extensive review by Mazzeo and Harvey (1988) found that CBT tended to be more difficult than PBT versions of the same tests. Furthermore, Mead and Drasgow (1993) found that the constructs being measured across the two modes were similar for power tests but not for speeded tests. However, other researchers have found that PBT and their CBT counterparts yield comparable scores. For example, Taylor, Jamieson, Eignor, and Kirsch (1998) studied the comparability of PBT and CBT for the 1996 administration of the TOEFL and found no meaningful difference in performance for examinees taking the two different versions. Similarly, Wise, Barnes, Harvey, and Plake (1989) contend that PBT and CBT versions of achievement tests yield very similar scores.

Since the results of these studies are inconsistent and the use of computers have become commonplace, it is even more important to examine whether scores obtained from the two different modes of delivery are in fact comparable (Gallagher, Bridgeman, & Cahalan, 2002). In addition, most of the research studies on the comparability of CBT and PBT were conducted during the 80s and 90s, but the computer technology develops on the monthly and even daily basis in recent years, the conditions for the CBT are changed greatly. Moreover, many research studies related to CBT are conducted in other countries, but in most of the educational institutions in China, especially in primary schools and middle schools, the influence of the computer's application in language tests have not been seen. Therefore, it is significant that some comparable studies related to CBT and PBT be conducted to verify those research reports in our country. So many factors should be reconsidered and new ones should be included in the following-up researches. Under the changing conditions, the current research analyzes the correlation of the two versions of tests and the factors involved.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. *Subjects*

The subjects are Grade Two middle school students from one class, Pingdingshan Feixing School. The whole class, which contains 46 students, is split half randomly to form two groups. They are labeled Group A and Group B. Group A consists of 23 students. Group B consists of 23 students. The age range of the students at the time of the test is from 13 to 16 years old with a mean of 14.5 years old. From the two groups, valid data samples are collected from CBT and PBT respectively. To achieve the research goals, this study will employ a quantitative analysis approach including descriptive statistics, correlation analysis etc.

B. *Test Measures*

A single passage is used for the two versions of reading comprehension measurement developed in this study. The text "The Cock Crows at Midnight", whose Chinese version the candidates are familiar with, has ever been taught in the Chinese textbook in the primary school. The text is very humorous and interesting, as long as the subjects read the beginning of the text, most of them can guess the meaning of the whole text. This enhances the readability of the text, which can activate the reader's interest. It can avoid the case that the candidates often over-focus on the mechanics of the cloze and neglect the content-- a forest and trees issue in the past reading comprehension.

The text is designed to delete the words randomly, which is easy-understanding for the middle school students. The

resulted passages are formed into two types of tests, i.e. the multiple choice test and the gap-filling test with respective eleven blanks. The former contains eleven blanks without any distracters and the latter eleven blanks with three distracters. The two types of tests are also fashioned into their respective computer and paper formats.

A questionnaire designed to measure computer anxiety and experience was developed for this study and administered to each of the subjects of the gap-filling and multiple-choice cloze tests. The questionnaire consists of 10 questions concerning attitudes towards computers, and 4 questions concerning previous computer experience. The attitudes questions are answered on a 5-point scale determined by degree of agreement, the lower the score, and the greater the degree of computer anxiety. The experience questions are rated on a 4-point scale, the higher the score, and the greater the degree of experience (See appendix8 for the attitude and experience scale)

C. Test Procedure

The experiments are made between the two groups, which are chosen from the same class in the middle school. First, Group A and Group B take the computer based test respectively. Group A takes the computer based gap filling cloze test first, while Group B takes the computer based multiple-choice cloze test. No time limited is set during each test, but time consuming on the test will be recorded on the computer when the candidates finish the test. They only have to click the ‘Check’ button to upload their test results.

A week later, the PBT will be taken by the subjects. Group A takes the PBT gap filling cloze test, Group B takes the multiple-choice cloze test. No time is set. After the candidates finish their paper tests, their time consuming on the tested will be recorded by the test administrators.

D. Research Hypothesis

1. There is a significant difference between scores on paper based gap-filling cloze test and computer based gap filling cloze test.
2. There is a significant difference between scores on paper based multiple-choice cloze test and computer based multiple-choice cloze test.
3. The computer anxiety affects computer based test scores.
4. The computer experience affects computer based test scores.
5. Age affects students’ computer based test scores.
6. Gender affects students’ computer based test scores.

IV. DISCUSSION

As Gallagher et al. (2002) pointed out, with an increase in familiarity of students with computers, an overall measure of difference in test performance due to change in mode of delivery may appear less meaningful today. Thus, it is important to use both statistical and substantive analyses at the test and item level in order to ensure that tests are fair and valid for all, regardless of mode of presentation. So the statistical package SPSS 11.5 for Windows is used to analyze the data in this experiment. As evident, the findings of this study are positive and suggested that the CBT and PBT versions of the reading comprehension are comparable.

A. Descriptive Statistics

Means and standard deviations for the variables are shown in Table 4.1. The mean test scores for the paper-based gap-filling cloze test and computer-based gap-filling cloze test are 17.48 and 16.74, with standard deviations of 2.84 and 3.23 respectively, indicating similarly of performance for the two versions of the gap filling cloze test. The mean test scores for the paper based multiple-choice cloze test and the computer based multiple-choice cloze tests are 18 and 17.3, with standard deviations of 3.46 and 3.78 respectively. While these also indicate a similarity between the two versions of multiple-choice cloze test, the mean performance for the multiple-choice cloze test is a little higher than that of the gap filling cloze test, and the dispersion of scores for the multiple-choice cloze test is higher than that of the gap filling cloze test.

TABLE 1
MEAN SCORE AND STANDARD DEVIATION

Gap-filling test	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Deviation
PBT	23	12.00	22.00	17.4783	2.84237
CBT	23	8.00	18.00	16.7434	3.23650

TABLE 2
MEAN SCORE AND STANDARD DEVIATION

Multiple-choice test	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Deviation
PBT	23	12.00	22.00	18.0000	3.46410
CBT	23	8.00	22.00	17.2609	3.78045

The mean score for the attitude scale is 32.4 (maximum=50), indicating a generally positive attitude towards computers. A score of 30 or above might be regarded as signifying a positive attitude towards computers, while a score

below 20 signifies a negative attitude or computer anxiety. The questionnaire (See Appendix 8) shows that none of the subjects can be described as computer anxious, and only one as equivocal (subject with scores of 23), with the rest having positive attitudes.

The mean score for computer experience is 9.9 (maximum score=16), suggesting a reasonable degree of computer experience. A subject with a score below 6 might be considered to have little computer experience, from 7 to 12 to have some experience, and from 13 to 16 to be very experienced. Questionnaire B shows that only three subjects with score of 5.5 and 6 have little experience about computer, most of the students have much experiences, and they have higher score for question 1,2 and 3; question 4 scores were much lower. This indicates the subjects' general lack of experience on the Internet.

B. Correlation Analysis

TABLE 3
2-TAILED T-TEST OF THE CORRELATIONS OF 4 VARIABLES

		computer attitude	computer experience	cbt multiple-choice cloze test score
computer attitude	Pearson Correlation	1	-.065	.244(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.207	.000
	N	374	374	374
computer experience	Pearson Correlation	-.065	1	.060
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.207	.	.249
	N	374	374	374
cbt multiple-choice cloze test score	Pearson Correlation	.244(**)	.060	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.249	.
	N	374	374	374

Table 3 gives the correlations between the computer-based cloze test and subjects' attitude and experience. Correlations among computer based multiple-choice cloze test, computer attitude and computer experience are .244 and .06 respectively. P values are .00 and .244. This shows that there is no significant correlation between the computer attitude and computer-based multiple-choice cloze test score ($r=.244$, $p<.01$), and there is also no correlation between the computer experience and computer-based multiple-choice cloze test score ($r=.06$, $p>.01$)

TABLE 4.
2-TAILED T-TEST OF THE CORRELATIONS OF 4 VARIABLES

		computer attitude	computer experience	cbt multiple-choice cloze test score
computer attitude	Pearson Correlation	1	-.065	.244(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.207	.000
	N	374	374	374
computer experience	Pearson Correlation	-.065	1	.060
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.207	.	.249
	N	374	374	374
cbt multiple-choice cloze test score	Pearson Correlation	.244(**)	.060	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.249	.
	N	374	374	374

Correlations between the computer-based gap filling cloze test and computer attitude, computer experience are shown in Table4.2b. Pearson's product correlation are respectively .182 and .151, P values are .001 and .007. This shows that there is no significant correlation between the computer attitude, computer experience and computer-based gap filling cloze test.

TABLE 5
2-TAILED T-TEST OF THE CORRELATIONS OF 4 VARIABLES

Correlations

		computer experience	computer attitude	cbt gap-filling cloze test score
computer experience	Pearson Correlation	1	-.196**	-.182**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000	.001
	N	316	316	316
computer attitude	Pearson Correlation	-.196**	1	.151**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.	.007
	N	316	316	316
cbt gap-filling cloze test score	Pearson Correlation	-.182**	.151**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.007	.
	N	316	316	316

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

TABLE 6
2-TAILED T-TEST OF THE CORRELATIONS OF 5 VARIABLES

Correlations

		age	gender	CBT multiple-choice score	Computer Attitude	Computer Experience
AGE	pearson correlation	1	-.168	-.382	.025	-.122
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.432	.072	.909	.571
	N	24	24	23	24	24
GENDER	pearson correlation	-.168	1	.008	.123	-.656**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.432	.	.970	.568	.001
	N	24	24	23	24	24
pearson correlation			**			

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

TABLE 7
2-TAILED T-TEST OF THE CORRELATIONS OF 5 VARIABLES

Correlations

		age	gender	computer attitude	computer experience	CBT gapfilling scores
age	pearson correlation	1	-.070	-.115	.035	-.285
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.756	.609	.877	.199
	N	22	22	22	22	22
gender	pearson correlation	-.070	1	.255	-.546**	-.414
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.756	.	.253	.009	.056
	N	22	22	22	22	22
pearson correlation			**			

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

Table 6 and 7 shows that there is no significant correlation between the age and computer attitude; computer experience; and computer based formats scores. Likewise, there is no significant correlations between gender and computer attitude; computer-based formats, however, there is a significant middle correlation between computer experience and gender (Pearson correlation=0.6, p=.009)

Correlations between the paper-based gap filling cloze test and computer-based gap filling cloze test is .71. There is a significant correlation between the paper-based gap filling cloze test and computer-based gap filling cloze test (p= .0093).

Correlation between the paper-based multiple-choice cloze test and computer-based multiple-choice cloze test is .75. There is a significant correlation between the paper-based multiple-choice cloze test and computer-based

multiple-choice cloze test ($p=.00$). These correlations are shown in Table 4.4

TABLE 8
CORRELATIONS EFFICIENTS BETWEEN CBT AND PBT

	Test score	correlation	Sig.
Group A	CBT gap-filling cloze test & PBT gap-filling cloze test	.712	.0093
Group B	CBT multiple-choice cloze test & PBT multiple-choice cloze test	.750	.00

V. CONCLUSION

The main purpose of this study is to determine whether the computer based gap-filling cloze and multiple-choice cloze tests are suitable tools for measuring reading comprehension, by comparing students' performance on traditional style paper-based tests to performance on the same tests of computer-based format. From a psycholinguistic viewpoint, the language communication model suggests that the ability of a reader to decode text is affected by the message system. Thus, when a computer screen replaces the traditional paper-based presentation of a text, the comparative differences in the message system may change the readers' decoding or comprehension of that text. Previous researchers have noted that when the subjects do computer based testing, their performance may be influenced by factors intrinsic to the computer mode, such as screen clarity and ease of navigating the text, or by personal factors such as anxiety or inexperience with computers.

While much research has been done in the area of computer-based testing, there are also some studies on the suitability of computer-based testing. In this study, four kinds of reading comprehension measurements are designed and administered to Grade Two 46 subjects, along with measures of attitude towards computers and computer experience, to explore whether the computer based testing is a suitable testing medium and whether factors such as computer anxiety or experience can affect test performance. Statistical analysis of the test scores provides answers to the research questions presented in Chapter 4.

1. There is no significant difference between the paper based gap filling cloze test and computer based gap filling cloze test.
2. There is no significant difference between the paper based multiple-choice cloze test and computer based multiple-choice cloze test.
3. Computer anxiety does not affect students' computer based test scores.
4. Computer experiences do not affect students' computer based test scores
5. Age does not affect students' computer based test scores.
6. Gender does not affect students' computer based test scores.

The study indicates that the students achieve similar test scores for the computer based gap filling cloze test and paper based gap filling cloze test, and similar for the computer based multiple-choice cloze test and paper based multiple-choice cloze test, and also the dispersions of the two versions of the gap filling and multiple-choice cloze test are similar, so it can prove that computer based gap filling cloze test is equivalent to the paper based gap filling cloze test, and the computer based multiple-choice cloze test is equivalent to the paper based multiple-choice cloze test according to American Psychological Association (APA) guideline.

Furthermore, no significant relationship is found between computer anxiety and computer based test scores, and also no significant relationship is found between computer experience and computer based test scores. In other words, the student in this study who has higher computer anxiety does not score lower or spend more time on the computer based testing than subjects who have lower computer anxiety. Students who have more computer experience do not score higher, and spent less time on the computer based testing than students who have less computer experience. In this study, because students generally have low computer anxiety even though they have little experience, computer anxiety does not seem to influence test performance in computer based testing. Even if most of the subjects have much experience, it does not seem to influence their performance in the computer based testing. However, in this study, it is found that the students who have little computer experience may tend to spend more time completing a computer based test than who have much computer experience.

In general, the subjects in this study show positive attitudes toward computer based testing; although they have never experienced or heard about computer based testing until participating in this experiment. It is believed that positive attitudes toward computer based testing will help the development of computer based testing and education from screen reading. Based on the findings of this research, the investigated variables-computer anxiety or computer experience does not result in the two different format administrations. But there are still engineering designs or technical problems that maybe result in the differences between computer-based testing and paper based testing, such as the program, the computer itself or interface design, also could be the factors to make the two test formats different.

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Autonomy for English Teaching and Learning in China

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Abstract—Autonomy for English teaching and learning conduces to removal of several side-effects of authoritarian management. It aims at briefly introducing individual autonomy and local autonomy. Individual autonomy relies on an individual's self-control capacity. Teachers ought to shift their roles from being pure instructors to becoming objective advisors; whereas learners shift from being blind receivers to becoming active performers.. Local autonomy does not value certainty of remaining monopolized. It requires flexible localized arrangements and a harmonious relationship among and between linguistic aspects.

Index Terms—English teaching and learning, individual autonomy, local autonomy

I. INTRODUCTION

Autonomy refers to the capacity to take control of oneself, involving self-direction; self-management; self-evaluation; self-redirection as well as the capacity to cooperate with others, etc. It may help us think of a certain degree of dependence, independence, interdependence. Where there is life, there is requirement of autonomy. Where there are cultures and languages, autonomy is likely to prevail.

The concept of autonomy first entered the field of language teaching and learning through the Council of Europe's Modern Languages Project, which was established in 1971. One of the outcomes of the project was the establishment of CRAPEL—Centre de Recherches et d' Applications en Langue, at the University of Nancy, France. Yves Chalon, the founder of CRAPEL, is the father of autonomy in language teaching and learning. The leadership of CRAPEL was passed to Henri Holec, with his project report to the Council of Europe as a key early document on autonomy in language teaching and learning.

Autonomy for English teaching and learning requires removal of toxic teaching and learning styles, creation of healthful individual and local autonomy for progressive teaching and learning process. The practice of self-directed teaching and learning objectives, progress and evaluation of teaching and learning need to be determined by local teachers and learners themselves. A harmonious relationship between lingual and non-lingual aspects ought to be taken into careful consideration for autonomy of English teaching and learning.

II. ANALYSIS OF SEVERAL SIDE-EFFECTS OF AUTHORITARIAN MANAGEMENT

Under the influence of Chinese history, officials have the authority to decide the direction, management, evaluation, redirection of English teaching and learning process. Leaders take control of syllabuses, curriculums, examinations, evaluation, etc. Millions of students take part in the national entrance examination; CET-4, CET-6 examinations and the like. On campus, teachers make nearly all the decisions during the class. They can decide what to teach, what to learn, how to teach, how to learn, when to teach, when to learn, where to teach and where to learn.

As a result of authoritarian management, teachers are deprived of local autonomy for practical syllabuses, curriculums, various styles, while learners are deprived of individual autonomy for self-direction; self-management; self-evaluation; self-redirection. No one dares to challenge authority. Learners are mainly manipulated, controlled and traditionally pacified like little children. The common mode is academic command and control or authoritarian monopoly, regardless of diversity and efficiency. The majority of learners are motivated by fear, phobia rather than enthusiasm or interest in learning. They are supposed to do what they are asked to do. The only evaluation resorts to digital scores in standardizes examinations instead of performance or competence. Competent performers are submerged in academic monopoly or authoritarian management.

Removal of several side-effects of above-mentioned authoritarian management ranks as a hot topic and deserves great public interest or attention at present. People should cultivate new ideology of linguistic and non-linguistic elements. As China has a population of more than 1.3 billion, how can officials authorize the universality of national arrangement? How can they resort exclusively to results of national examinations for evaluation? Where there is diversity, there ought to be autonomy. Great energy ought to be directed toward autonomy for English teaching and learning. Only when inner-linguistic elements are in agreement with cross-linguistic aspects, can harmony be created for English teaching and learning.

III. INDIVIDUAL AUTONOMY

Individual autonomy relies on an individual's capacity to direct, to manage, to evaluate and to redirect himself or herself. Generally speaking, the Chinese learners are likely to be more influenced by their parents' and teachers' arrangements. What their parents and teachers instruct will lead to their daily performance. If their parents happen to be intellectuals, they tend to pay attention to knowledge of English. If their parents act as gray collar workers or illiterate farmer, they often lack the sense of learning English. If teachers are good advisors, they usually work hard at English. When teachers are out of patience or lack proper individual advice, learners may lose their way of learning English. It is true that in China many students usually follow the class without asking why and how they improve English.

With the development of foreign cultural exchange, the Chinese teachers and learners need to have a clear understanding of individualism and individuality. The former focuses on the belief that the freedom and rights of individual persons are the most important rights in the society, and the behavior or attitude of a person who does things in her or his own way without being influenced by other people. Traditionally speaking, the majority of learners in China do not want to be laughed at by others, and are often too shy to perform in public owing to their lack of necessary individualism. They prefer that silence is gold from time to time, a clear case experienced by most foreign teachers when they arrive in China. As most Chinese learners are short of required individualism, they may lack great courage and refrain from asking and answering questions. If they make mistakes, they think that they have lost face, which is crucial to the Chinese culture. Therefore, when we talk about individual autonomy, we need to promote proper individualism, accounting for about twenty seven percent of functions in linguistic autonomy in our experiment. Improper individualism may deprive of others' performance whereas necessary individualism helps the majority of Chinese learners to be encouraged to speak and perform.

Individual autonomy is more closely related to individual quality or individuality of learners. It promotes individual characteristics that make something or someone quite different from all other things or people. Quality varies from person to person. Without individuality, there would be no involvement of diversity. In order to help the Chinese teachers and students improve individuality, we arrive at the experimental result that individuality accounts for about thirty eight percent of functions in linguistic autonomy. Improper individuality may leads to blind liberalism, whereas proper individuality leads to academic vitality. In this sense, both teachers and learners are required to shift their roles for improvement of individual autonomy. Teachers ought to shift from being pure instructors to becoming objective advisors. Good English instructions are supposed to be accompanied with good advice by good advisors. Teachers need to refrain from saying what must be done, but instead offer various learners concrete advice or suggestions on individual direction, management, evaluation, redirection etc. They ought to arrange face to face discussions with learners for improvement of mutual individuality at regular intervals. Academic individuality demands that different students should receive different assignments with various evaluation means. Take an oral assignment for example. Learners with good backgrounds may recite longer paragraphs while those with poor backgrounds may read or recite short sentences or paragraphs. Although management seems to be individually different, when confidence is acquired for individuality, great achievements do matter and count in autonomy. But if learners have gone astray from correct direction, both instructors and learners need to co-analyze the problem and find solutions. Learners ought to shift from being blind receivers to becoming individual performers. They ought to experiment with practical advice and practice individual autonomy such as self-access: a means of facilitating self-directed learning with self-instructional and distance learning materials. Self-access is broadly conducive to learners' individuality, though it may inhibit autonomy without any strong pedagogical rationale under certain conditions. Learners need to have more academic self service, similar in tertiary industry, questioning oneself for adjustment from time to time. Diverse self academic service is likely to result in rich outcomes of individual autonomy.

IV. LOCAL AUTONOMY

Local autonomy refers to diverse self-management in different localities. It is acknowledged that culture varies from place to place, and that there is no certain arrangement which is acceptable, suitable and popular all over the country at present. National documents have no power of really conquering all universities and colleges. Institutions need to have their own ways of academic administration. Therefore, local instructors need to plan their local schedules, design various teaching contents, assign different assignments even when learners are in the same class. They have the right to design local syllabuses, curriculums or academic arrangements according to learners' intelligence, backgrounds, performance and progress. They can evaluate locally with quizzes, tests, contests, debates, examination in oral or written forms, and make timely changes, reforms, etc.

Local autonomy is somewhat related to individualization or individualized learning and instruction. It is linked with programmed learning and based on a thoroughly behavioristic psychology, aiming at the most efficient use of teachers and learners to achieve the most effective result. If in terms of what the teacher wants the learner to achieve, it may sometimes leave little freedom of choice to the individual learner. If in terms of good cooperation, it may create more chances for learners to perform. On our experimental basis, we think that individualized learning and instruction or individualization accounts for about thirty five percent of function in linguistic autonomy. With proper individualization, both teachers and learners enjoy local partnership, hence cooperative efficiency, equality, win-win situation.

Local autonomy does not value certainty of remaining fixedly monopolized. Instructors ought to apply up-dated methodology, adapt network media contents, adjust to international changes. They are encouraged to help learners select from the media proper materials of various kinds including dramas, films, songs, poems, cross-talks, sports, science, business, industry, agriculture, travel, service, medicine, military, finance, transportation, education, etc.

Local autonomy also requires a harmonious relationship among and between linguistic aspects. Listening and speaking, reading and writing as well as translation practice ought to be organically arranged side by side. Peculiar interest in one or two items, yet less attention to other items will be avoided from any perspectives. Oral practice instructors should consider reading, writing, translation arrangements, and instructors of reading, writing, translation need to design listening and speaking contents. Flexible local autonomy is greatly based on performance and commitment of local learners in the region. Besides, when local autonomy takes non-linguistic environment into proper consideration, localized facilities, human resources, methodology as well as governmental policies contribute to improvement of local autonomy. More local investment in facilities, organizing more English speaking and writing contests, lectures, popularization of simple English conversations in public adds creative atmosphere to the trend of local autonomy.

V. CONCLUSION

Autonomy arouses the particular personal or moral qualities associated with learners' global capacity to carry out learning effectively. Autonomy for college English teaching and learning covers a wide range of individual and local autonomy. It may refer to self-regulated, self-designed, or self-organized learning process, which means independence from national monopoly to a great degree, dependence on instructors' advice, interdependence between instructors and learners. Teachers' role need to be shifted from being pure instructors to becoming academic advisors, suggesting flexible schedules, diverse methods for self-direction, self-management, self-evaluation or redirection. Learners can no longer be blind receivers, they ought to be active performer and good cooperators. Diversity, localization, quick adjustment to any kind of change in modern times and catering to the quality of changing or being changed to suit different situations are important elements of local autonomy, some of which can be further discussed in the future.

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Classification and SLA Studies of Passive Voice

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Abstract—Passive voice has been one important and difficult part of grammar. This thesis focuses on Quirk’s and Granger’s definition and classification of passive voice and presents the historical views on the research of passive voice from the point of second language acquisition studies.

Index Terms—passive voice, classification, second language acquisition

I. DEFINITION AND CHARACTERISTICS OF PASSIVE VOICE

A. Voice Defined

Passive voice is not a derivative of active voice, which is the outcome of people’s different meaning expression. Passive voice describes the whole process of certain event from the patient’s point of view. It is a marked form of voice. There are three markers in passive voice, *be*, *-ed* and *by*, which has its meaning and significance respectively. Typical passive could be classified into two categories, passive with agent and passive without agent, or, agentive passive and non-agentive passive. In the agentive passive, the agent will not appear but will be implicit in the context.

B. Characteristics of Passive Voice

Characteristically English is a typical inflectional language, in which there are various inflectional variants. English belongs to *explicit* linguistic category, while Chinese has the open and *implicit* linguistic characteristics.

Voice is a grammatical category which makes it possible to view the action of a sentence in two ways (Quirk, et al, 1972, 801-811), without change in the facts reported:

- (1) The butler *murdered* the detective.
- (2) The detective *was murdered* by the butler.

Sentence (1) is in active voice and sentence (2) in passive voice.

The active-passive relation involves two grammatical ‘levels’: the verb phrase and the clause. In the verb phrase, the difference between the two voice categories is that the passive adds a form of the auxiliary and the past participle (*-Ved*) of the main verb.

At the clause level, passivization involves rearrangement of two clause elements and one addition. (A) The active subject becomes the passive agent, (B) the active object becomes the passive subject, and (C) the preposition *by* is introduced before the agent. The prepositional agent phrase of passive sentences is an optional sentence element. The process of active-passive transformation for monotransitive sentence with nominal object can be represented diagrammatically.

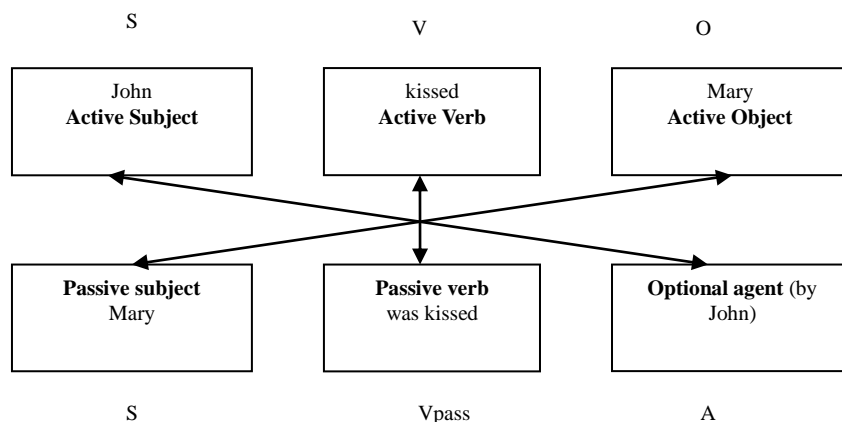


Figure 1 The active-passive relation

The prepositional agent phrase of passive sentence is an optional sentence element. Consequently, voice transformation can be expressed in this formula:

Noun phrase1 + active verb phrase + noun phrase2
 ~Noun phrase2+ passive verb phrase + (by noun phrase)

Although the structure of a sentence changes under voice transformation, its meaning remains the same. In *John kissed Mary* and *Mary was kissed by John*, *John* is the “performer of the action” in both voices. In the sentence structure, however, the active subject corresponds to the passive agent.

II. VIEWS ABOUT CLASSIFICATION OF PASSIVE VOICE

A. Quirk’s View about Classification of Passive Voice

The passive construction has been classified in many different ways. Summarizing the discussion of the passive scale in the “*A Grammar of Contemporary English*” (1972), Quirk set up the following subcategories.

1. Agentive passives

Agentive passive involves *with expressed agent* and *without expressed agent*. Sentence (1) and (2) have a direct passive-active relation. The difference between the next two is that the former has a personal, the latter a non-personal agent:

- (3) My father made this violin.
- (4) The results hardly justify this conclusion.

With expressed agents:

- (5) Coal has been replaced by oil.
This is a passive with two possible active transforms depending on the interpretation of the by-phrase.
- (6) Oil has replaced coal.
- (7) (People in many countries) have replaced coal by oil.

Sentence (6) is an active transform like (4) with a non-personal agent; (7) is an active transform where the by-phrase has been given an instrumental interpretation (by=with). Consequently an active subject must be supplied.

Without expressed agents:

- (8) This difficulty can be avoided in several ways.
Sentence (8) exemplifies the most common type of passive, which has no expressed agent, or agentless passives.

2. Quasi-passives

- (9) We are encouraged to go on with the project.
- (10) John was interested in linguistics.

The passive sentences (9) and (10) represent a “mixed” class whose members have both verbal and adjectival properties. They are verbal in having active analogues:

- (11) (The results) encourage us to go on with the project.
- (12) Linguistics interested John.

3. Non-agentive passives/intensive active complement constructions

- (13) The modern world becomes more highly industrialized and mechanized.

Sentence (13) has no active transform or possibility of agent addition, since no “performer” is conceived of. The participles have adjectival values: compare *industrialized-industrial* and *mechanized-mechanical*. Besides a number of such “resulting” verbs ending in *-ize* (*organize, Americanized*, etc), this class includes “existing” constructions, as in

- (14) The house is already sold.
The corresponding active of which is not (15) but (16).
- (15) (The agent) already sells the house.
- (16) (The agent) has already sold the house.

In this case, voice transformation involves aspectual shift from present to present perfect.

While it is clear that (13) and (14) are not ‘passive’ in the sense of sentences, they still satisfy the formal passive requirement and, as in the case of (14), often have an “indirect” voice relationship. We will therefore call this class “non-agentive passive/intensive active complement constructions”, recognizing that *The house is already sold*. It is related both to agentive passive *The house has already been sold* and to the intensive (active) complement construction.

- (17) The house is already gone/ no longer available.

B. Quirk’s Another Passive Scale (Quirk, et al, 1972, 266-231)

TABLE 1
 QUIRK’S PASSIVE SCALE

Quirk’s passive scale				
Central passive or true passive		semi-passive or mixed passive	Pseudo-passive	
With agentive phrase	Without agentive phrase		With current copula verbs, e.g., <i>be, feel, look</i>	With resulting copula verbs, e.g., <i>get, become, grow</i>

C. Granger’s View

Granger (1983:81-190) has concentrated on the *be + past participle* construction, and classified it into seven categories, namely, passives, adjectival pseudo-passives, verbal pseudo-passives, mixed *be+ Ved* combinations, usually passive category, peripheral combinations and stative combinations.

Examples (18)-(24) illustrate them respectively:

(18) That attitude was maintained by the government in the further nine days of debates in the Lords.

(19) Perhaps the tick is rather more complicated.

(20) She's been rather elusive as far as I'm concerned, so I don't really know her.

(21) I am amazed at the price of houses out here.

(22) I feel we're all faced with this problem.

(23) I'm fairly closely connected with that work.

(24) But I have these two houses that are built on to the next door's back garden sort of thing...

Granger's classification is in great detail. Actually the latter four categories are the borderline cases and they are very much related to, and sometimes can be put into the first category.

As a matter of fact, though they choose different terms, Granger's and Quirk, et al's classifications are more or less overlapped. For instance, Quirk, et al's central passives are the same as Granger's passives, semi-passives are to some extent equal to mixed *be-Ved* combinations. Pseudo-passives are divided into adjectival and verbal pseudo-passives in Granger's classification

III. HISTORICAL VIEWS ON L2 USE OF PASSIVE VOICE CONSTRUCTION

Second Language Acquisition researches on passive voice construction mainly originated from the late 1970s, when two influential notions were proposed and paved the way for studying passive construction from the perspective of SLA.

One remarkable notion is the distinction between topic-prominent and subject-prominent language suggested by Li and Thompson (1976). Li and Thompson divide languages into topic-prominent and subject-prominent: topic-prominent languages are those in which "the basic structure of sentences favours a description in which the grammatical relation topic-comment plays a major role", while subject-prominent languages are those in which "the basic structure of sentences favours a description in which the grammatical relation subject-predicate plays a major role" (Li & Thompson 1976:459). And they observe that while the passive construction is common in subject-prominent languages, it is less productive in topic-prominent language; some do not have passives at all.

Another influential idea is Unaccusative Hypothesis proposed by Perlmutter (1978) and updated by Burzio (1986). Perlmutter is the first to propose that there exist two distinct classes of intransitive verbs: one class is called unaccusative and the other unergative; while Burzio is the first to describe the two classes of intransitive verbs in framework where the sole argument of unergative verbs is an agent generated in subject position whereas that of unaccusative verbs is a theme or patient base generated in object position. Unaccusative Hypothesis discusses that syntactically unaccusative verbs "resemble other intransitive verbs in that they subcategorize for a single argument and that argument generally appears on the surface as the subject" (Yip, 1995:130); whereas semantically these verbs "describe changes of state and process that lack volitional control on the part of the subject" (Yip, 1995:130).

Yip (1995) draws her attention to Chinese-speaking learners even though all the 20 subjects in her experiment come from Taiwan rather than the Chinese mainland. Yip mainly observes how the Chinese EFL learners could clearly distinguish grammatical passive construction, pseudo-passives and ungrammatical passivization of unaccusative verbs by adopting the approach of grammaticality-judgment. Yip concludes that Chinese learners tend to undergenerate grammatical passives while they overextend the passivization to unaccusative verbs. According to Yip, "the pseudo-passive is a malformed passive" (Yip, 1995:99), this could be illustrated in the following sentences:

(55) New cars must keep inside.

(56) These sentences can analyze many ways.

(57) Erhu [Chinese violin] can play like this. (Yip, 1995:97)

Yip argues that the acceptance of pseudo-passives for Chinese learners lie in the confusion of the topic-prominence language (Chinese) and the subject-prominence language (English). In terms of the passive unaccusative, Yip first divides the unaccusative verbs into "unpaired verbs, which only occur as unaccusatives; and paired verbs, which have a transitive counterpart" (Yip, 1995:143). And she points out that the confusion of paired unaccusative verbs and transitive verbs leads to the over-passivization of unaccusatives and speculates from the learnability perspective that internalized, inappropriate passives of paired unaccusatives would be harder to expunge than that of unpaired unaccusative.

Hirakawa (1995, 2001) investigates Japanese learners' knowledge of unaccusatives in English. Hirakawa elicits judgment of sentences with paired unaccusatives (melt, brake continue, dry, increase, spill), unpaired unaccusatives (appear, die, fall, arrive, happen, disappear), and transitive verbs (hit, cut, see, read, build, need). Japanese learners are predicted to behave in much the same way as the Chinese learners in Yip's research. Hirakawa attributed the phenomenon of the passive unaccusative to the negative transfer of native language.

Oshita (2000), based on his analysis of the 1993 version of the Longman learners' Corpus, also reports that similar errors are produced by L2 learners of different L1 backgrounds. He compares samples of passive errors with

equivalents in the learners' L1 and concludes that the problem is not direct L1 transfer. He claims that the most plausible account of the passive unaccusative structure is regarded as an overt marker of NP movement, and an overgeneralization of the passive morphosyntax of the target language.

Montrul (1999) independently investigates acquisition of the semantics and morphosyntax of causatives and unaccusatives, and he reports that the same type of error also exists in Spanish L2 interlanguage.

Cai (2000) studies the Chinese ESL learners' knowledge of unaccusative verbs. Certainly, his study is inevitably concerned with the passive unaccusative. He finds that Chinese learners seldom produce ungrammatical passivization of unpaired unaccusatives but they can not perfectly judge the passivization of paired unaccusatives. And he attributes the passive paired unaccusatives to the proficiency of target language and the negative transfer of native language.

There has been a substantial body of comparative studies of English passive and its Chinese counterpart at home. However, they were almost exclusively focused on: 1) description of its syntactic features (Nancao 2003). 2) The essence of verbs in English passive voice (Tang Yanling, 2003). 3) comparative study between English and Chinese passive voice from the linguistic point of view or from a cognitive linguistic point of view (Gu Tingting 2003; Shen Wenan 2003; Zen Qing 2003; Xiong Xueliang & Wang Zhijun 2001, 2003). The research on the acquisition of English passive by the Chinese learners is unfortunately lacking. To date, two studies (Chen Wanxia 2002; Wang Yunfeng 2004) in this field have been conducted. Chen Wanxia conducted a corpus-based research on the acquisition on English passive by Chinese learners. Based on Chinese learners English corpus (CLEU), she analyzed the errors by Chinese learners across several proficiency levels (senior high school students, non-English majors of intermediate and higher proficiency levels, English majors of intermediate and higher proficiency levels) and concluded all learners encountered the similar difficulties: the elaborate verb morphological change and under-use of English passive, which could be attributed to the poor grasp of verb usages and negative transfer of the mother tongue. The errors amounted to 44.9 percent and 32.1 percent out of total errors respectively. Some researchers attributed these errors to the negative morphological and syntactic transfer (Li & Thompson 1976; Rutherford 1983; Yip 1995; Chen Wanxia 2002; Wang Yunfeng 2004). Wang's study was concerned with the learning process involved in learning English passive structures and dealt with the problem of passivizability of English verbs in this task. Wang Yunfeng (2002) noted in his doctor dissertation paper "L2 learning of the English passive for the Chinese learners" that "animacy of the participating arguments affects Chinese learners' acquisition of English passive structures. In the passive-felicitous context, the verb with an animate action-doer is more likely used in passive voice than the verb with an inanimate one. It is especially the case for lower and intermediate learners. However, with the development of their English proficiency, the animacy effect gradually disappears and the learners seem to be able to use almost all the passivizable verbs in passive structures including noncanonical causative verbs".

Chen Wanxia (2002) pointed out in her thesis "Acquisition of English passive voice by Chinese learners—A corpus-based approach" that "for different levels of learners, the difficulty in acquiring this grammatical item remains the same; the unaccusative hypothesis is psychologically realistic; inadequate use of passive voice is among the mistakes most likely to be made by learners. The mistakes can be attributed to the poor grasp of verb usages and the negative transfer of the mother tongue".

Liuli (2003) made a research about Chinese ESL learner's overpassivization of unaccusative verbs, made a introduction offered three explanations for the main cause, i.e., transitivity hypothesis (Yip, 1990, 1995) and NP movement hypothesis (Zoble, 1989) from syntactic structure point of view, conceptualization from pragmatic point and the overgeneralization from lexical and semantic structure point. She concluded that overpassivization is the main characteristic of Chinese learner's passive acquisition.

IV. LIMITATION ON PREVIOUS RESEARCH

Previous studies of the SLA studies on the passive constructions did make great success and pave the way for future research. However, there are some limitations on those researcher's studies as listed below:

(1) As for the research subjects, those research do not involve native Chinese learners so as to explore the Chinese ESL learners' use of passive constructions. Even though Yip (1995) studied Chinese-speaking learners, her subjects in the research come from Taiwan. Because of the well-known reason, Taiwan's learners could not represent average Chinese learners; then the situation happened to them could not explain what would happen to the Chinese mainland learners of English. Besides, Cai (2000) conducts his study in Chinese mainland and use Chinese-speaking learners as research subject, but his subjects are only 50 English majors in PLA Foreign Language Institute, thus the findings of his research are not representative enough.

(2) In terms of research perspective, most previous researches (Zoble, 1989; Yip, 1995; Hirakawa, 1995, 2001; Oshita, 2000; Cai Jinting, 2000) merely focus on the passive unaccusative and error types, and other L2 production errors concerning passive construction are not fully explored. They do not concentrate on the other acquisition problems.

(3) In terms of research approach, only Oshita (2000) carried out a study based on the Longman Learners' Corpus, most previous researchers (Zoble, 1989; Yip, 1995; Montrul, 1999 and Cai, 2000) adopt experimental approach, devising elicited production tasks and grammaticality-judgment tasks. The number of subjects involved in the research was not large enough to represent the average learners to make more generalized and objective conclusions.

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