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PREFACE

I congratulate the Council of Northeast Asia International Symposium on Language, Literature and Translation on its initiative in organizing international symposiums in China every two years. The Third International Symposium held in Heilongjiang University, 4-5 January 2014 was a success and the participants of the Symposium spoke highly of it.

Through my observation, I believe the symposium served at least two functions: one is that it provided a platform for scholars from both China and other countries to meet and exchange ideas and research findings in language, literature and translation; the other is that these scholars from different countries, especially from Chinese universities established certain academic relations to continue their discussion of research and pedagogical practices in their concerned areas.

The articles in the proceedings are a representative of papers and workshops presented by scholars at the symposium. Despite the wide range of knowledge areas and diversified ideas and research in the proceedings, the publication of the proceedings will help readers to build up knowledge and understanding of their relevant subjects on the one hand, and on the other it will contribute to the development of research in language, literature and translation both in terms of theory and practices. At the same time, it will also help to build up a channel through which Chinese scholars have opportunities to share their ideas and research with their counterparts in other countries in language, literature and translation.

The publication of the proceedings is to be highly commended for what it offers to foreign language teachers and postgraduate students both in and outside China. I expect that the proceedings will succeed in achieving its purpose for a wider audience in research of language, literature and translation.

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Keynote Speech I

A Shakespearean Atomic Typo and its Potential Repercussions

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[Abstract] This paper is based around a specific example of typographical error found in a recent translation of William Shakespeare's Hamlet for the Chinese market. I will conjecture on the potential misinterpretations and flawed readings that such mistakes may generate in a hypothetical undergraduate student of present-day China. However, I will also reflect on how ambiguity and uncertainty surrounding meaning has long been a part of Shakespeare scholarship, and that the typos of today might be seen as the latest stage in this ongoing interpretative and re-interpretative process.

[Keywords] William Shakespeare; Hamlet; Michael Almereyda; atomic typo; Opus Media; interpretation; conjecture.

Textual references to Hamlet: Prince of Denmark in this paper relate to the Second Quarto of 1604-5 unless otherwise specified.

Since its inauguration in 2011, Heilongjiang International University has made great expansions into numerous different fields of study. One of these is the works of William Shakespeare, and it's been my honour to have assisted in the development of this specialist subject throughout HIU's first years as an independent institution. We have now prepared three entries for the Chinese Universities Shakespeare Festival, a national competition held annually at the Chinese University of Hong Kong; we boast a standing Shakespeare Troupe made up of our students; and I personally teach an advanced module on Shakespeare's plays each semester. Heilongjiang International University takes pride in its existing and continuing work on history's most celebrated playwright.

It was in the course of this work that I stumbled upon what would ultimately become the inspiration for the present paper. Michael Almereyda's modern-dress film of *Hamlet: Prince of Denmark* (2000) was distributed in China by a company called Guangdong Opus Media Ltd., who provided their own English-language subtitles for the DVD. These contain a mistake that caught my eye. Hamlet's lines of Act 1 Scene 4:

that these men

Carrying, I say, the stamp of some defect

Are represented by Opus Media thus:

that the semen

carrying, say, the stamp of some defect

What has happened here is called an "atomic typo." This relatively recent term refers to a typographical error producing a word or group of words that is wrong but nevertheless spelled correctly, so that a computer spellchecker cannot recognise the problem or highlight it as such. The typist at Opus (whose identity is not recorded by the DVD, which credits the subtitles merely to the company) accidentally omitted the space between "these" and "men." Entering that construction, "thesemen," into any Windows program prompts the spellchecker to dutifully volunteer the two resultant possibilities: "these men" or "the semen." Bill Gates has yet to invent a computer that can infer the meaning of words through their

context, and this was evidently beyond the Opus scribe too, who clicked on the latter choice instead of the former. The subtitles on the whole, in fact, abound with atomic typos and other varieties besides. It is an extremely shoddy captioning job.

This notwithstanding however, Opus Media's impromptu revision of "these men" to "the semen" gradually took hold on my imagination. It began with a notion that, based on what I knew from my own work on Shakespeare and this particular one of his plays, there seemed to be the potential for an actual scholarly reading of *Hamlet* informed by Opus's mistake – in other words, that although "the semen" is a typographical error, there existed a body of authentic Shakespeare scholarship that might be used to support a false interpretation based on it. And if this should be so, then on a far more serious note, surely we can imagine some well-intentioned undergraduate ending up disastrously misled by Opus's gaffe – a danger perhaps especially real here in China and other non-English speaking nations, where students of Shakespeare must tackle his already challenging archaisms in a language that is not their own?

Let us explore this possibility, stepping well and truly into the realms of conjecture I admit, but at least with a worthy object to our flight of fancy. The central question that should concern us is will our hypothetical student realize in time that "the semen" is a typo, or will they allow it to send them galloping off in the wrong critical direction? To put it more succinctly, how easy is it to spot Opus's mistake? I would venture there are three ways in which the student might do this:

1. By reference to Shakespeare's original text;
2. By noting grammatical inconsistencies generated in the subtitles by the typo;
3. By noting a loss of inherent meaning in the subtitles caused by the typo.

These, we will examine in turn.

By Reference to Shakespeare's Original Text

Turning to a bound and published edition of *Hamlet* would without doubt be the surest way for our student to determine that "the semen" is indeed a typo. Even here, however, there is the potential for ambiguity. If the student is using a Chinese translation of Shakespeare, they may be left uncertain as to whether the incorrect meaning is the one supplied by Opus Media or the editor of their book. In addition, how far can we reasonably expect an undergraduate to cross-reference in this manner words they encounter when they read? Students are more given to taking texts on face-value until a word seems somehow inappropriate or out-of-place, at which they will look to other sources for verification. That "the semen" could appear convincingly apt in the place where Opus Media have set it is the very point I hope to make here.

There are three versions of *Hamlet* dating to around Shakespeare's time, all considered authoritative: the First Quarto (1603), the Second Quarto (editions of which are variously dated 1604 and 1605) and the play as it appears in the 1623 First Folio. They are by no means identical – in the centuries since their composition whole generations of scholars have devoted their lives to charting the divergences between them – but they all agree that Hamlet says "these men" not "the semen" at 1:4. In addition, as W. B. Worthen observes:

Shakespeare doesn't use the word *semen* or variants, nor did many writers of his era, who preferred the homely English *seed* (the very few OED citations are to natural philosophy – biology – or animal husbandry texts, or to Latin, whence the word made its way to

English).¹

A good Shakespeare concordance will therefore assure our student that Hamlet makes no mention of semen here or elsewhere, and indeed that they should expect no occurrence of the word at any point in Shakespeare's oeuvre. Outside the concordances, however, are those who think differently. Later in *Hamlet* lies another passage in which the presence or absence of *noctes lachrymose* has been debated, far more widely and for far longer a time than the extract that is our theme. The lines in question once again go to the hero, and they occur in Act 3 Scene 4 when Hamlet confronts his mother over her sexual relations with King Claudius:

Nay, but to live
In the rank sweat of an enseamed bed
Stewed in corruption, honeying and making love
Over the nasty sty –

“Enseamed” is from “seam,” a now-obsolete Elizabethan noun derived from the French and meaning “animal fat or grease.” Shakespeare uses it in that sense in *Troilus and Cressida* as well as here in *Hamlet*. To “enseam” in the verb form is to either remove fat from a surface or, as in this case, apply it – to Hamlet the “incestuous sheets” of his mother and uncle's marital bed are so stained with their “rank sweat” that to him they might as well be smeared with rancid grease, and the word “enseamed,” as Harold Jenkins puts it, “combines with others in the context to suggest the grossness of sexual behaviour through physical metaphors of disgusting exudations.”² However, Worthen goes on to observe:

The only problem is, we know not *seams*. The *greasy* meaning is not terribly audible for us in the *enseamed bed*, however closely the rank sweat and the nasty sty may remind us of it. Except for the people reading along with the play, Hamlet's gross assault on his mother is, well, grosser, because the “disgusting exudations” we *hear* have less to do with *grease* than something else: *enseamed bed* sounds like a bed stained with *semen*.³

Laurence Olivier was clearly mindful of this concern in 1948 while making his own film of *Hamlet* for J. Arthur Rank. His textual editor, Alan Dent, identifies thirty-two instances where he and Olivier replaced an early-modern word from the playtext with an equivalent drawn from everyday Twentieth-Century use,⁴ one of these being the substitution of “lascivious” for “enseamed.” Worthen observes that this particular intervention, through which “the expense of [Claudius and Gertrude's] spirit is abstracted and to some degree etherealized,” was apparently done so as not to lower the tone of Olivier's production with the suggestion of the word “semen” or generate unlooked-for amusement among lowbrow members of the cinema audience.⁵ This episode bears out Worthen's argument that “readers quickly find an annotation, but spectators hear an unfamiliar word they think they understand,”⁶ but the truth is that many readers of and writers on *Hamlet* have also drawn a tangible link between “enseamed” and “semen.” This is despite the large number of writers including Worthen, Harold Jenkins, John Dover Wilson, T. H. Henn and Margreta de Grazia who argue persuasively against it, and the fact that the very spellings of the two

¹ W. B. Worthen, *Drama: Between Poetry and Performance*, Chichester: Wiley Blackwell, 2010, p. 116.

² Worthen, p. 115.

³ Worthen, p. 116.

⁴ Worthen, p. 118.

⁵ Worthen, p. 119.

⁶ Worthen, p. 118.

words should make it clear there's no etymological or morphological relationship. Sometimes the connection is drawn obliquely, as here by Eric S. Mallin:

...the brutality of his [Hamlet's] interview with Ophelia ("Do you think I meant country matters? [...] That's a fair thought to lie between maids' legs") and the putrid invective he afterward hurls at his mother ("Nay, but to live in the rank sweat of an enseamed bed...") underline his sullied descent from matters of the soul to those of the groin.⁷

By singling-out "enseamed bed" for comparison with "country matters," whose famous pun on female genitalia was used by Shakespeare and Ben Jonson, Mallin appears to be arguing in a tacit way that "enseamed" likewise has something to do with "the groin." For others, however, there's not even any need to imply. Ann Thompson and Neil Taylor in their 2007 Arden *Hamlet* gloss the animal-fat meaning of "enseamed" then add "'stained with semen' seems another possibility,"⁸ whilst Claire and John Saunders in *Shakespeare's 100 Greatest Dramatic Images* declare plainly: "'enseamed' would suggest both 'greasy' and 'semen-stained'."⁹ Finally, in Franco Zeffirelli's 1990 film, Mel Gibson in the role of Hamlet delivered the word as "ensemeneed."¹⁰

Where such a diverse body of work exists, variously refuting, speculating on and asserting the presence of semen in 3:4, surely we could forgive a student for being misled by Opus Media into supposing the subject is referenced at 1:4 too? And once our imaginary undergraduate had established the equally imaginary correspondence, what then would stop them embarking on an extended exploration of the imaginary recurrence of the word and theme within *Hamlet*?

By Noting Grammatical Inconsistencies Generated in the Subtitles By The Typo

Opus Media's unintentional substitution of "the semen" for "these men" leads to a disagreement between that noun and "their," which follows in the extract as the subtitles have it (emphases mine):

that the semen

carrying, say, the stamp of one defect

Their virtues else, by they pure as grace

To the student who knows their English grammar, this points to an obvious mistake. However, if that same student has followed our advice in the preceding section of this paper and consulted their printed copy of *Hamlet*, they may find a similar problem. In the text of the three earliest versions "these men" was also at odds with the subsequent pronoun relating to it, which here was the singular "his" not the plural "their" as it should properly be. It was only around 1723 that Alexander Pope, in his six-volume collated *Works of Shakespear* (sic) published between that year and 1725, made the editorial intervention of correcting what may have been Shakespeare's own grammatical inconsistency.¹¹ Earlier in the same speech Pope also changed "their o'ergrowth of some complexion" to "the o'ergrowth,"¹² here resolving what was more a grey area than an outright error, and both his amendments have stood the test of time.

⁷ Eric S. Mallin, *Inscribing the Time: Shakespeare and the End of Elizabethan England*, Berkeley: University of California Press, 1995, p. 120.

⁸ Ann Thompson and Neil Taylor, eds. *The Arden Shakespeare: Hamlet*, Beijing: China Renmin University Press, 2007.

⁹ Claire and John Saunders, *Shakespeare's 100 Greatest Dramatic Images*, Grosseto: Pari Publishing, 2008, p. 83.

¹⁰ Worthen, p. 122.

¹¹ Thompson and Taylor, p. 205.

¹² Thompson and Taylor, p. 204.

They are now the preferred readings for modern print editions and films including Olivier's, Zeffirelli's and Almereyda's. Opus Media's subtitles thereby have "their virtues else," not "his."

As a final point here it's worth noting too that the speech in question ends in an apparently truncated proverbial declaration from Hamlet which Thompson and Taylor call "one of the most notoriously obscure passages in the entire canon."¹³ It is absent from Almereyda's film but of course will be present in any complete print edition, and runs thus:

the dram of eale
Doth all the noble substance of a doubt
To his own scandal –

Thompson and Taylor observe that "the absence of a verb, apart from the unsatisfactory 'doth'" and "the otherwise unknown word *eale*" make the meaning of this passage "very difficult to derive,"¹⁴ whilst Lewis Theobald in 1726 exclaimed over it thus:

In reality, I do not know a Passage, throughout all our Poet's Works, more intricate and Deprav'd in the Text, of less Meaning to outward Appearance, or more likely to baffle the Attempts at Criticism in its Aid. It is certain, there is neither *Sense*, *Grammar*, nor *English*, as it now stands.¹⁵

An undergraduate consulting the footnotes in their copy of *Hamlet* might conceivably imagine such pronouncements are meant to apply to the speech as a whole, which is after all grammatically skewed even outside its controversial closing lines, or at least that accurate verbal construction is not to be found either in Opus Media's captions or Shakespeare's play. If, therefore, our student finds the onscreen grammar confusing at first, and turns to the core text in hopes of clarification, they would do well not to choose a facsimile copy of an early print version, an edition that preserves Shakespeare's original lines and punctuation, or even a well-annotated one. Doing so may result in the student turning back to Opus's mistyped subtitles as the milder alternative in grammatical terms.

By Noting A Loss of Inherent Meaning in the Subtitles Caused by the Typo

The third and final logical means by which our undergraduate could identify Opus Media's typographic blunder would be if, as we might reasonably assume, replacing "these men" with a phrase as unlike it as "the semen" damaged irreparably all sense that the passage contained and rendered its meaning conspicuously incomprehensible.

Here is the full speech as it appears in Opus's subtitles. The errors are theirs, whilst the numbering of "lines" (which I have arranged according to how they appear onscreen) is mine:

so oft chances in particular men	1
that for some vicious mole of nature in them	2
or his father, some habit that too much	3
overleavens the form of plausible manners	4
that the semen	5
carrying, say, the stamp of one defect	6

¹³ Thompson and Taylor, p. 204.

¹⁴ Thompson and Taylor, p. 205.

¹⁵ Lewis Theobald, *Shakespeare Restored*, 1726; rpt. New York: Augustus Kelley, 1971, p. 35.

Their virtues else, by they pure as grace 7
shall in the general censure take corruption – 8

At this point Hamlet, played by Ethan Hawke, is interrupted mid-sentence by the appearance of Bill Murray's Polonius. Between them and Almereyda, who cuts the speech to about a third of its true length, abetted by Opus Media's garbled and unprofessional transcription of the few surviving lines, it's safe to say Shakespeare's original meaning is well and truly lost. However, our imaginary undergraduate would not be aware of this unless they had studied the text of *Hamlet* in advance, and we have been assuming thus far they have not done this. A student in such a position is more likely to search instead for an innate meaning within the speech as Almereyda, or rather Opus, presents it.

And there is one. This is the point that struck me first of all, and most of all, about this Shakespearean atomic typo: that a new and bizarre reading is imposed over the real one by resonances of "the semen" that coincidentally chime with other words in the sequence. A student for whom English is a second language, or possibly even a native speaker, might see these chance correspondences and conclude they work in harmony towards a coherent meaning quite different to the one Shakespeare intended.

This is due in large part to the lines I have designated 5-6: "that the semen, carrying, say, carrying the stamp of some defect." Semen, or rather the sperm within it, does carry "the stamp" of defects just as it also carries our better inherited traits too. (And to return to grammar for a moment, if the meaning is sperm not semen, then "sperm" as a count noun whose plural and singular forms are the same does agree with "their.") These two lines, which looked at in isolation like this are entirely sound both in terms of syntax and sense, effectively shift the focus of Hamlet's speech from, ostensibly, the individual flaws of King Claudius (though many have observed his words can be taken for a general comment on humanity or, as Olivier for example had it in his film, Hamlet lamenting his own shortcomings by transferring them onto his enemy) to the question of genetic and genealogical heredity. The familiar speech seems to transform before our eyes into a discourse on how a "vicious mole of nature" is passed down from father to son.

Such a reading is helped along further by the baffling appearance of "his father" between "or" and "some" in line three, apparently due to another error on Opus Media's part, albeit one far harder to explain than their atomic typo "the semen." I am at an utter loss indeed to comprehend how it came to be there at all, but no matter how it did, it could only work in tandem with lines 5-6 to convince our student that this speech is about hereditary qualities, ancestors and descendants, procreation. Reading the passage in full, such is the nebulous but somehow persuasive impression we are left with. Even if this is going too far, it seems to me at least that the notion is conveyed with enough weight for a student to suppose the slipshod capitalization and scrambled pronouns are deficiencies on the part of the subtitles, but the meaning articulated is in accord with Shakespeare's own.

To conjecture on how our undergraduate might pursue this reading would, I think, be plumbing the depths of speculation too deeply even for the present paper. Certainly though I can picture the first-year undergraduate essay that "compares-and-contrasts," in the classic mode, semen in 3:4 as a "disgusting exudation" with semen in 1:4 as the life-giving conveyance of essential character traits, which may be malevolent but are inseparable from our being. There also needs no atomic typo, come from Opus Media, to tell us heredity and fathers in *Hamlet* is a field of scholarship to which our student could happily devote the remainder of their course. Freudian readings such as Olivier's, homoerotic readings, theories of Hamlet's identification with his two father-figures, and the subtext of Hamlet's right by succession to the

Crown of Denmark...all these areas of interest might feed into our undergraduate's final-year dissertation, which began on the day he or she sat down and watched a certain DVD.

None of the above represents any kind of gesture towards formulating a serious literary interpretation. It is merely my attempt to return to ways of thinking typical among undergraduate students. Nevertheless, it must be of significance that all this was only possible because on a day in 2008, someone at Opus Media clicked on the second choice offered by their spellchecker when they should have clicked on the first.

Conclusion

The atomic typo is relatively new, arising as it does from our ever-growing dependence on Windows and its manifold labour-saving features. However, far-reaching debate over minute issues of typing, spelling and punctuation within the works of William Shakespeare is a long-established pursuit. As I hope to have demonstrated here, the tools and techniques of that endeavour can be deployed just as fruitfully on what we know to be an erroneous misrepresentation of Shakespeare as they can on his works that we call canonical – works whose time-honoured readings have frequently been proved to be informed by comparable mistakes in typesetting and composition. Who is to say what place renderings of Shakespeare such as Guangdong Opus Media Ltd.'s 2008 subtitles to Michael Almereyda's *Hamlet* may occupy in academia of the future? As Stephen Orgel observes, "every generation, and perhaps every reading, produces a different analysis of its Shakespearean texts."¹⁶ He goes on to state that from the very beginning of studies in Shakespeare, all readings of the playwright

have been aware of deep ambiguities and ambivalences in the text. The Eighteenth Century described these as Shakespeare's errors, and generally revised them through plausible emendation and outright rewriting. The argument was that Shakespeare wrote in haste, and would have written more perfect plays had he taken time to revise; the corollary to this was, of course, that we want the perfect plays Shakespeare did not write, rather than the imperfect ones that he did. A little later the errors became not Shakespeare's but those of the printing house, the scribe, the memory of the reporter or the defective hearing of the transcriber. But the assumption has always been that beyond or behind the ambiguous, puzzling, inconsistent text is a clear and consistent one.¹⁷

"This is our myth," Orgel concludes, "the myth of a stable, accurate, authentic, *legitimate* text."¹⁸ If a myth is all it is – if Shakespeare's original meanings are irretrievably beyond our reach, and if jobbing scribes are not as blameworthy as history has judged them to be – then perhaps the lines we have dwelled on in such detail today, and balked at describing as a legitimate text, may go on to take their place as such in years to come.

¹⁶ Stephen Orgel, 'Prospero's Wife', in Stephen Greenblatt, ed. *Representing the English Renaissance*, Berkeley: University of California Press, 1988, p. 219.

¹⁷ Orgel, p. 219.

¹⁸ Orgel, p. 220.

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Biography

Dr. Joseph Pridmore is from Nottingham in England. He is lecturer in English at Heilongjiang International University and completed his PhD in 2005. His work has appeared in *Critical Survey*, *The European English Messenger*, *Key Words*, *The Penniless Press* and *Chi Zi*, and he is co-editor of two books. At HIU he teaches British Literature at the elite level and also runs an advanced course on the works of William Shakespeare.

Keynote Speech II

A Concise Formula for Effective Method of Writing

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[Abstract] Words are not just black dots that appear on a paper or come out as sound. In order to be both effective and meaningful writing should have a systematic arrangement of the words. When the writing is effective, not just beautiful, it makes its point to the reader. One of the most common faults of research papers, essays or any other forms of writing is that they fail to communicate a sense of clear purpose. In other words, with purpose they should extend the boundaries of knowledge. But, do they? Questions before the start of the writing process may help the writer understand his goals and the way to reach them. It all comes down to the ability to manipulate the reader and have him/her join him on his journey and have an impact. The task of writing is not simple because it requires an ability to observe, to think, to ask questions and come up with ideas. Once a writer has a command on these attributes he can organize his writing, leading the words in a direction he wants, making them effective and dressed up with deep colors.

[Keywords] observation; thinking; imagination; ideas; information; education

Introduction

My old professor, a Frenchman with a very heavy accent, once said to me: “Messier Ben-Canaan, remember this, People say about most stories - Oh, what a beautiful story it was... But, there are fewer stories that make people say - Let us go now, act and do...” Napoleon said long time ago: “I do not fear one thousand guns, but I fear one word. Three hostile newspapers are more to be feared of than a thousand guns.” When the writing is effective, not just beautiful, it can be powerful, vicious, focused, present a statement and make its point to the reader. When you are writing an essay or a research paper, the first step is to choose a topic and determine what direction or point of view you will take. Your essay, research paper or story may try to persuade the reader to share your view on a topic; it may try to explain to the reader how to complete a particular task, or it may try to inform or educate the reader on a particular topic. In other words, it should have a clear statement.



Figure 1. The Organization of Writing

You should first ask yourself what is the **purpose** of your writing – be it a book, a research paper, an essay, a letter, a CV, or even a text message on your mobile telephone. One of the most common faults of research papers and essays is that they fail to communicate a sense of purpose, and how they extend the boundaries of knowledge. One should ask then, what is the significance of my writing? Why is it important and original? Who will be interested, who is the intended audience? Am I trying to inform, educate, and make a general statement? And what next: what are the implications for practice, for implementation, and what are the further research questions? What is the thesis statement and purpose? Sometimes, you may wish to write a paper which develops a particular thesis, in which case your statement of purpose will be more a "thesis statement" – one that does not merely state coverage but which also sets out an argument. A good thesis statement will lead to well-organized writing. A thesis statement should be precise, and focused enough for all related points to be considered in the article. As with a purpose statement, it should be kept in mind at all points during the writing of the article, and may well change as the writing progresses.

General Assumptions about Writing

Writing is a communicative form that comes to persuade, to inform and or to entertain. It employs all personal, interpersonal aspects and translates them into an effective practice that calls for action. Writing is a theatre. It is a play within a play, a prose dramatically performed on a stage. Thus, a writer is an actor, a singer and a storyteller. As an actor, a writer is set to present his best performance in telling or singing his words vividly. Writing is made out of words that should influence and not be forgotten. And effective writing should be like a spoken language – informal, vivid and intense. A story maker is a manipulator - He knows that the readers should grasp his word and their meaning. Thus, a good writer is one who knows **how to play with his words**, how to **manage** them, how to **hold** them in mid-air for as long as it is necessary – until he sees that they made their impact. One who wants to write should know how to observe, how to pay attention to all matters because everything he wants to present to his reader is important.

A Writer Should Know the Culture, History and Geography of the Language

He should know how to act and sing in various ways. A writer should know how to think independently, not just copy what others have thought about. He should have a high degree of creativity, and know how to improvise. But, mostly and most importantly, he should know how to move his readers into action. What we should look for is being most effective. Being effective requires a high degree of self discipline, knowledge of one-self, and a powerful observation ability that allows a person to think, create ideas and penetrate others; look into their mind, their soul and their feelings.

To be effective means to have a high level of productivity. To be efficient, impressive, and striking means one who writes effectively is capable of producing a result. He is competent, cogent, compelling, convincing, sound, telling, and valid. He is able, active, dynamic; operative, useful and direct. If he has none of that he is fruitless, futile, empty and hollow. And his words, the language he uses, are pointless; inoperative, useless, and worthless. He is, then, an ineffective writer.

Table 1. Sets of Questions a Writer Should Ask Himself Before, During and After His Writing

Before writing:	During the writing process:	In the revising (after) stage:
What is my topic? What is my purpose? Who is my audience? What should I say? What form should I use? How should I organize my ideas?	How can I introduce my topic? How can I develop each part? How can I conclude my topic?	Have I edited and proofread? Have I practiced a variety of editing and proofreading methods ? Which work best for me?

Several Thoughts on Observation

Many of you met already thousands of people. You work with them, you eat dinners with them, you live with some of them, you travel with them, you go to meetings and conferences with them, you study with them... Did you really observe all the people you have met? Did you look at them, scrutinized them, paid attention to their body and its language? Do you know what they like or dislike? Did you ever ask them what they think... of themselves or of you? Do you really know all these people? I hope you get the sense of my words and questions, because the next question should be: do you know what observation is all about? Observation is one of the most important elements that allow people to develop their intellectual and thinking abilities. It leads to thinking and formulation of ideas. Thinking leads to the development of ideas. And ideas are being expressed with words. Words, can see, smell, touch, talk, cry, smile and sing. With words you can climb the highest mountain or fall down from the Chinese Great Wall. Words have the power to make you a winner or a loser, a lover or a lonely person. Words can make your dreams transform into reality, and come true. Words can create for you a world full of vivid colors or just paint it black and white.

Most people, however, pass their life with their eyes shut. They talk with family, friends, colleagues or classmates – but do not see them, do not hear or know them. They walk the streets but see nothing. For them there is only one thing – their own little box of which they cannot even describe in a mature and intelligent way. That's it... That's all. There are many worlds that should be observed. These can make a person grow and have a wider horizon. But without the ability and habit to observe one (a writer for example) would not be able to effectively produce scenes, sceneries, characters and personalities, nor would he be able to with a message – the statement of the century.

The Outline Plan

There are general rules that every writer – student or a teacher – should follow. Among them, and of critical importance, are the OUTLINE PLAN and the ROAD MAP. Every good writing needs organization. It will start with and use a detailed and comprehensive outline plan as a framework and guide – it will be the writer's road map. You start with a SUBJECT. It is a very broad field of study. It should be narrowed down into a TOPIC in order to be effectively dealt with. You think of the subject and ask yourself:

- Where am I going?
- Why I am going there?
- How I am going?
- What I am going to do there?
- Who I will meet there?
- And, when I am going there?

These are not very simple questions. They require logical and intelligent answers that once you have them they will lead you to a better understanding of the subject and to a well-organized outline plan and a meaningful journey with a road-map as a guide.

An Outline Plan Formula

The General Structure of an Essay

Subject (a general and broad theme or field of study)

1. **The Three-fold Process**¹⁹ (a device that helps the writer narrow down the subject into a topic)
 - a. Observation (collecting ideas - creating a long list of ideas-facts)
 - b. Cleaning – Putting all the ideas into categories
 - c. Brainstorming – Choosing the one category of ideas to be developed in the essay
 - d. Thesis questions (hypothesis, proposition to be proven)

Topic: A narrower field that was drawn from the larger and wider subject

Title (and sub-title)

2. **Introduction** (stating what the essay is about, how you will develop it and what is your purpose and message)

- The person(s) reading your work wants to know what you will be discussing, how you will approach the topic, and in what order your paper will be written
- The introductory paragraph can give some guidance to anyone who may struggle with the text. It provides a starting point to the essay and summarizes the point of the entire text. The introductory paragraph provides also something to draw from when writing the conclusion.
- The person(s) reading your work wants to know what you will be discussing, how you will approach the topic, and in what order your paper will be written
- The introductory paragraph can give some guidance to anyone who may struggle with the text. It provides a starting point to the composition and summarizes the point of the entire text. The introductory paragraph provides also something to draw from when writing the conclusion.
- The writer should consider the use of an "attention grabber" as an opening sentence. He should have a presentation or description of the "what" and "how" you are going to discuss, as well as the thesis (the question to be proved) and several words describing the "main ideas" you are going to present in the "body".
- The Introduction should conclude with a sentence that will act as a transition to the "body" of the essay.

3. **Body** (the part of the essay in which you develop the ideas you have chosen, i.e., Idea 3.1; Idea 3.2; Idea 3.3; and so on.

The body paragraphs describe and explain the essay's topic and ideas. Each of the main ideas listed in the outline will become a paragraph (one or several, depending on the length of the essay) in the essay. Writing down the main ideas in sentence form. Making a statement about its nature and purpose, explaining its meaning and relevancy, bringing supporting materials such as quotes from others, and arguing (discussing) the views or the facts surrounding each of the main ideas. Going on to the next main idea, and following the same steps until each main idea has been turned into a paragraph or a set of paragraphs.

¹⁹ A device or formula I have introduced several years ago that allows a writer to narrow down a subject to a topic very effectively.

Table 2. Structure of the ‘Body’s’ Main Ideas

Idea 1	Idea 2	Idea 3
Statement	Statement	Statement
Description - Explanation	Description - Explanation	Description - Explanation
Arguments (discussions)	Arguments (discussions)	Arguments (discussions)
Supporting materials	Supporting materials	Supporting materials
Conclusion (to the idea)	Conclusion (to the idea)	Conclusion (to the idea)

The Concluding Paragraph

The conclusion (closing paragraph) brings an end to the essay. The conclusion may sum up the points of the essay-composition. It may provide a final perspective on the topic, or, simply review the main points. It makes a definite statement about the whole essay, its purpose and aims.

Notes (if you have any)

We are not cows.

We, as human beings, were given an opportunity to be able to think, observe and make tangible statements. We all were provided with an organ called brain that allows us to produce independent, original, and intelligent thoughts. Furthermore, it allows us to imagine, create, innovate and make applications, putting to use all that we observed and learned. Yet, although these are the foundation to progress and growth, they are not enough.

When this extraordinary mechanism is being put into words (in a text form or as verbal message) these should be effective, and capable of producing a result. It is so because a word can become a world if treated effectively and with colors. This is the job of a writer, a task for an orator who is distinguished for skill and power as a public speaker. You can march a large body of armor and courageous warriors toward an enemy line, but if you do not provide a strong and stable bridge by which they can cross a stormy water, there would be no victory.

Writing is a battle. It is a difficult and sometimes lonely journey. It demands careful considerations and detailed planning. Only when a comprehensive outline plan has been drawn is the writer can bring an effective result.

Shakespeare is being read because teachers demand their students to go through the agony of understanding his words and their meanings.

Harry Potter is read because young people (also old people, maybe) want to read it. It speaks effectively to them.

Biography

Dr. Dan Ben-Canaan is a Professor of Research and Writing Methodology at Heilongjiang University, School of Western Studies in Harbin, China since 2002. He is the founder and Executive Director of Heilongjiang University’s Sino-Israel Research and Study Center, a Visiting Professor for Postgraduate studies at Northeast Agricultural University in Harbin, and a Visiting Professor for Postgraduate and Doctorate studies at Heilongjiang Sheng Wei Dang Xiao. He is a Honor Research Fellow at the Heilongjiang Academy of Social Sciences, and the Editor-in-Chief of the Heilongjiang Television China English News since 2003. Prof. Dan Ben-Canaan is the coordinator of the joint project School of Western Studies and Heidelberg University’s Cluster of Excellence research program “Transcultural Processes in a

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Part I:

**Teaching, Learning
and Educational Studies**

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Research on the English Teaching Model under the Network Environment

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***[Abstract]** It is argued that advanced technology brings opportunities and significant changes to English teaching. Educational technology has exerted a significant influence on educational development and given a very important impetus to educational innovation. Seeking a coherent model for English education in a technological age is necessary. Therefore, the purpose of this article is to explore an online English teaching model that supports learning in more student-centered way toward using educational technology under the direction of constructivism learning theory.*

***[Keywords]** English teaching model; educational technology; student-centered way*

Introduction

As early as 1986, the State Education Commission of China along with other related institutions began to realize that integrating computers into the curricula should be the trend of educational computing. During the 1990s, profound modifications occurred in educational settings through the use of educational technology. Nowadays, with the development of technology, the accessibility to computers in schools is steadily increasing. The call for schools to move to a more technologically integrated approach is steadily increasing as well. Modern educational technology has always been a break-through point in the reform and development of education in China. Educational technology may enhance educational thought, educational concept, educational system, educational content, educational model, teaching method and so on. Teaching models under the network environment is a new trend in modern English teaching, which is the product combining a student-centered concept and computer network technology. Improving the innovation capability of graduates has been one of the important issues in the reform and development of education in China.

According to previous research, the online teaching model in some colleges and universities in China is still teacher-centered and has not received the anticipated effect because of the influence of traditional teaching concept. Using educational technology, in most cases, turns out to be a mere formality. The teacher monitors the entire learning process and students are the passive information recipients. Teaching media are only used as aids to assist the teacher's teaching and their utmost effects have not been exerted. In addition, teachers may lack the knowledge needed to do so and they face a number of professional barriers that prevent them from doing so: individual beliefs, technological skills, peer collaboration, lesson design and so on. Some resources online such as CAL courseware lack informative knowledge and some of its contents are just copies of the textbook. The essence of teaching remains the same as the traditional teaching method and the structure of teaching does not have a foundational change. Autonomous learning and individualized instruction are not realized under such situation.

So, in response to recent technological advances and the trend toward autonomous and flexible learning in education, the shift in online language learning from a teacher-led to a student-centered approach is highly required and can foster autonomy with significant implications for educational practice. This approach will lead to higher levels of motivation, deeper levels of learning, and cultivate skills transferable to new and unknown situations. It is well known that English language learning is greatly affected by environment. The network can create a kind of virtual authentic situation providing the learners more chances for exposure to a lot of language and then, language acquisition growth occurs. That's why the purpose of this article is to discuss and explore an efficient English teaching model that supports learning in a more student-centered way toward through the use of educational technology. This purpose should have research value theoretically and practically.

Theoretical Support

By comparison and analysis of the different versions of definitions of Educational Technology in AECT '94 and AECT '95 (Association for Educational Communication and Technology), He Kekang and Li Wenguang argued: "Educational Technology in China refers to the theory and practice of facilitating learning and improving performance by designing, developing, utilizing, managing and evaluating the educational processes and resources supported by appropriate technology" (He & Li, 2009). The development of educational technology in China can be divided into three stages: traditional educational technology, audio-visual media technology and information-based educational technology (such as ICT, networking, and Intelligent Agent) (He & Li, 2009). The use of language labs, tape recorders, overhead projectors, and slide/filmstrip projectors should stay in the second stage of audio-visual media technology, which is still the mainstream type in most colleges and universities in China. In the third stage, students will learn autonomously anytime, anywhere and future school just functions as the information supplier and manipulator. Intelligentization, digitalization and networking make the third stage possible (Chen, 2006).

The constructivism learning theory initiated by Piaget, Bruner and Vygotsky lays the solid foundation for Educational Technology. The conceptual definition of constructivism is that human learning is constructed and built upon previous knowledge (Hoover, 1996). Its major theme is that learning should proceed in an active way in which learners construct new ideas or concepts based on their needs, beliefs, prior knowledge and their interactions with the world. The role of the learner is to select and transform information, construct ideas, and make decisions. The teacher becomes a facilitator and coach (Hoover, 1996). According to He Kekang and Li Wenguang (2009), constructivism consists of four elements: meaningful construction, context, collaboration and conversation. Meaningful construction is based on two key concepts: assimilation and accommodation. Piaget suggested that assimilating causes an individual to incorporate new experiences into old ones. This causes the individual to develop new outlooks, rethink what was once misunderstood, and evaluate what is important, ultimately altering their perceptions. Accommodation, on the other hand, is reframing the world and new experiences into mental capacity already present. The social constructivist views the context in which the learning occurs as central to the learning itself. It implies that authentic or situated learning is quite essential where students take part in activities directly related to the application of learning. Constructivists think that learners with different backgrounds should cooperate together in the process of finishing tasks so that they can learn or support or criticize each other to reach a shared understanding in a specific field. Conversation is the indispensable part among learners while collaboration can prompt communication and understanding. To

conclude, these four elements work together to tell the truth that individual constructs meaningful knowledge through the interaction with each other or with environment they live in.

Constructivism learning theory has been regarded as the sound theoretical basis for educational technology. Constructivism learning theory is especially suitable for directing teaching based on network environment (He & Li, 2009). It can support new ideas and new channels for the traditional teaching model, which is one-way, passive and closed.

Practical Operation

A teaching model is the alternative name of a teaching activity or teaching method under the construction of certain related theories in order to realize the teaching goals. In another words, a teaching model is to show the stable relation between teaching and learning, to show the strategies, methods and process used by teachers under specific teaching environment. Based on the theories of constructivism, the English teaching model in the network environment in colleges and universities in China has been advocated and studied by many researchers, such as the use of Computer Assisted Instruction, Interactive Whiteboard, Blackboard-based Network Platform, V-class System and so on. Based on the previous research, this paper tries to discuss and explore an efficient online English teaching model to enhance English teaching innovation. Under this model, the traditional class can be treated as the online learning community in which all members have the similar interests and similar value orientation in the certain subject. They have their own identities and can earn respect and trust from others by communication. They feel relaxed and have the sense of belonging in the community (Xu & Jiao, 2012). This model is set in a networking environment with the teacher as a guide. Both teacher and students can join in the teaching or learning activities designed by the system, which is shown in Figure 1.

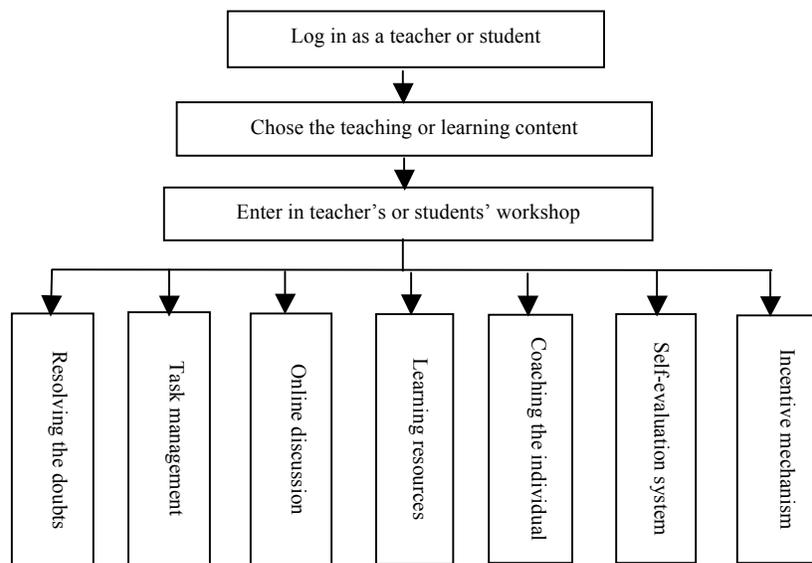


Figure 1. Teaching Model Online

Resolving the Doubts

Teaching online emphasizes the autonomous learning without the teacher's face-to-face excessive constructing. Students, therefore, will meet various doubts they could not solve by themselves while learning. The teacher's role under such situation is to be an explainer. The teacher can log in the newly-answering pages in the answering system to solve the students' doubts. This can also be done among students to enhance peer study or peer discussion with teacher's final confirmation. Some universal questions can be filed into resource center by teacher to generalize its effect. The teacher can offer some extra thought-provoking questions to prompt students' ability of reflection and to facilitate their problem solving, and hence contribute to the construction of knowledge of students.

Task Management

Just like traditional teaching, an assignment for students is also an important component in teaching online. The teacher can select some suitable test questions from the test bank or they can upload some other tasks for students to finish, according to the teaching objective. In order to finish the assignment, students can search for related learning resources individually or in a group for quality assurance. In addition to this, the teacher can monitor the time students should spend on the task, learn the scores they gained and the errors they made. The teacher's role here is to be a scaffolder or a mentor to help students develop in the Zone of Proximal Development. This kind of model is especially suitable for English writing and translation. Students can get immediate and specific feedback from the teacher or from other members in the same community. The teacher may have a thorough understanding of individual difference to prompt students' effective knowledge construction.

Online Discussion

The teacher can chair asynchronous and synchronous online discussion depending on different situations. Asynchronous discussion is free from time limit, leaving enough space for students to consider. Synchronous discussion engages learners in real-time conversation in the chatroom, which is helpful to affective interaction between learners and to stimulate critical thinking. Learners can have a discussion online to exchange opinions about literature they are reading and about the heated topic they are meeting, to share or challenge reading in a way not possible in traditional contexts, or evaluate different thoughts or ideas critically. In their discussions, students need to demonstrate their own ideas to persuade others by using language. This process will enhance learners to work on their internalized information and construct meaningful knowledge. In this way, students can grasp several different ways for analyzing and solving a problem so as to cultivate higher-order thoughts. While chairing a discussion, the teacher should declare his or her own ideas at the proper time to develop students' arguments, to encourage students' creation, to give immediate support and to supply a wider range of language resources on the internet. Out of the four language skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing, speaking and reading are easily managed comparatively under such a model. Oral language competence can be improved by treating it as a free talking forum which can supply authentic language learning situations, encouraging students, especially some shy, slow and reluctant students.

Learning Resources

Network resources have been characterized as diversity, accessibility, sharability, timeliness, interactivity and richness in context. Network resources present themselves in various fields including sound, image, text, animation, video and audio resources. Learners can obtain information anytime and anywhere. In

most cases, resources online are open to anyone and the latest information will be distributed immediately. The internet can also provide learners rich resources from different channels such as a data bank, audio-visual product, e-book, e-journal, educational website, CAL courseware, television broadcast, virtual library and so on. These channels are demonstrated in Figure 2.

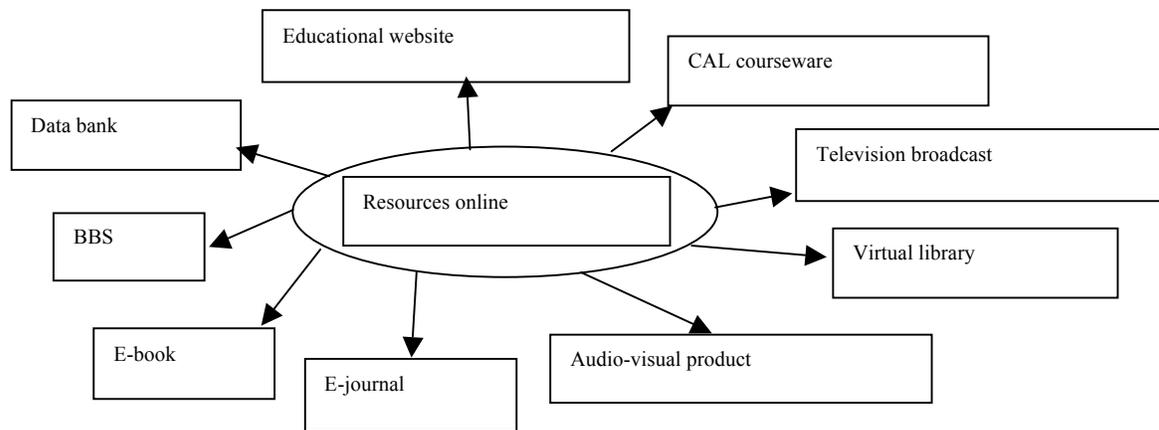


Figure 2. Learning Resources Online

Take listening resources for example, students can choose their favorite or suitable material to practice their English listening. They can listen to idiomatic English from *VOA Special English News*, *VOA Standard English News* or *BBC English*. They can see an American movie or log into an English channel of a television broadcast to immerse themselves in an English language situation. They can also join in English listening examination and take a test by entering into an educational website. Both teacher and students can also upload rich learning resources in BBS to share among the community. The teacher, as the network system manager, can search, browse, store and classify some helpful resources, as well as cancel some useless resources. In this way, an important means of providing students with access to rich learning resources can be realized and a convenient platform of resource sharing will become true.

Coaching the Individual

The teaching system online supplies some basic information of the students: their history file including their log-on message, log-on times, their favorite aspect in English learning, their autonomous study condition, and their academic records. The system will conduct statistical and analyzing functions autonomously, producing data to have a formative and summative assessment for each student. The teacher, therefore, can diagnose and understand study conditions of different individuals by reading their information. Teachers can put forward some instructive suggestions and assign different tasks to different students. Students will consult the suggestions from teachers at any time to adjust their own leaning methods and learning plans. In this way, learners know why they did or didn't do well, and what they can do to improve themselves.

Self-Evaluation System

Self-evaluation in learner-centered teaching online models concern both learners and teachers. A self-evaluation system can be helpful to students to identify their preferred materials and ways of learning. This system designs some systematic and professional activities for students to undertake to develop their self-awareness or self-diagnosis. In this way, students will become sensitized to their own

preferences, strengths and weakness and they can regulate their own learning process and learning plan, which is the foundation of autonomous and independent language learning. The psychological argument is that we learn better when we are in charge of our own learning because of cognitive, social and affective aspects involved in the learning process (Cotterall, 1995). The teacher is also encouraged to use this system for his or her own professional development. It can be helpful for the teacher to consider such kind of questions: how to improve technical skills to run teaching online, how to improve teacher-student interaction and student-student interaction, how to assess student's language competence, how to involve affective factor in online teaching and so on.

Incentive Mechanism

There are a multitude of reasons why learners may be in high spirits to begin learning a foreign language online, but it is quite another matter to sustain that kind of enthusiasm. One of the most important reasons is that some teaching models online lack an incentive mechanism and students will easily feel bored. Task-oriented assignments and positive feedback from the teacher or peers can motivate students' inner drive, giving them a sense of fulfillment. The intelligent word and phrase library for encouragement can also be realized by communication between learners and computer under such mechanism. Students will promptly receive the commendation such as "Congratulations, welcome to the next step" or "Congratulations, you are near to the success" and so on, when they do well. They can see value and interest in carrying out tasks with emotions involved. In this way, extrinsic and intrinsic motivation of students can be developed to move towards autonomy.

Conclusion

English teaching under the network environment is based on sound theory and practice. This model focuses on developing students' autonomy learning by offering new opportunities for knowledge gathering, language practice and meaningful learning process. It can enhance learners' cognitive skills such as reasoning, problem solving and logic thinking and prompt the interactions in a micro-community to achieve the learning objectives of language acquisition. Students under such education finally can solve realistic problems in a new and creative way. The teacher's role has a significant change under such model as a facilitator, mentor, counselor, organizer or participant rather than knowledge deliverer or planter. Students play the center role as the active constructor of knowledge rather than the passive recipient.

But the uses of educational technology undoubtedly improve the workload of teachers. Therefore, changing teachers' traditional concepts and building their enthusiasm for a technology initiative are crucial. School policy and upgrading the skills of existing teachers are also critical to implementing new technology initiatives or educational innovation. In addition, the negative effects of teaching online should be taken into consideration such as lacking affective elements, good and bad resources online being intermingled, the deficient interaction between learners and the computer, and so on. Some researchers argue that teaching online can never replace traditional face-to-face teaching; these two models should be integrated together. These kinds of barriers will be solved one day with more and more researchers concerned with the improvement of technology, and with its spreading introduced in colleges and universities in China.

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Supporting Student-Teachers' Transformation from Students' Stance to Teachers in Third Spaces: A Report of the Educational Practice Mode of the Student-teachers in NENU

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[Abstract] *To set up third spaces during the student-teachers' educational teaching practicum provides good contexts for their transformation from students' stance to teachers'. This paper takes the educational practice mode of the student-teachers of NENU as an example to interpret the educational practice mode under the vision of Third Space Theory. In this mode, three third spaces are set up, which include the third space between the university-based supervisors and the school-based mentors, the third space between the university-based supervisors and the university-based subject teacher educators, and the third space among the student-teachers across different disciplines. These three third spaces give support to the students-teachers together, and provide them with good practice environments, better teaching guidance, and rapid development contexts, which guarantee the success of the student-teachers' practicum.*

[Keywords] *third space theory; educational practice mode; university-based supervisor; school-based mentor; student-teacher*

Introduction

How to make educational practice really play its role to promote the transformation of student-teachers from their stance of students to teachers is a hot research topic. What kind of educational mode is more appropriate for student-teachers is also a controversial topic. The educational practice mode for the student-teachers in NENU (Northeast Normal University), which adequately illustrates the role of third spaces in educational practice among university-based supervisors and subject teacher educators, school-based mentors, and student-teachers from different disciplines, offers a reference for the other normal universities.

Third Space Theory in Teacher Education

Third space refers to the space formed by the hybrid of two spaces, but not of either of the two original spaces (Li, 2007). Third space theory was put forward by Bhabha in 1994. She described the mixture of cultures as the hybrid of cultures and she pointed out that the hybrid of two cultures forms a third space. The third space is an imagined one, in between the first and second spaces. It has the features of both of the first and second spaces, but not the same as either of them. In the openness of the third space, both joint and individual sense making occurs, and the creative combinations and restructuring of ideas can provide new alternatives to oppositional thinking (Martin, Snow, & Torrez, 2011). The development of the people's thinking and perspective in the third space is a process of gradually getting out of the limit of the first space, overcoming the prejudice of the second space, revising his/her inherent thinking mode and perspective, and finally, forming the third space thinking and perspective by understanding and mastering

the second space (Wang, 2013). The transformation process is realized via the constant communication and negotiation between the two sides from the two different spaces. Good collaboration is a benefit for the normal running and continuity of the third space.

In teacher education, third space theory has been used to find new ways to create opportunities to bring together practitioner and academic knowledge (Cuenca, Schmeichel, Butler, Dinkelman & Nichols, 2011). Kirkland (2008, 2010) calls for a *pedagogical third space* in order to make the third space theory operational (cited in Hallman, 2012). Using the theoretical construct of third space, Zeichner (2010) renews focus on the third space in teacher education. He argues that in the hybrid/third space, the practitioners' academic knowledge and knowledge that exists in the communities come together in new ways to give service to teacher learning, and the hybrid teacher educators, university-based supervisors and school-based mentors work together to establish partnerships to support student-teachers' development (Martin, Snow, & Torrez, 2011).

Third Spaces in the Educational Practice Mode in NENU

The educational practice mode in NENU was that the student-teachers were organized from different disciplines to do educational practice in each practice-based schools; the university-based supervisors were responsible for the coordination between the university and the practice-based schools and the university-based subject teacher educators were responsible for the mentoring of teaching practice by patrolling among the schools in the same area. This mode provided a good context for the creation of third spaces. In this mode, three third spaces were set up, which included the third space between the university-based supervisors and the school-based mentors; the third space between the university-based supervisors and the university-based subject teacher educators and the third space among the student-teachers from different disciplines. The three third spaces existed simultaneously and acted together to support the student-teachers' educational practice.

Third Space Between the University-Based Supervisors and the School-Based Mentors

This third space was formed between the university-based supervisors and the school-based mentors (see Figure 1). The university-based supervisors provided the link between teacher education programs in the university and the classrooms where student teachers did their practice teaching (Martin, Snow, & Torrez, 2011). The supervisors from NENU accompanied the student-teachers during the whole two-month-practicum, serving as representatives for the university. In the two months, the supervisors were responsible for the coordination with the school leaders and mentors so as to make the arrangement of the student-teachers' life and teaching at the practice based schools, and to handle the different situations and solve the problems emerging during the practicum. The school-based mentors were responsible for the guidance of the student-teachers' lesson preparation, classroom observation, teaching practice and classroom management.

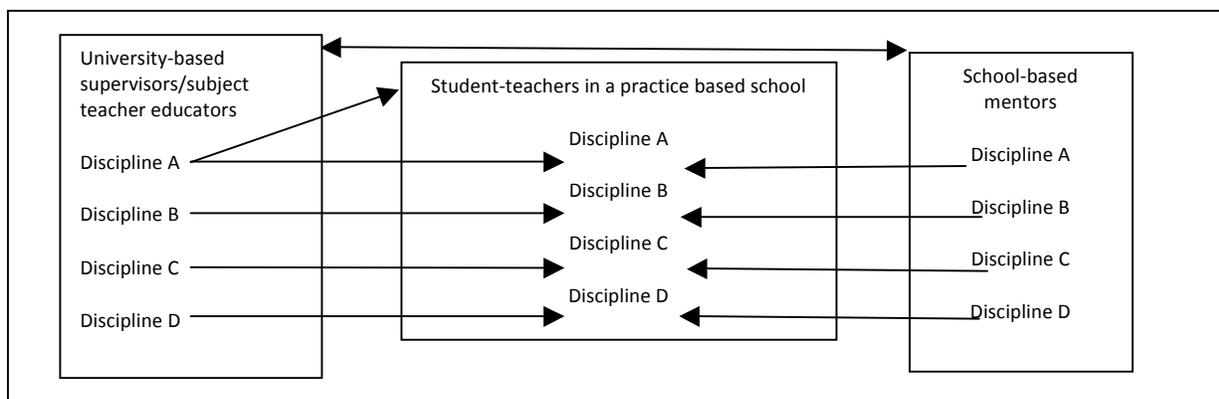


Figure 1. Third Space between the University-Based Supervisors and the School-Based Mentors in a Practice Based School.

The student-teachers from NENU had learned the courses, such as *Curriculum and Pedagogy*, *Curriculum Standards*, and *Textbook Analysis*, etc., and had done micro-teaching for at least three times before their practicum. However, these were just the teaching practice in simulated and ideal contexts. When the student-teachers faced the actual teaching context, secondary school students, teaching aims and teaching methods, gaps and disconnects occurred between what they had learned from the courses in the university and the actual teaching situation in practice based schools. How to help the student-teachers bridge the gaps and disconnects so as to adjust their beliefs, find their new stance, and establish their confidence to teach in real classrooms needed the collaborated support from both the university-based supervisors and the school-based mentors. During the process, the supervisors and the mentors needed to negotiate, to discuss, and to reach a consensus before giving supports to the student-teachers.

In order to make good negotiation in this third space, the university-based supervisors introduced the newly established educational concepts and teaching methods to the school-based mentors by organizing academic seminars. Meanwhile, they also collected data about the teaching status of the practice based schools by participating in the schools' teaching and researching activities, observing the teachers' collective preparation for instruction, doing classroom observations, and making interviews. The school-based mentors shared their teaching experience, and introduced their efficient teaching techniques and strategies to the student-teachers and the university-based supervisors. Then, the university-based supervisors, the school-based mentors and the student-teachers discussed together so as to find out the most suitable teaching strategies for the student-teachers to use at the school where they were doing educational practice. During this process, the university teachers collected fruitful data about the school teachers' teaching experiences, teaching methods and teaching strategies that might be used as evidence and resources for their future research and teacher training. The school teachers acquired new teaching beliefs and teaching methods, and learned to use them in their teaching practice, which improved their competence both in theory and in practice. The student-teachers received guidance from both the university-based supervisors and the school-based mentors that was helpful to support them in completing their educational practice successfully.

Third Space Between the University-Based Supervisors and the Subject Teacher Educators

This third space was formed between the university-based supervisors and the university-based subject teacher educators (see Figure 2). The practice-based schools of NENU were organized according to the areas they located. In each area, there were 4 practice-based schools. In each school, there were 20 students from 4 disciplines, and a teacher from one of the four disciplines of NENU. In each area, there were four teachers from each of the four disciplines, that were the supervisors for the student-teachers in each of the four practice based schools. The 4 university teachers were also the subject teacher-educators for all the student-teachers in their discipline in the same area. So each of the 4 university teachers had two roles during the student-teachers' practicum. One was the supervisor of the student-teachers of one of the practice based schools and the other was the subject teacher educator for the student-teachers in the same area. As a supervisor, he/she should be responsible for the management of the student-teachers' life and teaching in the school he/she is responsible for. As a subject teacher-educator, he/she should not only guide the student-teachers' teaching practice in the school that he/she is in charge of, but also guide the student-teachers in his/her discipline in the other three schools in the same area.

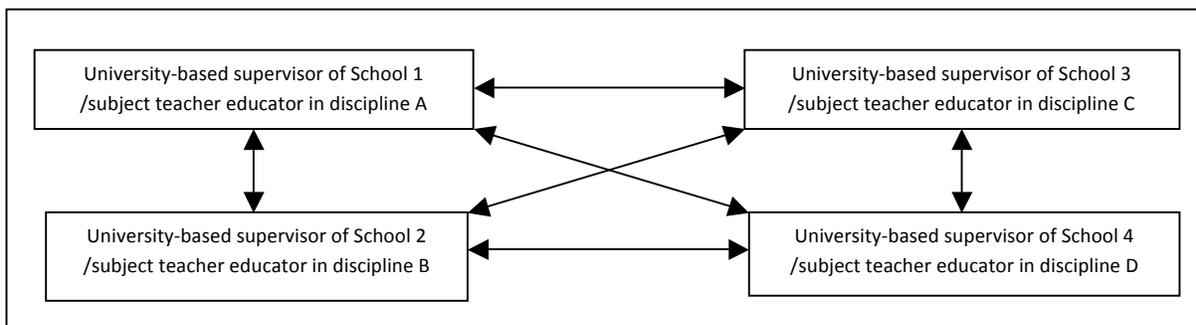


Figure 2. Third Space Between the University-Based Supervisors and the Subject Teacher Educators

In this third space, there was a leader who was in charge of the overall internship management of the area. The four teachers met regularly to discuss the solutions to the problems they met in order to guarantee the success of the educational practice. Each of the 4 subject teacher educators often went to the other three schools to negotiate with the supervisors on the behaviors of the student-teachers in their disciplines and gave guidance for the student-teachers' teaching practice. The negotiation between the supervisors and the subject teacher educators let them get overall information about the student-teachers' status of their teaching practice, which was helpful for them to know how to give specific supports to the student-teachers in their disciplines. With their support, the student-teachers' teaching abilities were rapidly increased. The negotiation among the supervisors on the strategies and experience improved their competences of being supervisors, which lead to a better bridging between the university and the practice based schools.

Third Space Among the Student-Teachers Across Different Disciplines

This third space was formed by the student-teachers from the 4 different disciplines. There were 20 student-teachers from NENU doing educational practice in each of the practice based schools. The 20 student-teachers were from 4 disciplines, and 5 student-teachers from each of the 4 disciplines. The mixture of the student-teachers from different disciplines provided a favorable condition to form a third

space across disciplines among them. Although the student-teachers were from different disciplines and taught different subjects, their teaching beliefs and principles were similar. During the practicum, the university-based supervisors created 2 third spaces for them that w the third space within each discipline and the third space across the 4 disciplines.

Third space within the same discipline.

During the student-teachers’ preparation for the teaching practice, the university-based supervisors asked the student-teachers from the same discipline to form a group to prepare for the lessons they were going to teach together, which created the third space within their discipline. In this third space, the student-teachers from the same discipline made lesson preparation collectively. They brainstormed creative ideas, drew on the strength of the ideas, and finally used their collective wisdom to design the best teaching plans. Before the trial teaching in front of all the student-teachers, the supervisors, subject teacher educators, and mentors in the same practice based school, the student-teachers were asked to have a trial teaching in front of their own discipline group. The group members provided both warm and cold comments on their teaching, helping them make a better preparation. During the whole practicum, each group would meet regularly to discuss the problems they met at different teaching links, and find out the solutions to the problems as well.

Third space across different disciplines.

During the trial teaching period, besides the student-teacher who made the trial teaching, the university-based supervisor asked all the other 19 student-teachers to participate as the simulated students during the teaching and the commentators on the teaching afterwards. This process formed the third space of the student-teachers across the different disciplines (see Figure 3). Since they taught high school subjects, the student-teachers could understand the teaching contents although they were from different disciplines. In addition, not being from the same discipline as the student-teacher who was teaching made it possible for them to participate in the teaching with a real secondary school students’ stance. If they could not understand the teaching content, it indicated that the student-teacher’s teaching was not clear enough. So the suggestions given by the student-teachers of different disciplines were more beneficial to the student-teacher’s improvement in their teaching preparation.

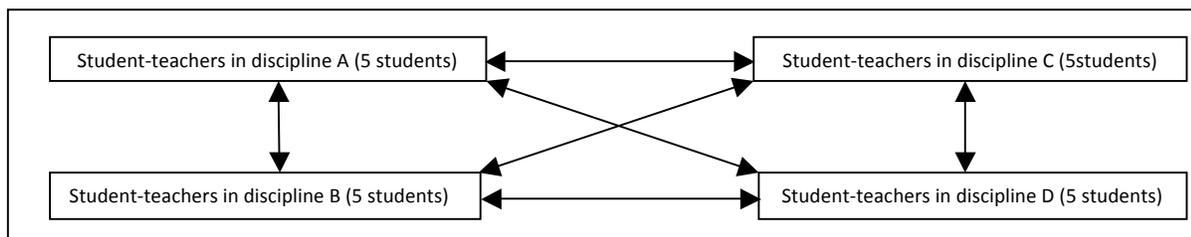


Figure 3. Third Space across Different Disciplines in a Practice-based School

During the teaching practice period, the university-based supervisor asked each of the student-teachers to observe not only the student-teachers’ teaching of their only discipline, but also the student-teachers’ teaching of the other 3 disciplines. The student-teachers were asked to do collective teaching reflection after class every day. The student-teachers who had taught that day made reflections on highlights and faults of their own teaching first, and then the student-teachers who had observed the class gave both cold and warm comments on their teaching. In addition, the student-teachers were also asked to

make reflections on their work of being in charge of a class. Some of them posed problems they met in the work, and then all of the student-teachers involved in the discussion on the solutions to the problems. During the entire process of reflection, all of the 20 student-teachers could teach and learn from each other, taking lessons from the others' faults and getting benefits from the others' success.

Conclusion

The educational practice mode of NENU provides favorable conditions for the creation of the third spaces of university-based supervisors and school-based mentors, university-based supervisors and subject teacher educators, and student-teachers across different disciplines. The establishment of the three third spaces provides a full range of guarantees for the success of the student-teachers' educational practice. In the three third spaces, the student-teachers can get support from university teachers, school teachers and peers together, which help them get the most benefit from every specific teaching practice link. Since the mode was implemented in 2009, a good long-term cooperation has been established between NENU and the practice based schools in the northeast part of China. University teachers and school teachers have become good teaching and researching partners. With their joint efforts, they have accomplished various projects on education collectively. Five grades of student-teachers have finished their practicums successfully and accomplished their transformations from the role of students to teachers within the two months practicum, which lays a good foundation for them to become excellent secondary school teachers in the future.

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A Comparative Study of Endangered Language Planning between China and Australia

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[Abstract] China and Australia are both multilingual states characterized by a tension between their plurilingual populations and their monolingual mindsets. In both countries, a number of languages have formal and legitimate status as 'minority languages' or 'indigenous languages', but these languages are going to become extinct because of globalization and internationalization, which result in more ethnic contradictions and human rights arguments. This paper sets out to make a comparison of endangered minority language planning policies and practices between China and Australia, so as to explore the effective ways to maintain and transmit human language heritages.

[Keywords] endangered language; language planning

Introduction

The issue of endangered languages was highlighted globally in the 1980s. After UNESCO decided 1993 as the year to save endangered languages, *The International Symposium on Endangered Languages* was held in November 1995 in Tokyo, Japan (Wang, 2009, p. 2). The International Clearing House for Endangered Languages (ICHEL) was officially inaugurated as a function of a research institute to coordinate the endangered languages maintenance around the world. At the UNESCO 31st General Conference in Oct. 2001 (Wang, 2009, p. 2), *Universal Declaration on Cultural Diversity* recognized a relationship between biodiversity and language diversity, which for the first time provided international communities with an intensive standard of respecting culture diversities and encouraging intercultural exchanges. UNESCO's 32nd General Conference in Oct. 2003 (Wang, 2009, p. 3) decided that the protection of language diversity should become a conventional topic and the recommendation of multilingualism should be promoted. It recognized language's function of communication and role of human cultural and civilizational heritage and its typical values rooted in literacy, history, philosophy and education. For many, language has far-reaching emotive and cultural associations and values rooted in their literacy, historical, philosophical, and educational heritages. The harmonious development of the information society is, therefore, only possible if the availability of multilingual and multicultural information is encouraged (UNESCO, 2003). According to UNESCO, it's estimated 5,000 to 7,000 languages spoken today, 2500 of which are endangered. Of these endangered languages, 538 are critically endangered; 502 are severely endangered; 632 are definitely endangered and 607 are vulnerable. It is most pessimistically predicted that 50% of languages in this world may become moribund or extinct, and 90% may be replaced by large and strong languages during 21st century (Wang, 2009, p. 10).

Landscape of Chinese Ethnic Minority Languages

The People's Republic of China is a united multi-ethnic and multi-language country. Fifty-six ethnic groups have been identified and recognized by the central government, of which the Han ethnic group has the largest population, and the other 55 ethnic groups with relatively small population are customarily referred to as 'ethnic minorities'. So far, there are over 120 minority languages currently spoken in China, but only 30 languages have written scripts, and 20 languages have less than 1,000 speakers only retained in oral expression, such as folk songs and legend stories (Bruhn, 2008, p. 1). Most of these endangered minority languages have lost their function as social communication and only been used among older generations.

Landscape of Australian Indigenous Languages

Australia is a multilingual, as well as immigrant country, with English exercising some functions of an official language. With English in the dominant language position, the Aboriginals' languages were marginalized. It is estimated by linguists (Walsh, 1993) that at the time of White colonization of Australia, there may have been some 250 indigenous languages and an unknown number of dialects in existence. The extent to which the dominant culture devastated indigenous culture is indicated by the *National Indigenous Languages Survey Report* in that only about 145 are still spoken; 110 are critically endangered and only 20 are regarded with sufficient vitality to survive the next few decades. McConvell and Thieberge predicted there would be no any indigenous language used in Australia till 2050 if this sever situation continued (AIATSIS and FATSIL, 2005).

Endangered Language Planning in China and in Australia

Language survival depends on having a variety of functions for the language to fulfill. This means that, consciously or not, speakers are constantly being presented with alternatives and having to make choices, either between language varieties or within a language. Language planning, then, can be seen as a conscious or 'explicit choice among alternatives' (Fasold, 1984, p. 246). Language planning is a deliberate effort to influence the function, structure, or acquisition of languages or language variety within a speech community (Kaplan B., Robert, & Baldauf, 1997). It mainly includes three activity types: status planning, corpus planning, and acquisition planning.

Comparative Study in Language Status Planning

Status planning has been linked to the official recognition that national governments attach to various languages, and authoritative attempts to extend or restrict language use in various contexts (Cooper, 1989, p. 32). It may include the selection of a language used in laws, governmental documents, business, media, school instructions, and so on. It concerns the relationship between languages rather than within languages, and accordingly concerns language community, ethnic equity, national prosperity and even national survival.

Since the late 1970s, the Chinese government has enacted laws and policies for the purpose of protecting minority groups' rights to language and culture. The status of national minorities and their languages in China is clearly and supportively stipulated in *Constitution of the People's Republic of China* in 1982. Art. 4 of *Constitution* prescribes that 'The people of all nationalities have the freedom to use and develop their own spoken and written languages', which officially predicates the right of each ethnic group to develop its own culture and language, to exercise self-government, and to determine the use of natural resources. Chinese government also approved the establishment of local autonomous

governments in ethnic regions. From 1947 to the end of 1998, 155 ethnic autonomous areas had been established in China, including 5 autonomous regions, 30 autonomous prefectures, 120 autonomous counties, and 1256 autonomous villages. They encompass 75% of the total minority population and inhabit 64% of the total area of China (Zuo, 2007, p. 85). Art. 10 of the *Laws of Autonomous Governing of Minority Regions* prescribes that ‘authorities of autonomous areas should guarantee that all ethnic groups are free to use and develop their native languages’ (Selected *Rules and Policies Towards Minorities*, 1996, p. 40).

Australia is one typical country successful in implementing multilingual policies of English in domination coexisting with various indigenous languages and immigrant languages. In 1980s, Australia government started to plan and formulate clear, inclusive and multicultural national language policies. In this period, many related reports were issued, of which *The National Policy on Languages* (Lo Bianco, 1987) is the milestone of language policies in Australia because of its national scope and status and its attempts to encompass all aspects of language use. In 2009, *August Announcement of the National Indigenous Languages Policy* made by the Ministers of indigenous affairs, Jenny Macklin (2009a) and Peter Garrett, listed the objectives in language policy which were to bring national attention to indigenous languages and the pressures for their maintenance, to reinforce the use of critically endangered indigenous languages, to strengthen prides in indigenous identity and culture, and to support *Indigenous Language Programs* in schools. On 30 April 2009, Australian Minister for Indigenous Affairs, Jenny Macklin (2009b), announced Australia’s support for the *United Nations Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous Peoples*. Art. 13 of Declaration states Indigenous peoples have the right to revitalize, use, develop and transmit to future generations their histories, languages, oral traditions, philosophies and States shall take effective measures to ensure that this right is protected.

In language status planning, both governments have made specific policies on minority languages’ legal and independent status, and both advocate the respect to minority’s customs and cultures. Simultaneously, no mandamus or constraints are manipulated about the areas or fields to use minority languages in both countries because minority language should be a free choice for minority people under the government’ guidance rather than any enforcement.

Comparative Study in Language Corpus Planning

Corpus planning refers to the prescriptive intervention in the forms of a language, whereby planning decisions are made to engineer changes in the structure of the language (Cooper, 1989, p. 31). It involves attempts to define or reform the standard language by changing or introducing forms in spelling, pronunciation, vocabulary, and grammar. The core value of language corpus planning is to establish unified and standardized orthography so as to keep minority languages’ stability, spread minority cultures and traditions, fight against language assimilation and culture invasion, reduce ethnic conflicts, and promote language social function.

On February 5th 1951, the Chinese Government Administration Council issued ‘*Decisions about National Affairs*’, Art. 5 of which stipulated National Languages Researching and Steering Committee subordinated to Culture and Education Committee was responsible for guiding and organizing minority languages research, helping the minorities without characters create writing system, and fulfilling some minorities’ imperfect writing systems (Sun, 2009). In Dec.1995, Tentative Language Planning towards Minority Languages was passed during the first national conference on minority languages. It was determined that during 1956 and 1957, a general survey of minority languages would be conducted, the

plan for creating and improving minority languages would be formulated in the following three years and for those unstudied minorities, the work would be finished by the end of 1960 (Zuo, 2007, p. 86). To ensure the success of the reform, 63rd State Council Conference in 1957 approved and issued *The Principles of Minority Characters Creating*, with the clear statement of reference to Latin scripts and development an alphabet easy to learn and use. In the late 1950s, 14 writing systems using Latin scripts were created for 10 minorities, and 5 writing systems were improved for 4 minorities (Zuo, 2007, p. 86). From the 1950s to the 1980s, the central authorities organized over 3,000 experts and scholars to compile and publish five series of books on ethnic minorities, totally 403 volumes and over 90 million Chinese characters (Zuo, 2007, p. 86). By the end of 1998, there were 36 minority language publishing houses and 205 minority language magazines and 88 minority language newspapers. In 2003, in ethnic autonomous areas, it's estimated there were 122 radio organizations with 73 radio stations and 523 radio transmitting stations broadcasting in 15 ethnic minority languages, 111 TV organizations with 94 TV stations and 830 TV transmitting stations broadcasting in 11 ethnic minority languages, 566 libraries and 163 museums (The White Paper (2005): China's regional ethnic autonomy, 2005).

Every year, the Australian government allocates a special fund for indigenous languages and cultures preservation and maintenance. In 2005, *National Indigenous Languages Survey Report* pointed out that indigenous languages in Australia are in great endangerment, and called on governments' attention and quick measures (AIATSIS and FATSIL, 2005). Soon afterwards, *The Project of Indigenous Languages Maintenance* was planned and carried out. The most success of the *Project* was achieved by *Central Australian Aboriginal Media Association*, which established IMPURJA TV Station and made a TV and radio broadcasting periodically with 4 indigenous languages. *Maintenance of Indigenous Languages and Record Programme* (MILR) subordinated to the Office of Environment, Water Resources, Heritage and Art is dedicated to recording of indigenous languages, compilation of indigenous language references, dictionaries, vocabularies, songs and videos and development of indigenous database. From 2005 to 2006, a total 8,327,000 dollars were spent in supporting 82 indigenous language activities, including indigenous language use, promotion, education, information, revitalization, recording and editing, as well as financial support to 16 language centers and 1 important organization of The Federation of Aboriginal & Torres Strait Islander Languages (FATSIL) (Australian Government: Department of Education, Employment and Workplace Relations, 2008, p. 37). On Feb 29th of 2011, the program of *Indigenous Languages—A National Approach* was restarted, aiming at increasing indigenous language use in certain fields, such as media and indigenous language publications. To save critically endangered languages, during 2011-2012, Australian government input 9,600,000 dollars to finance 67 indigenous language preservation and maintenance activities, as well as to utilize new technology and new media to expand the influence of indigenous languages revitalization and maintenance.

Comparing language corpus planning, we can find both governments have made a set of principles in ethnic character creation and have been successful in minority language standardization and unification. Many linguistic experts have contributed to the further research on minority languages' description, recording and digital conservation. State governments and local governments input in human and financial resources to support the further development of minority languages' spreading and cultures' sharing.

Comparative Study in Language Acquisition Planning

Language Acquisition Planning is about the decisions concerning the teaching and use of language in education (Cooper, 1989, p. 31). It concerns a national, state or local government system aiming to influence aspects of language, such as language status, distribution and literacy through education. It may include creating favorable minority languages' environment, promoting minority languages' regional spread and dissemination, improving minority languages education modes and methods, developing bilingual education and multi-culture education.

In China, all clauses about minority languages education are advocatory rather than compulsory. Art. 36 of *the 1984 Laws on Nationality Regional Autonomy (LNRA)* allows regional government to decide 'plans for the education development in autonomous areas', and 'establishment of various schools at different levels with different education system, curriculum, instruction languages and enrolment procedures'. Bilingual education in minority communities is also guaranteed in Art. 37 of *LNRA* in that 'in schools where minority students are in the majority, text books should be in the minority languages and courses should be taught in the minority languages when conditions are permitted. Chinese courses should be offered in the late years of elementary schools or middle schools in order to spread modern standard Chinese throughout China (Zhou, 2003, p. 266). It was restated in *The 1986 Compulsory Education Laws of the People' Republic of China*, *1988 Regulations for the Work of Eradicating Illiteracy*, as well as *The 1993 National Education Development and Reform Guidelines* issued by the State Education Committee and *The 1995 Education Laws of the People' Republic of China*. It was re-emphasized in Art 22 of *2005 Certain Rules of Law of Autonomous Governing of Minority Regions* to encourage bilingual education in ethnic autonomous areas, to support the research, development and publication of minority languages teaching materials, to establish and improve minority languages edition and censor organizations, as well as cultivate qualified minority languages teachers and mandarin teachers (Decree 435 of the state council of the People's Republic of China, 2005).

Australian language acquisition planning emphasizes that the intensive and continuous use of indigenous languages is helpful for indigenous languages survival and transmission. Art. 14 of United Nations Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous Peoples (Macklin, 2009b) states indigenous peoples have the right to establish and control their educational systems and institutions providing education in their own languages, in a manner appropriate to their cultural methods of teaching and learning. Therefore, many states started bilingual education accordingly. In Australia, 16000 Aboriginals and 13000 non-Aboriginals joined in *Indigenous Language Program*, 28% of which are First Language Maintenance Programs including Bilingual Programs; 12% are Second Language Learning Programs; 50% are Language Revival Programs including 28% Language Revitalization, 4% Language Renewal and 18% Language Reclamation, and 10% aim to cultivate Language Awareness. Students get to know indigenous language and Aboriginals' culture by learning social, cultural and historical knowledge from these programs (Australian Government: Department of Education, Employment and Workplace Relations, 2008, pp. 56-57). Bilingual programs provided a significant means of first language maintenance for the children and communities who were involved in them. One of the major outcomes of bilingual programs was a stronger relationship between school and community where bilingual education was implemented and a much more significant development of Aboriginal people as teachers (Gale, 1990, pp. 54-59; McKay, 1996, pp. 113-117).

Though both governments have invested a lot of human and material resources in minority languages acquisition, there are still many difficulties in minority languages education, such as insufficient teachers,

and deficient infrastructure. We need not only increase and promote the minority languages use in legislation, administration, mass media, research, training and public service, but also open minority languages classes in different levels, encourage minority youth to use their mother languages and contribute to their revitalization.

Conclusion

In a multilingual society, providing positive language planning can help resist the adverse effects of globalization and internalization, assisting the endangered languages to gain prestige, and the speakers to regain pride in their languages. Maintenance and transmission of endangered languages is a comprehensive and integral project involving common efforts of legislation, administration, education and individuals, requiring the combination of top-down regulations and bottom-up enthusiasm. The attitudes of minority language users are very important. If the language user identifies the importance of the language, he will have stronger consciousness to preserve and transmit this language. Otherwise, this language will go to extinction. Governments of different levels and local organizations should actively contribute the joint effort to exploring various ways to record minority languages, advocating bilingual and multicultural education, replace assimilation with tolerance and appreciation, and encourage ethnic groups to participate in the maintenance and transmission of minority languages and cultures.

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An Empirical Study on Japanese Learning Strategies Employed by Double-Degree Students

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[Abstract] *This paper makes an empirical study on the Japanese learning strategies employed by a special group, the students of Japanese and software majors, by analyzing a questionnaire special to Japanese study which is built based on the Oxford's Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL). All the data are analyzed with the SPSS 19.0. It finds that the double-degree students do not frequently use Japanese learning strategies. Compared with low-score group, the high-score group usually adopts more learning strategies. The research result is important to the learning strategies training and Japanese class teaching for double-degree students.*

[Keywords] *double-degree students; Japanese learning strategies; high-score group; low-score group*

Introduction

It is well known that the learning strategy is an important part of a learner strategy. A large number of studies have shown that the learning strategy is one of the important factors affecting learners' foreign language proficiency. For this reason, many scholars have made researches on the learning strategies, but are seldom focused on the special group of double-degree students. This paper analyzes a questionnaire conducted on the students of Japanese and software majors in Dalian Jiaotong University, and discusses the following two questions: 1) How do the double-degree students use the Japanese learning strategies at present? 2) Is there any difference between the high-score group and low-score group students in using learning strategies? This paper tries to offer new insights from above study into the Japanese learners' learning strategies training and Japanese class teaching.

Language Learning Strategies (LLS) and Related Research

Language Learning Strategies (LLS) Definition

The LLS are considered the special thoughts or behaviors that individuals use to help them comprehend, learn, or retain new information (Chamot, 1987), or they are taken as the strategies that contribute to the development of the language system that the learner constructs and it affects learning directly (Rubin, 1987). They also can be acknowledged as that the specific actions, behaviors, steps, or techniques that students (often intentionally) use to improve their progress in developing L2 skills, and these strategies can facilitate the internalization, storage, retrieval, or use of the new language and strategies are tools for the self-directed involvement necessary for developing communicative ability (Oxford, 1990). To sum up, LLS are the specific behaviors or techniques that students use during the second language or foreign language skills development to promote their learning progress.

The Taxonomies of LLS

When researching the LLS, we may come across many models in taxonomy. O'Malley & Chamot (1990) divided the LLS into meta-cognitive strategies, cognitive strategies and socio-affective strategies based on

the information processing theory. According to the relationship between the LLS and language materials, Oxford (1990) classified the LLS into direct strategies and indirect strategies. The direct strategies include the memory strategies, cognitive strategies & compensation strategies, and indirect strategies include the meta-cognitive strategies, affective strategies & social strategies. In accordance with the purpose of strategies, Cohen (1998) divides the LLS into strategies for learning language and the strategies for using language. This paper uses the Oxford (1990) model, which is widely acknowledged by the people.

Research Methods

Investigation Subjects

This paper sets 48 senior students of Japanese and Software majors in Dalian Jiaotong University as the investigation subjects, and 43 copies of valid answers were collected. In accordance with students' scores in Japanese Language Proficiency Test, 11 students with highest 25% scores were counted as the high-score group, and 11 students with lowest 25% scores were taken as the low-score group. The result of the T-test indicates that there is significant difference in the scores of Japanese Language Proficiency Test between the high-score group and low-score group.

Research Questions

This paper seeks to answer the following two questions.

1. How do the double-degree students use the Japanese learning strategies at present?
2. Is there any difference between the high-score group and low-score group students in using learning strategies?

Investigation and Statistical Methods

This investigation on double-degree students is taken from a special survey based on the Oxford's SILL (Strategy Inventory for Language Learning). This survey contains the basic personal information for participants to fill in, such as name, sex, date, test level and scores for participated JLPT, etc. In addition, the survey has 50 questions in six categories for learning strategies, which includes memory strategies, cognitive strategies, compensation strategies, meta-cognitive strategies, affective strategies and social strategies.

The answer for each item was a five-point Likert scale as follows:

1. Never or almost never true of me.
2. Usually not true of me.
3. Somewhat true of me.
4. Usually true of me.
5. Always or almost always true of me.

All the data in this investigation was analyzed with the SPSS 19.0.

Results and Discussion

Overall Strategy Use

This survey indicates that the double-degree students seldom use Japanese Learning Strategies, and the overall mean value is only 2.9 points. The usage status of each strategy is as the table below.

Table 1. Single Sample Statistics

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Memory	43	2.7674	.58585	.08934
Cognitive	43	2.8372	.52078	.07942
Compensation	43	3.5659	.73655	.11232
Meta-cognitive	43	2.8088	.73716	.11242
Affective	43	2.5155	.54167	.08260
Social	43	3.0116	.64693	.09866

The survey illustrates that the usage frequency of each strategy by double-degree students, from highest to lowest, is as follows: compensation strategies, social strategies, cognitive strategies, meta-cognitive strategies, memory strategies and affective strategies. As the score for each item is between 1-5 points, therefore, the item with 3.5 points or above can be counted as the high-frequency strategy. It is also clear that the double-degree students seldom use Japanese learning strategies, since the mean value of all strategies is only 2.9 points. Among these six strategies, only compensation strategies have a mean value of over 3.5 points, and other five kinds of strategies cannot be considered as high-frequency strategies. The using frequency for affective strategies and memory strategies are less. The strategy with lowest frequency is affective strategies, with the mean value of only 2.5 points.

The strategy that students used most frequently was compensation strategy, which indicates that they will consciously use gestures, guess the meaning for phrases, and anticipate the context when using Japanese, in order to compensate their Japanese language level.

The low frequency of using affective strategies indicates that double-degree students are quite anxious when they are learning Japanese, since they are studying two majors, and the time they spent on learning Japanese is less than that the students of Japanese major. Meanwhile, science students may lack confidence or may be anxious when learning Japanese, and this will easily lead to tense mood, being afraid to make mistakes and seldom communicating with others.

Among these six strategies, the score for memory strategies was relatively low. Compared with the scores of each sub-strategy, in the memory sub-strategy, students seldom used strategy “6. I use flashcards to remember new words” and “7. I physically act out new words” and the scores for these two items were only 1.86 and 1.84 points, respectively. However, the scores for 3 items in the rest 7 sub-strategies are 3.0 points or more. Therefore, students can fully utilize certain part of memory strategies, but they are not familiar with flashcards, etc., strategies, which cause a low mean value for memory strategies.

Difference of Learning Strategies Used by the High-score Group and Low-score Group Students

According to the T-test result, the difference of learning strategies used by the high-score group and the low-score group students are discussed as follows.

Table 2. Group Statistics

	Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	P	Mean diff.
Memory	High-score	11	3.1212	.61955	.004	.70707
	Low-score	11	2.4141	.38838	.005	.70707
Cognitive	High-score	11	3.1623	.42629	.001	.75974
	Low-score	11	2.4026	.50636	.001	.75974
Compensation	High-score	11	3.8182	.63881	.004	.86364
	Low-score	11	2.9545	.61051	.004	.86364
Meta-cognitive	High-score	11	3.4646	.58966	.000	1.20202
	Low-score	11	2.2626	.55616	.000	1.20202
Affective	High-score	11	2.8939	.67195	.013	.66667
	Low-score	11	2.2273	.46111	.014	.66667
Social	High-score	11	3.4242	.61175	.000	1.07576
	Low-score	11	2.3485	.56987	.000	1.07576

The analysis shows that the high-score group will use the learning strategies more frequently than the low-score group. The mean value for high-score group in 48 strategies among all 50 sub-strategies is higher than that for low-score group. Only two strategies share the same mean values for both the high-score group and low-score group.

This independent samples t-test result indicates that there was no statistically significant difference in affective strategies. Meanwhile, the frequency for using affective strategies is the lowest for all investigation participants. This means that the most double-degree students cannot overcome anxiety and encourage themselves timely when learning Japanese.

Except for affective strategies, the differences for the other five strategies are significant ($p < 0.05$). High-score group students can make full use of various learning strategies.

High-score group and low-score group are quite different in the meta-cognitive strategies and social strategies. A higher using frequency of meta-cognitive strategies indicates that the high-score group students will effectively monitor and control their learning process, and the low-score students cannot make good learning plans, monitoring and adjustment. The low-score group students seldom use social strategies, indicating that these students fall far behind in asking questions, understanding others and cooperating with others in their language learning courses.

While for the memory strategies, there is relatively low difference between these two groups.

Conclusion

In summary, the learning strategies are not widely used by the double-degree students in learning Japanese and the frequency of using such strategies is low, since the mean value of overall strategies is only 2.9 points. The usage frequency of Japanese learning strategies from highest to lowest are: compensation strategies, social strategies, cognitive strategies, meta-cognitive strategies, memory strategies and affective strategies. In these strategies, only the compensation strategies are often used and the other five strategies are not used frequently. In addition, the analysis indicates that the high-score group students usually use the learning strategies more frequently than the low-score group students. However, there was no statistically significant difference in affective strategies, but the difference for other five strategies are significant ($p < 0.05$). Compared with low-score group, the high-score group can use various learning strategies better.

The above findings are significant for teaching learning strategies to Japanese learners and Japanese class teaching. First, teachers should inform the double-degree students of the importance of using learning strategies, and actively instruct them to make use of various learning strategies. Meanwhile, the lowest frequency of affective strategies will cause the double-degree students high anxiety, so the teachers should encourage them to eliminate their fear of failure, reduce their nervousness, and actively communicate with others using Japanese. Second, from the survey it shows that the high-score group students usually use learning strategies more frequently than low-score group, therefore it can be concluded that using learning strategies will help improve academic achievement, and at the same time the strategies used more frequently by the high-score group students are relatively more effective. Therefore, in class teaching, teachers should pay attention and actively train students to use various strategies, especially the strategies that students are not accustomed before. At the same time, teachers should also introduce the differences that high-score group students and low-scores group students used, and find out a more effective strategy, and improve students' ability to use the strategies through training, so as to enhance their Japanese scores as well as the ability to communicate in Japanese.

However, this research still needs further development since there were not many participants in this investigation, and the covered range was also not wide enough, which shall be further studied in future.

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A Comparative Study of the Historical Development of English Education in Mainland China and Hong Kong in Recent Decades

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[Abstract] The paper discusses the historical development of English education in both Mainland China and Hong Kong in recent decades. It considers similarities and differences in English education in the two regions from a historical point of view and comments on what Mainland China can learn from Hong Kong in the context of English education.

[Keywords] comparative study; English education; Mainland China; Hong Kong; historical development

Introduction

This paper focuses on the English education development in Mainland China and Hong Kong since 1949. It is important to review issues concerning English education from a historical perspective. Since 1949, many important economic and social events have happened in the context of a fluctuating political climate in these two regions, such as the founding of new China, China's economic reform and the sovereignty changeover in Hong Kong. All of these events have had great impacts on English education in both Mainland China and Hong Kong.

The Historical Development in Mainland China

Important Historical Events and Status of English

Throughout the modern history of China, English has been seen as a principal language of trade partners, academics, technical experts, advisers, tourists and popular culture. Since the 19th century, China has had in place a strategy to mitigate undesirable cultural transfer: "a policy of controlled and selective appropriation, to use English for the purpose of state building, while maintaining cultural integrity" (Adamson, 2002, p. 231). Since the founding of the new China, there have been measures to promote foreign language education and its development has gone through several phases during this period as shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Important Historical Events and Status of the English Language in Mainland China since 1949

Time	Important Historical Events	Status and Roles of English
Early 1950s	China's alignment with Russia	Low official status of English
Late 1950s	Sino-Soviet relations tense	Popularity of English increases; Important determinant for higher education
1966-1970	Cultural Revolution	Learning foreign things forbidden; English removed from curricula
1971-1976	UN's recognition of China; new Sino-American relation; end of the Cultural Revolution	English for rebuilding relations with the outside world
1977-1990	Open Door Policy; implement of four modernizations	English as a useful tool for economic development
1991 onwards	Disintegration of Soviet Union; China's entry into the WTO; Beijing's hosting of the 2008 Olympics	English for international competition

Because China's initial vision was alignment with the Communist nations, Russian enjoyed a more popular status than English in the early fifties. Meanwhile, a tide of anti-US sentiment resulted in a lack of English teaching materials and expertise. But in the late 1950s, this situation changed. The Soviet Union did not treat China as an equal and did not provide aid in the promised manner. Sino-Soviet relations became tense, and China began to look to the West for economic ties. English began to replace Russian as the main foreign language in China (Lam, 2002). Competence in English became important for individuals to gain access to higher education, and more attention was paid to improving the quality of English teaching.

From 1966 to 1976, the Cultural Revolution swept throughout China, making the learning of anything foreign distrusted. But during the period of the Cultural Revolution, several important events, such as the United Nations' recognition of China as a member state and the establishment of a new Sino-American relationship, led to the resumption of English as a tool for renewing ties with the West. English had re-emerged in the curriculum sporadically and tentatively around the country in the early seventies, especially following President Nixon's visit, but for many teachers the subject was too politically sensitive to teach.

Through the Open Door Policy in 1978, learning English became very popular, and the policy was a further significant boost to both the status and role of English. In January 1978 the Ministry of Education announced that English and other foreign languages would be restored in all schools from the following September. Foreign language education at the tertiary level was also developed. Opportunities became available for foreign language undergraduates to study overseas, and native speaker teachers were recruited to work in tertiary institutions.

The disintegration of the Soviet Union in 1991 made it possible for China to adopt a more international development policy. The expansion of international trade and the tourist industry led to well-paid jobs for translators and interpreters, which provided a motivation for learning English. People's increasing income made English study a form of entertainment: there were TV programs teaching English for people who could afford television sets; night school courses also opened; and lately, access to the Internet has broadened English learners' horizons. There was a marked growth in private tuitions specializing in English teaching and examination-preparation. For example, the country's biggest and most well-known private school, New Oriental, is famous for such international standard English tests as TOEFL, and IELTS, etc., preparation, and other English crammer courses. There was also an upsurge of

interest with the introduction of popular methods such as ‘Crazy English’ and ‘English Corner’ (a group of learners conversing in English exists in many towns and cities).

Present Role and Status of English

At present, the role and status of English in China is higher than ever before and the subject English is highly promoted on the curricula of both secondary and tertiary levels. China’s efforts to join the World Trade Organization (WTO) and Beijing’s host of the Olympic Games were both realized. These successes are dependent on China’s ability to cater for the linguistic needs of the foreign mass media and tourists, and such an international outlook requires further openness to foreign language learning. Indeed, CCP leaders generally value the contribution that English can make to the nation’s modernization programs, and many of them regard it important to seize the present opportunity to improve Chinese people’s English.

It can be concluded that in the PRC English has been an object of attack during periods of hyperpoliticization, but has also been warmly embraced because of its pragmatic value for modernization. Since 1978 the conditions for learning English and educational support have improved because of its technical, social and financial benefits. With the enhancement of international exchange the Chinese people can only become more open to external influences.

The Historical Development in Hong Kong

A Colonial Language

Now we shall turn to English learning issues in Hong Kong. Hong Kong used to be a British dependent territory and has a total land area of 1076 km², made up of three distinct parts: Hong Kong Island, the Kowloon peninsula, and the New Territories. During the 99 years of British control, Hong Kong gradually became an international city. There were a large number of expatriates, mostly English-speaking professionals who came to work in Hong Kong and who made it a truly international and multi-cultural society (Flowerdew & Scollon, 1997). This, in turn had important ramifications for cross-linguistic and cross-cultural communication.

While Hong Kong was under British sovereignty, English was essentially a ‘colonial’ language, which always signified power and status and performed a gate-keeping function for access to positions of wealth and prestige. It was perceived as the colonial language imposed on the majority by the minority ruling class.

For the 99 years of Hong Kong’s existence as a British colony, the European and Chinese communities lived in separate worlds and each community regarded the other as alien. Although Cantonese, a local dialect of Chinese, has always been the language of the home and the street, English remained the only official language in the area until 1974 and was the only medium of communication between the government and the territory’s Chinese population. Indeed, it can be argued that it actually functioned as “a symbol of power more than a means of communication” in colonial Hong Kong (Evans, 2000, p. 198). There has been a widespread and continuous acceptance in Hong Kong, even up to the present day, that English will maintain its status as a primary language of higher education and business, and that it will continue to play its essential role in Hong Kong’s development as a modern city with an international outlook.

Economic Development and its Relation to Requirements of English Skills

As a multi-national tourist city, Hong Kong has greatly relied on an expanding service industry sector; therefore, it is important that the local Chinese employees and salespersons speak the language of customer service, which, presumably, is English (Phillipson, 1992). In order for Hong Kong to compete in international business and finance, its inhabitants have to speak fluent English, and this has resulted in Hong Kong people's high motivation to learn English well. The whole society "set up a hierarchy of English capacity, whereby the 'native (English) speaker' naturally stood on top, and others were placed on descending rungs accordingly" (Choi, 2003, p. 678). English is seen as the language of "upward and outward mobility" (So, 1992, p. 93), since there is a high correlation between proficiency in English and chances for higher and overseas education as well as better job opportunities. Table 2 presents the relation between Hong Kong's economic development and its requirement of English skills for the workforce since 1950s. Further discussion about the relation will be followed next.

Table 2. Hong Kong's Economic Development and its Relation to Requirement of English Skills for the Workforce since 1950s

Time	Economic development	Requirement of English skills
1950s-1960s	Centered on trading activities and manufacturing	Minority of the workforce needed to be proficient in English
1970s-1980s	Transferred from labor-intensive manufacturing to high-technology service industries	Higher requirement of English skills for much higher proportion of the workforce
1990s-present	Trade centre for China, has focused on international financial and information service industries	Further demands on the supply of the workforce fluent in English

In the 1950s and 1960s, when economic development in Hong Kong centered on trading activities and manufacturing, only a minority of the workforce needed to be proficient in English. But from the 1970s, the rapid growth of international trade in Hong Kong further increased the demand for English education. The transformation of Hong Kong's economy, from labor-intensive manufacturing industries to high-technology service industries, contributed significantly to the region's emergence in the 1980s as a leading international center of business and finance. It meant that a much higher proportion of the workforce was required to achieve higher levels English.

Post-Colonial Period

In more recent years, English has played a more important role in Hong Kong society. With China's 'open door' policy of encouraging business with the West and with its Asian neighbors, many international corporations have located their headquarters in Hong Kong, using the territory as an East Asian regional business hub (Flowerdew & Scollon, 1997). The need for English has grown with the territory's economic development. This is manifested in the English subject's high status in primary and secondary school curricula and English as key element for entry to tertiary education.

The role of businesses in shaping language policy is growing to such an extent that it actually finds its way into official documents. This influence is exerted in the form of an aggressive campaign, called the Language Campaign, launched in 1988. One major activity of this Campaign is to influence and promote English language teaching in schools and tertiary institutions. Tertiary education, which is primarily English-medium, has undergone great expansion in recent years, in response to the needs of the expanding labor market. More and more young people in Hong Kong, therefore, need to be bilingual in

Chinese and English if they want to take up the possibility of studying at university level. As a result, the Language Campaign goes a step further to actually influence policy-making, which is, of course, an important achievement.

On 1 July 1997, China resumed its sovereignty over Hong Kong. This change did not entail an overhaul of the social and economic structure that existed previously. According to the Joint Declaration and the Basic Law, Hong Kong will retain its two official languages of Chinese and English and the supremacy of English will not be undermined, because, as Pierson put it, “English ... can be rightly viewed as one of Hong Kong’s many assets, similar perhaps to a valuable natural commodity” (1992, p. 190). As long as the MOI (Medium of Instruction) at higher education and employment structure favors English, Chinese-medium education can only be seen as a second-class option.

In September 1997, shortly after Hong Kong’s transition from British to Chinese sovereignty, the Education Department of the Special Administrative Region announced a policy, which stated clearly the post-colonial government’s position on the roles of the English and Chinese languages in Hong Kong’s education system. According to the new language policy, from September 1998 most schools should adopt Chinese for teaching all academic subjects. For schools wishing to use English as the MOI, they must satisfy the requirements necessary for the effective use of English as MOI. This policy was widely seen as a restoration of ‘mother-tongue education’, but in reality was an elitist language selection policy, because it provided for the selection of the best primary school graduates for monolingual education in English, while the majority of students were barred from sufficient exposure to English, the language of power and wealth.

This switch of MOI from English to Chinese has caused a storm of controversy among parents, students and teachers. On the parents’ part, this language selection policy has proved to be highly unpopular. Parents still regard a successful English-medium education as a prerequisite for socio-economic advancement. For this reason, they are overwhelmingly in support of EMI teaching and feel the increased pressure to put their children into the best education, which really means English-medium education.

As for students’ attitudes towards the medium of instruction (MOI), a survey conducted by Tung, et al. (1997) shows that students agree that Chinese is a more efficient and effective language for learning and that the mastery of Chinese benefits the learning of English. However, they still think English is important for their careers and they only view Chinese as a means to the goal of studying through the medium of English.

On the teachers’ side, they appear to hold more sophisticated views and are more aware of the problems and the possibilities in the MOI debate. On the one hand, those who support the continued use of English argue that English-medium education brings about a better standard of English, which is important for the purpose of career advancement, and that high levels of proficiency in the language are essential to the maintenance of Hong Kong’s status as a leading international center of industry, commerce and finance. On the other hand, teachers with opposite opinions point out that classroom participation and student-teacher interaction are much better in classrooms using Chinese as the teaching medium.

Conclusion: Looking to the Future

This paper investigates English education in Mainland China and Hong Kong from 1949 to the present. English education in these two regions has many similar and some differing features and there is a

common recognition that English should be used as a powerful tool for all-round development in both areas. By comparing key aspects of historical development of English education, the paper has sought to give an insight into some of the questions and issues that need to be understood and discussed to improve English education in Mainland China, so that it can gain economic, political and cultural development side by side with Hong Kong in a multicultural social setting.

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Study on Computer-Based College English Experiments

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[Abstract] *As a new approach, computer-based language experiments nowadays have been implemented for one year in Changchun University of Science and Technology. Two experimental classes and two control classes were selected to conduct two equal language experiments for the purpose of testing the effectiveness of language experiments. The study shows that the subjects in the experimental class have a generally much better performance in spoken expressions, especially in coherence and proficiency domains; that is to say, language experiments have a positive influence and can facilitate English oral expressions. This paper shows the results of study on language experiments.*

[Keywords] *computer-based; language experiments; formative assessment; constructivism; spoken expressions*

Introduction

“Language experiments”, in *College English: A Course book for Hands-on Language Experiments (Fan & Zheng, 2012)* published by Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press, refers to that in certain language contexts, subjects are required to accomplish certain learning tasks as a way of language learning and practice activity via target language. Language experiments integrate project-based language experiments with formative assessment, which is a further development of traditional points of view on teaching, learning and media. It is also a kind of innovation on traditional models of instruction and methodology of college English. Language experiments can be applied into the part of autonomous learning which encourages subjects to choose the items of experiments by themselves, guiding students to achieve a better understanding of the learning objective and approaches of learning. In a word, language experiments can make the subjects conduct learning, testing and assessing in language experiment lab.

Theoretical Basis

Constructivism

Constructivism is drawn more recently with Piaget. Piaget (1970) believed that the acquisition of knowledge is a process of constant self-construction. Constructivism emphasizes that the learner should actively participate in a wide varieties of tasks and activities in order to compliment their learning. It is through the process of active involvement that students start to understand concepts and meaning occurs. Constructivists hold the opinion that norm-referenced, standardized testing cannot adequately reveal authentic learning or knowledge. Constructivist paradigm emphasizes that true education must be student-centered and have relevance to their own experiences (von Glasersfeld, 1987), stating that learning is an active, contextualized process of constructing knowledge. Constructivism as “an interpretive, recursive, building process by active learners interacting with the physical and social world” (Fosnot, 1996, p. 30) upholds that knowledge is constructed by individuals through their experience and social activities. In other words, knowledge is constructed based on personal experiences and hypotheses of the environment. Learners continuously test these hypotheses through social negotiation.

Constructivism maintains that each student should construct knowledge individually and the fundamental purpose of teaching must be to foster the art of learning (von Glasersfeld, 1995). In constructivist learning environments, assessment and learning are integrally linked. The constructionist teaching theory is regarded as a revolution of learning and teaching theory, which is a progress in educational psychology in current age.

Formative Assessment

Gipps (1994) viewed formative assessment as the process of appraising, judging, or evaluating students' work or performance and using this to shape and improve students' competence. Black (1995) claimed the distinguishing characteristics of formative assessment are that the assessment information was used, by the teacher and pupils, to modify their work in order to make it more effective. Formative assessment can help students develop from passive objects of assessment to active participants in the assessment process. Formative assessment should establish an open and relaxed atmosphere for assessment; encourage students, peers, and teachers to collectively participate in assessment. Studies show that strengthening the practice of formative assessment produce significant and often substantial learning gains. Black and William (1998b) provide strong evidence from an extensive literature review to show that classroom "formative" assessment, properly implemented, is a powerful means to improve student learning. Royce Sadler (1989) identifies three elements that are significant to the effectiveness of formative assessment: helping students to recognize clearly the desired goal (understand what is required); providing students with evidence about how well their work matches that goal; explaining ways to close the gap between the goal and their current performance.

Necessity and Advantage of Language Experiments

College English Curriculum Requirements released by China Ministry of Education in 2007, states, "Computer-and web-based courses should be developed, and students should be provided with favorable environment and facilities for language learning. Colleges and universities should remold the existing unitary teacher-centered pattern of language teaching by introducing computer-and classroom-based teaching models. The new model should be built on modern information technology, particularly network technology, so that English language teaching and learning will be to a certain extent, free from the constraints of time or place and geared towards students' individualized and autonomous learning." Meanwhile, it points out: "The evaluation of students' learning consists of formative assessment and summative assessment. Formative assessment refers to procedural and developmental assessment conducted in the teaching process, i.e., tracking the teaching process, providing feedback and promoting an all-round development of the students, in accordance with the teaching objectives and by means of various evaluative methods. It facilitates the effective monitoring of students' autonomous learning, and is particularly important in implementing the computer-and classroom-based teaching model."

Language experiments can keep track of and assess the subjects' language capability, especially listening and speaking. Through the individualized language experiments, subjects can experience and witness the process of their own learning. This can stimulate the subjects to develop their learning plans based on their real level, and then check their learning outcomes, which belongs to the domain of creative and autonomous learning. Furthermore, language experiments require subjects actively involve into self and peer assessment, and then submit reports. At last, the instructor finishes the assessment of learning outcome and provides feedback. Through the system of experimental teaching and assessment, modern

theory of foreign languages, “teacher-dominated, and students-centered”, will be genuinely achieved, which can effectively stimulate the learners’ interest and ensure the quality of foreign language learning. It aims to cultivate the subjects’ comprehensive ability in using foreign language, autonomous learning, research and creative capability. It is expected to promote the effectiveness of reform in college English teaching with new theories and practice.

Study on Language Experiments

Starting from the fall semester of 2012, based on the course book entitled *College English: A Course book for Hands-on Language Experiments* published by Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press, we conducted language experiments in spoken English in Changchun University of Science and Technology. As experimental classes, altogether six were chosen. The types of experiments contain different language experiments such as pronunciation practice, extending vocabulary, dialogue imitation, listening skills practice, writing similar dialogue, group discussion, role play, interview, speech, and micro-survey, etc. This wide variety of contents aims to build up the subjects’ foundation and cultivate their comprehensive language skills. In the first semester, in view of low language proficiency on the part of the subjects, some comparatively simpler language experiments were conducted, mainly focusing on pronunciation practice, extending vocabulary, and dialogue imitation. In the second semester, language experiments changed somewhat slightly. More focus shifted from basic knowledge to experiments like repeating the main idea, role-play, interview, and speech. That is to say, the emphasis was targeted to discourse rather than vocabulary and dialogue. Whole procedures in language experiments were as follows: Introducing language experiment; showing model samples to let the subjects become consciously aware of the differences among distinctive levels; conducting experiments on the parts of subjects; subjects’ submitting experiment recordings to the database and writing experiment reports; self-assessment and peer assessment; instructor’s assessment and feedback and instructors demonstrating problems in language experiments.

On June 2013, a study on the effectiveness of language experiments was carried out. Two control and two experimental classes were selected. The subjects were asked to conduct two experiments: one experiment was concerning repeating the main idea after listening to a passage; another was to compose a dialogue in the form of pair work. The subjects were required to finish the two experiments in the lab. Since the subjects in the control class were not familiar with the manipulation before the experiment, the system was made ready to use, that is to say, all they needed was to record. There were five full points for the two language experiments. To achieve validity, after the experiments, three instructors were asked to score each subject’s experiment from the perspectives of pronunciation, accuracy, coherence and proficiency. The average was then noted down as final. Figure 1 and Figure 2 show the results of control class A and B (P stands for pronunciation; A for accuracy; C for coherence and P for proficiency).

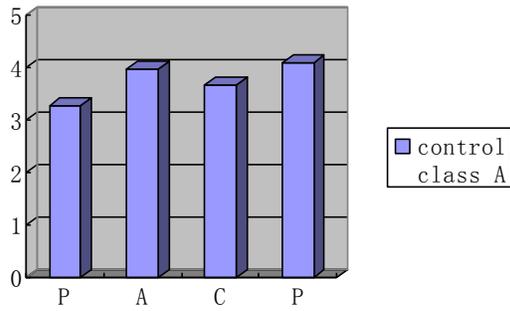


Figure 1. Control Class A

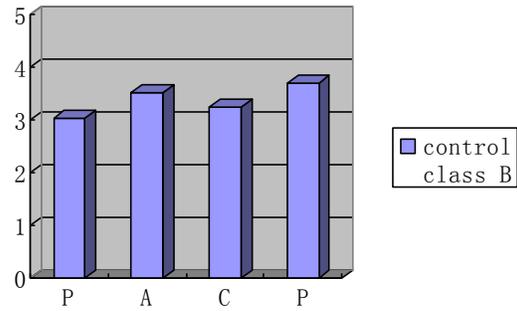


Figure 2. Control Class B

Figures 3 and 4 show the results of experiment class A and B (P stands for pronunciation; A for accuracy; C for coherence and P for proficiency).

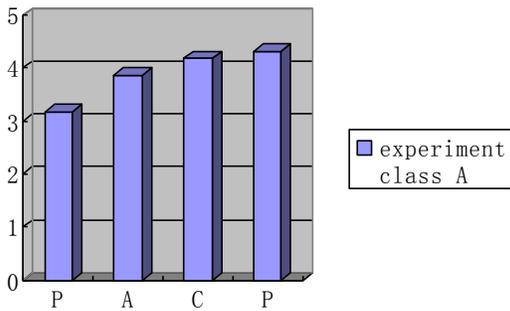


Figure 3. Experimental Class A

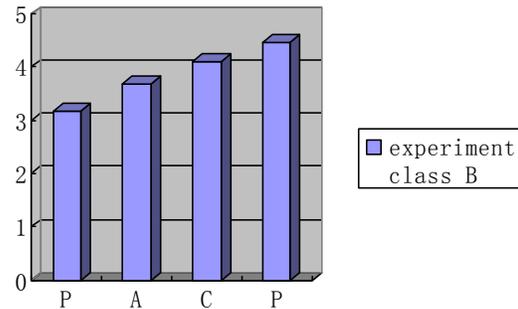


Figure 4. Experimental Class B

The averages in the control classes and the experiment classes are shown in Figure 5. It directly shows the contrast between the results in the control class and that of the experiment class (P stands for pronunciation; A for accuracy; C for coherence and P for proficiency).

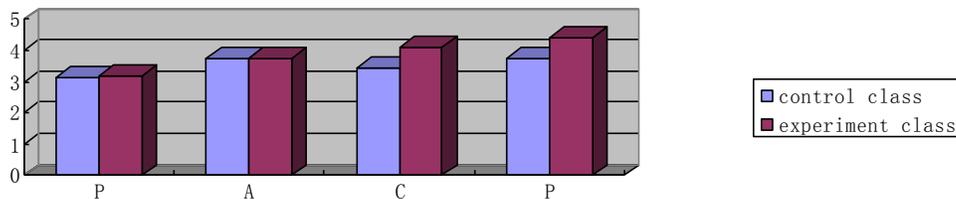


Figure 5. The Class Averages between the Control Classes and the Experimental Classes

The above contrast shows that the subjects improved in all four aspects: pronunciation, accuracy, coherence and proficiency, although the results may not be highly significant. In terms of pronunciation, the mean score for both were almost the same: 3.16 in the control class and 3.18 in the experimental class.

This is true of accuracy: the mean score in the control class was 3.73 and that in the experiment class was 3.77. It is worth mentioning that compared with pronunciation and accuracy, the subjects in the experimental class made more progress in coherence and proficiency domains. The mean score of coherence in the control class was 3.46, while it was 4.14 in the experiment class; the mean score of proficiency in the control class was 3.74, while it rose to 4.39 in the experimental class.

Implications and Conclusion

Language experiments apply the theory of constructivism and formative assessment to the practice of language teaching and learning context. Language experiments are constructed by integrating teaching and assessment. It is the product of foreign language theories and the development of modern educational technology. It has concrete objective, method, steps, various model samples, and advanced interactive experimental platform. Language experiments in Changchun University of Science and Technology has been implemented for two semesters. Through conducting these language experiments, the subjects further strengthened their pronunciation, accuracy, coherence and proficiency, especially the latter two aspects of target language. The possible explanations may lie in the fact that improving pronunciation, especially accuracy, is a comparatively slower progress. Preceding college English, all had about nine years of experiences in learning English and that's why their pronunciation was not easily changed. As to accuracy, this is a difficult objective to achieve too, especially for those first-year college students. More practice can dramatically improve coherence and proficiency even after one year of language experiments. Furthermore, language experiments do achieve the purpose of testing and supervising the ability in using language, fulfilling the function of prove and analysis, submitting reports, tracing results and feedback. So it improves supervision and assessment of whole learning process.

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An Empirical Study on English Reading Strategy Training for College Students of Non-English Majors

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[Abstract] *This paper aims to conduct an empirical study on English reading strategy training for non-English-major college students. The instruments adopted include a 60-day training experiment, a questionnaire and an interview. Under the guidance of three Models of Reading, Schema Theory and Strategy Instruction Model, the results are summarized as follows: not all the reading strategies can develop equally and be mastered skillfully by the trainees. Among the six reading strategies trained, finding topic sentence ranks the first in good training effectiveness, followed by inferencing. The least effective training is on the instruction of structural analyzing strategy.*

[Keywords] *reading; reading strategy; training experiment*

Introduction

As an important language skill, reading is regarded as one of the major methods of language input. Previous research results uncovered that such factors greatly affect the result and effectiveness of reading comprehension as motivation, attitude, aptitude, cognitive ability, language proficiency and reading strategies. Among all of these factors, reading strategies are regarded as one of the most important factors. Hence, many researches revolve around the correlation between strategy use and reading achievement, and the relationship between strategy training and reading proficiency, as well as the contrast of strategy use between successful and unsuccessful learners. As a whole, all of these studies by nature are carried out by analyzing objective data, however, those researches neglect in part how the effectiveness of strategy training is actually evaluated from learners' perspective. Based on the previous researches done before, this paper hypothesizes that certain strategies can be mastered quickly by students within a period of strategy training and attempts to find which reading strategy can be mastered skillfully and achieve relatively better training effectiveness from the point of view of the trainees.

Theoretical Framework

On the basis of previous literature review, this paper refers to the following three theories as the basic theoretical framework: three Models of Reading, Schema Theory and the Strategy Instruction Model. To be more scientific and reliable, this paper follows the strategy instruction model advocated by Cohen in the course of training experiment.

Three Models of Reading

How should language learners read has always been a hot topic for researchers home and abroad. In order to analyze the reading procedure and improve learners' reading efficiency, researchers abroad proposed three Models of Reading: the Bottom-up Model, the Top-down Model, and the Interactive Model, which are of prominence position in research of reading comprehension.

The Bottom-up Model (Gough, 1972) depends primarily on the information presented by the text, which assumes that a reader proceeds by reading from letters, words, phrases, clauses to sentences of the

text. In this way, reading is believed to be a decoding process, building up meanings of a text from the smallest units at the bottom (letters and words) to larger units at the top (phrases, clauses, inter-sentence linkage). In China, this kind of reading model is still widely applied by many middle school teachers irrespective of some of its obvious disadvantages, such as being too text-dependent and too simple to explain the complex process of reading.

In contrast to the Bottom-up Model, the Top-down Model (Goodman, 1967) emphasizes the reconstruction of meaning rather than the decoding of form. This model views reading as a linear process in which readers use preexisting knowledge to interpret texts. However, research findings also have highlighted a number of limitations in this approach. Compared with the Bottom-up Model, the Top-down Model seems to go to another extreme; that is, it is too text-independent.

Due to the weaknesses of the above two models, Rumelhart (1977) proposed the Interactive Model. In this model, reading is viewed as an integration of the learner's knowledge sources. This model takes into account the strong points of the Bottom-up and Top-down Models and is currently accepted as the most comprehensive description of the reading process. The current study applies this promising approach in the course of reading strategy training.

In summary, the Bottom-up Model interprets reading as a decoding process of reconstructing the author's intended meaning from the smallest units of language at the bottom level to the larger units at the top level. The Top-down Model describes reading as a process in which the text is sampled and predictions are made based on the reader's prior syntactic and semantic knowledge. The Interactive Model stresses the combination of the lower-level processing skills and higher-level comprehension and reasoning skills.

Schema Theory and Reading

Bartlett (1932) first used "schema" to refer to an active organization of past reactions, or of past experience. To read effectively, readers must make use of reading strategies and various types of schemata.

Widdowson (1983) divided schema into content schema, formal schema, linguistic schema and strategy schema. Strategy schema refers to the overall plan, skills or art used in the reading process, including questioning, predicting, making connections, skimming and scanning, varying reading speed according to different reading purposes. In this way, reading strategies do affect our reading greatly.

Carrell (1984) investigated the usefulness of the notion of schema theory for second language reading. This research found that activating content information played a major role in students' comprehension and recall of information from a text. Carrell (1984) believed that schema theory heavily relies on the background information. According to schema theory, reading comprehension is an interactive process which involves assimilation of new knowledge into existing schema and accommodation of existing schema to fit new knowledge.

In all, schema theory places greater emphasis on the importance of reader's cultural and rhetorical background knowledge. In addition, schema theory has strongly argued for both pre-reading activities and comprehension strategy training.

Strategy Instruction Models

Second language reading researchers began to focus on reading strategies in the late 1970s and early 1980s, and various researches abroad have been performed on reading strategies. Rubin (1981) claimed

that strategies are not the preserve of highly capable individuals, but could be learned by others. O'Malley, et al. (1994) also stated that the learning strategies of good language learners, once identified and successfully taught to less competent learners, could have considerable potential for enhancing the development of second language skills; that second language teachers could play an active and valuable role by teaching students how to apply learning strategies to varied language activities and how to extend the strategies to new tasks both in the language classroom and in content areas requiring language skills. With the development of strategy training, researchers have probed and tested various models for strategy training.

First, Pearson & Dole's Model (1987) included the following sequences (Cohen, 1998): first, introduction to the target strategy through examples. The teacher exposes the students to examples and discusses with them how, when, where and why the strategy is used; second, definition and explanation. The strategy is defined and its application is demonstrated with the teacher modeling; third, guided practice. The teacher and students do exercises together until the students can do independent practices; fourth, independent practices. The students do the same type of exercises independently. Pearson & Dole's model threw some light in learning strategy training, however, this model is narrowed down on one simple strategy or skill, and thus, hard to develop students' problem-solving competence in complex and authentic learning tasks.

Oxford's Model (1990) has many strong points. It is carried out step-by-step in the following procedure: first, learners are asked to immerse into an authentic language task without instructional cues; second, suggest and demonstrate other helpful strategies, mentioning the need for greater self-direction and expected benefits, and making sure that the students are aware of the rationale for strategy use; third, allow learners plenty of time to practice the new strategies with language tasks and show how the strategies can be transferred to other tasks; fourth, provide practice using the techniques with new tasks and allow learners to make choices about the strategies they will use to complete the language learning tasks; fifth, help students understand how to evaluate the success of their strategy use and to gauge their progress as more responsible and self-directed learners. On the whole, this model is flexible in terms of procedure; in other words, each step can be modified or rearranged in different orders for different needs and intentions. But the weak point of this model is that it is hard to insert into a regular classroom program.

Cohen's SBI Model (1998) is a learner-centered approach, which includes both explicit and implicit integration of strategies into the course content. Generally speaking, in a strategies-based instruction the teachers usually adopt the following sequences: first, describe, model, and give examples of potentially useful strategies; second, elicit additional examples from students based on the students' own learning experiences; third, lead small group or whole-class discussions about strategies; fourth, encourage their students to experiment with a broad range of strategies; fifth, and integrate strategies into everyday class materials, explicitly and implicitly embedding them into the language tasks to provide for contextualized strategy practice.

By comparison, Cohen's approach is the best one and has been applied to many strategy training programs. Above all, it provides more flexible possibility for teachers to embed the language strategies training into regular classroom program. Second, it is more student-centered. Due to the above-mentioned strong points, this paper is to adopt this model to carry out the strategy training.

Research Design and Methodology

Based on primary studies done by other researchers, the current study employs both qualitative and quantitative methods. Based on the previous researches, this study attempts to solve the following research question: What kind of reading strategies can be instructed or improved significantly via reading strategy training?

Subjects

The subjects participating in the study are all non-English major students from six schools of the Northeast Normal University. All of them are grade-one students, who have been studying in the Northeast Normal University for one term. Non-English major students are divided into three bands of English classes according to the scores they obtained in the entrance band division exam. The subjects involved in this study are from three different bands of English classes. Among these subjects, 93 are from band-one classes, 92 are from band-two classes and 96 of them are from band-three classes.

Research Instruments

The instruments used in this investigative study include a 60-day training experiment, one questionnaire based on SILL, and one verbal report interview. The first step of the research is carrying out this training experiment. The purpose of the training is to help the students learn to use some useful reading strategies so as to improve their reading abilities both in comprehension and in fluency. In the following weeks, one hour of the teaching lesson in each week is set aside for reading strategy training and all participants from three bands receive systematic reading strategy training in the form of embedded approach.

The experiment consults Cohen's SBI model, which includes both explicit and implicit integration of strategies into the course contents. The present study has undergone a three-phase training procedure. In the first phase, the teacher describes, models, and gives examples of potentially useful strategies to the trainees, revolving about definitions, values and how to use them in specific reading tasks. Meanwhile, the researcher hands out copies of reading strategies instructions to the subjects and asks them to practice strategy-based reading after class and elicit additional examples from students based on the students' own learning experiences, encouraging the students to experiment a broad range of strategies. In the second phase, the researcher integrates strategy instruction into the teaching curriculum of intensive textbook to make the theories into the real practice. In this way, both the contents and strategies are taught at the same time by integrating strategies into everyday class materials, explicitly and implicitly embedding them into the language tasks to provide for contextualized strategy practice. The purpose of this phase is to gradually move from guided application towards independence. In the third phase, a set of reading strategies, i.e. skimming, scanning, finding topic sentence, summarizing, inferencing and structural analyzing are selected for specific explanation and training because the training of these strategies are highly feasible. The researcher leads small-group or whole-class discussions about these strategies concerning how to use, where to use and when to use.

The next research instrument applied is a questionnaire concerning the training effectiveness. As soon as the training comes to an end, a questionnaire concerning training effectiveness is conducted in the experimental classes to assess how effective the training is and to find out what reading strategies can be taught or improved significantly via reading strategy training. The questionnaire is divided into two parts. The first part consists of questions eliciting background information about the students: their names, majors, grades and school numbers. The second part is about the students' attitudes toward the

effectiveness of this short term of reading strategy training. The students are asked to circle the multiple choices of each of the questions, namely an inquiry about the effectiveness of the instruction on skimming, scanning, finding topic sentence, summarizing, inferencing and structural analyzing reading strategies.

The last research instrument applied is an interview. Compared with other methods of data-collection, interview has its advantage of doing an in-depth information gathering. The paper chooses an interview to collect the relevant qualitative data from all subjects divided into three groups. The questions of the interview revolve around their strategy use, aiming to find primarily which strategies can be learned easily and effectively. All the interviews are conducted in Chinese so that the subjects are able to express their ideas freely and fully. An mp3 player is used to record what the interviewees respond during the interview and the recorded words are transcribed later in the form of text. Through the interview, the researcher and the students had a direct and face-to-face communication.

Data Analysis and Major Findings

After collecting the raw data, the author conducted the analysis immediately. Raw data of questionnaire are analyzed by SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Science), which is operated to conduct descriptive analysis. Based on the questions of the present research, the author made the following statistic analysis of calculating the mean score (or average score) for each component of the questionnaire and made descriptive statistics of the training effectiveness. Table 1 contains descriptive statistics of the training effectiveness in the student questionnaire. The high value means indicate that the students find the strategies in the training useful and their general attitudes toward the training are very favorable. At the same time, we may notice that the students do not have equal attitudes toward the effectiveness of the six strategies. See Table 1.

Table 1. Descriptive Statistics of the Training Effectiveness of Items in the Questionnaire

Strategies	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Skimming	3.76	.534	91
Scanning	3.54	.561	91
Finding topic sentence	4.38	.442	91
Summarizing	4.07	.411	91
Inferencing	4.24	.454	91
Structural analyzing	3.55	.632	91

The high value means indicate that students find the strategies in the training useful and their general attitudes toward the training are very favorable. At the same time, we may notice that the students do not have equal attitudes toward the effectiveness of the six strategies mentioned above. In addition, the interview results are presented in the form of transcript texts of summary words. Based on the interview data, the researcher finds nearly all the students can name the six reading strategies they were trained in. As for the effectiveness of strategy training, 85% of them thought the strategy of finding topic sentence is the most effective one and master it easily. Next is followed by inferencing, which is also believed to receive fruitful training result. However, over 75% of students found the instruction of structural analyzing strategy is not so easy to understand as well as put it into practice.

In summary, on the basis of data analysis of the questionnaire and interview, this paper concludes the following findings: both the questionnaire and interview show that not all the reading strategies develop equally and are mastered well by the trainees. Among the six reading strategies that were selected to train

to the students, finding the topic sentence ranks first in good training effectiveness. Next is followed by inferencing. The least effective training is on the instruction of structural analyzing strategy. The author has assumed that skimming and scanning should be the two strategies that receive the best training results; however, the investigative results are beyond the expectation.

Implications and Conclusion

By using both qualitative and quantitative researches, some findings about reading strategy use among non-English majors and reading strategy training on metacognitive and cognitive strategies have been obtained. The main focus of this thesis is to explore which kind of reading strategies can be taught or improved significantly via reading strategy training. Based on the findings found via the instruments a 60-day training experiment, a questionnaire and a verbal report interview, this paper first finds students' knowledge about reading strategies is surprisingly insufficient before receiving the training. Thus, they call for systematic trainings from teachers to gain the knowledge of reading strategies. Second, not all the reading strategies develop equally and are mastered well by the trainees. Among the six reading strategies trained to the students, finding topic sentence ranks the first in good training effectiveness. The least effective training is on the instruction of structural analyzing strategy.

In accordance with the analysis above, this paper tends to call for the fact that teacher's role in strategy training must be reinforced. Without appropriate instructions, they may make a lot of worthless efforts and even form the faulty reading habits. In addition, trainers should have a scientific training time arrangement for certain strategies since they are not so easy to be trained and achieve good effectiveness.

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Factors Affecting Vocabulary Acquisition for the EFL learner and the Implications for the Teaching of Vocabulary

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[Abstract] The acquisition of vocabulary is an indispensable part of successful language learning. Vocabulary is central to English language teaching because without sufficient vocabulary, students cannot understand others or express their own ideas. This paper tries to point out the key factors in the learning of vocabulary. In the meantime, it focuses on how these factors may affect the learning process and aims at providing plausible implications for the teaching of vocabulary in the language classrooms.

[Keywords] factors; vocabulary acquisition; teaching; implications

Introduction

Interest in second language vocabulary acquisition (SLVA) has grown steadily since the end of the last century. It has produced some excellent books, special issues of journals and a growing number of research articles investigating ever finer details of word learning, storing, and processing (Zahar, Cobb & Spada, 2001). Now SLVA is another large subdivision of applied linguistics producing more books and papers than anyone can keep up with, which has proved that the task of vocabulary learning is a substantial one for the EFL learner for the fact that errors of vocabulary are potentially more misleading than those of grammar.

Many EFL learners in China today are struggling in the vast ocean of English words in that they do not feel fulfilled when communicating with others in speaking or writing even though they have memorized a lot of words. “It seems what I have is not enough at all”; “Remembering words is really a torturing job. I wonder whether the teacher can show me a shortcut”, as is often heard among students.

To solve the above problems, we need to explore into the process of learners’ acquisition, learn about the lexical system of English and the factors that may affect vocabulary learning. With regard to the length of the paper, we mainly focus on the last aspect, i.e. factors affecting the acquisition of vocabulary and provide some suggestions for the language teacher. We hope it can help elaborate on some of the existing researches and point to areas for future efforts.

Factors Affecting Vocabulary Acquisition

Many factors appear to play a role in vocabulary development, though the exact nature of the role is not always clearly understood. Some factors have to do with input, for example, the teacher’s presentation, reading words in texts, learning words during peer exchange, or self-access work of some kind. Other factors have to do with storing, organizing, and building vocabulary in the mental lexicon and being able to retrieve or recall it when it is needed (Hedge, 2002).

Frequency of Occurrence

Frequency has been considered an important standard in ELT for many years as a result of word-frequency counting as a procedure to design syllabuses and materials. That is based on the simple assumption that the most frequently occurring words will turn out to be the most useful to learners. Researchers differ in their opinions about the number of encounters needed to learn a word. Saragi, Nation and Meister (1978) found that words presented to learners fewer than six times were learned by half their subjects, while words presented six or more times were learned by 93%, suggesting a threshold of six encounters. In a review paper a few years later, Nation (1982) found that a figure of 16 encounters was common in the literature. In an empirical study, Jenkins, Stein and Wysocki (1984) found that only about 25% of learners had learned a word after 10 encounters. Although researchers have not reached a consensus about how many times a word should appear for the learners to acquire it, they all agree that higher frequency of word occurrences could facilitate the process of vocabulary learning. Therefore, if learners are to be exposed to a wide range of word meanings and associations, then it will be important for them to encounter words in a variety of different situations through extensive reading and listening.

Pronunciation

For beginners in a foreign language, the teacher often insists on a fair amount of pronunciation practice of new words to make sure that they acquire the correct stress pattern of syllables. When learners' capacities increase, they are likely to pay less attention to pronunciation compared with other aspects of language. However, it has been claimed that learners use stress to select what is important as they listen to a stream of English, and they need to know what the stress patterns are in continuous speech. If learners process speech partly by recognizing syllable patterns and stress, knowledge of these stored in the mental lexicon will facilitate quick comprehension (Hedge, 2002). Therefore, when teachers and learners are dealing with new words, they need to keep this in mind and develop appropriate teaching techniques and learner strategies.

Contextualization

Here it means to present new words in a rich context of language. It was concluded by researchers (Arnaud & Savignon, 1997; Bahns & Eldaw, 1993; Cowie, 1988; Sansome, 2000) that incidental learning alone is not enough in developing a functional vocabulary in a second or foreign language. Similarly, the intentional and direct learning of vocabulary does not, and should not, rule out contextual learning. In fact, learning new words *from* context might well be only the first step that learners employ, and they should carry on, with metacognitive choice of words and treatment, to encode the new word together *with* the context where it appears (e.g., remembering the word together with the surrounding sentence). Some may even try to create a sentence using the new word and thus, put it *back into* context (Sanaoui, 1995). Just as Schouten-van Parreren (1989) mentioned that texts could present a linguistic and psychological reality, and that presenting words in the context of a text will provide support and reduce interference.

Depth of Processing

There have been many experiments done on depth of processing. The Depth of Processing model of memory maintains that how deep something is encoded into a person's memory depends on using certain types of processing. One study serves as an example of how research can yield interesting insight for teachers. Craik and Tulving (1975) did a series of experiments on the depth of processing model. They had participants use a series of processing methods to encode words at different levels: shallow,

moderate, and deep. The subjects were shown a series of words and ask questions about the words that would provide a “yes” or “no” response. At the shallow level, they were asked questions about whether or not the word was written in capital letters. At the moderate level of processing, the subject was asked questions as to whether or not two words rhymed. Finally, the subjects were asked about words in sentences and whether or not they fit. This was the deep level of processing. After participants had completed the task they were then given a surprise recognition test with the words that they were just asked questions on (target words) and then words that they have never seen before (distraction words). The results of the experiment showed that people remembered the words better that were at a deeper level of processing. There is a message for teachers that we need to introduce and use techniques for vocabulary learning that encourage learners to work with words in this way.

Cultural Factors

When learners develop their vocabulary knowledge, they acquire not only new words, but also new meanings associated with words they have already learned (Hedge, 2002). For example, people in English-speaking countries consider owls to be smart birds, which results in lovely images of those owls wearing regalia caps in books or pictures. However, Chinese people regard them as symbols of misfortune because of their shrill cries. Another example is the phenomenon of prototypes, which mean particular conceptual categories that spring most easily to mind when a learner hears the words, for example, “flower”. If the peony is the kind of flower first thought of, then it is a prototype and other flowers are non-prototypes. Of course, some concepts or objects may be more central to a particular learner because of personal experience, but for those shared widely across speakers should be a result of cultural influence. The personal or cultural experience we talk about here is known as schematic knowledge. People in different cultures may have different mental representations associated with a word and they may show different emotions and attitudes toward a referent (denotation) and apply different meanings (connotation) to it. That is what the language teacher should consider when training learners to use a word appropriately.

The Implications for the Teaching of Vocabulary

Developing a Variety of Techniques for the Teaching of Meaning

Learners in classrooms will be exposed to different kinds of input such as learning materials, the teacher’s language and the language of other learners. They are encouraged to develop their own ways to learn the language and independent learning may be the ultimate goal of teaching. However, before they reach the advanced level, the teacher still needs to explain new words frequently. It is useful to have a repertoire of techniques to fulfill this task. The teacher may use a physical demonstration, a verbal explanation, a synonym, translation, visual aids or ask learners to check in a dictionary. Some of the techniques require more processing from the learner and will aid word retention. The teacher can determine which words are useful to retain and choose relevant techniques.

Repeating and Recycling the Words

Learning vocabulary is largely about remembering, and students generally need to see, say, and write newly-learned words many times before they can be said to have learned them. As we have mentioned earlier, some researchers have suggested various numbers of encounters with a word for learning to take place, ranging from five up to twenty (Nation, 1990; Rott, 1999; Ghadirian, 2002). Some suggest that an

impressive amount of learning can take place when students learn lists of paired items (English word and translation equivalents); others suggest that this method of learning does not aid deeper understanding of the words or help develop fluency. However, most agree that repetition is an important aid to learning and that having to actively recall or “retrieve” a word is a more effective way of learning than simple exposure or just seeing a word over and over (Sökmen 1997). According to cognitive science, forgetting mostly occurs immediately after we first learn something, and then the rate of forgetting slows down afterward. So students should be exposed to what they have learned from time to time. The implications for the vocabulary classroom are self-evident: Review vocabulary as often as possible in activities that have students actively recall words and produce them rather than merely see or hear them (McCarten, 2007).

Encouraging the Development of Effective Strategies

We have known that good language learners adopt a set of strategies for vocabulary acquisition (Rubin & Thompson, 1982; Naiman, et al., 1978). It is possible to involve students in activities to develop their own strategies. For example, learners may be reminded of the context or collocations of linguistic items; they may be required to design a word network according to their preferences; they may be encouraged to keep a word notebook and write a learning journal; they may be trained to use dictionaries effectively; they may be taught how to retain a word through word formation and categorizing. More tips could be offered to help them find their “real friends” and develop learner autonomy.

Raising the Awareness of Differences between Cultures

Here I would like to specify the topic by taking English and Chinese for example. Understanding the cultural differences is an important component in teaching English vocabulary. It is certainly helpful for learners to understand and learn vocabulary if the teachers can introduce the different values or thinking of the people in another culture. Culture teaching and learning can undoubtedly enhance students’ metaphorical competence, which in turn will improve the learning of a language. Learning a word involves not only its form and denotative meaning but also its connotative meaning which represents the native speakers’ thinking and turns out to be more important to evaluate whether the word is used appropriately.

Improving Metaphorical Competence of Students

According to the cognitive science, metaphorical competence is a creative intellectual ability that improves as human cognition develops. It is a kind of developmental cognitive mapping ability to find meaning in metaphors. When one faces incompatible concepts, the cognitive competence mechanism is present to figure out an analogous relationship or produce metaphoric expressions (Zheng, 2012). It goes without saying that students with a high metaphoric competence will feel facilitated in learning vocabulary and understanding lexical meanings.

Schematic knowledge also plays an important role in understanding metaphors in the target language. The learners’ previous knowledge can help them obtain more words. They may depend on what they have already known to establish associations with the newly-met word and guess its meaning in the context. So it is necessary for the students to improve their own cultural consciousness and persist in implementing culture education throughout daily lives.

Conclusion

The acquisition of vocabulary is an indispensable part of successful language learning. Vocabulary is central to English language teaching because without sufficient vocabulary students cannot understand others or express their own ideas. Wilkins (1972) wrote that “. . . while without grammar very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed” (pp. 111-112). Lewis (1993) went further to argue, “lexis is the core or heart of language” (p. 89). Particularly as students develop greater fluency and expression in English, it is significant for them to acquire more productive vocabulary knowledge and to develop their own personal vocabulary learning strategies.

This article has considered some key factors in the learning of vocabulary. The extent to which each is significant will depend partly on the purposes for learning English, whether for reading academic texts, or for appreciating literature, or for communicating in English with other non-native speakers of the language. Since there are so many things to learn about each piece of vocabulary, it is important that we, as teachers, only start with the most frequent, useful, and learnable vocabulary, and return later to more difficult vocabulary and less frequently occurring items. We need to repeat vocabulary often, because students must work with a word or phrase many times before acquisition takes place, and we must offer variety to keep the exercises fresh and to cater to different learning styles. We need to raise students’ awareness of the differences between cultures and improve their metaphorical competence. Finally, we need to help students understand that learning is a gradual process in which they have to take continuous efforts and that they should personalize the learning experience and tailor it to their own specific needs.

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Writing Methods and Dual Tragic Effect: A Study of Children and Adolescents in Three Early Works of Gunki Monogatari

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[Abstract] *The paper intends to address the paucity of the study on the characterization of children and adolescents in early works of Gunki Monogatari. The depiction of children and adolescents, who are on the loser's side, mostly appears in the post-war stage. Their characterization is usually consistent, however, it creates a distinctive tragic effect. This is explored in the present paper through a careful analysis of respective representations of children and adolescents in three works, namely, the Tale of Hōgen, the Tale of Heiji and the Tale of the Heike. It is hence argued that the characterizations in the three works all achieve a dual tragic effect though they are done in different ways.*

[Keywords] *children; adolescents; characterization; dual tragic effect; early works of Gunki Monogatari*

Introduction

Gunki Monogatari, in the present paper, refers to war tales that focus on war conflicts prior to the Meiji Restoration, which can be divided into the early works marking the onset of war period and the late works dealing with the rest of the period. The characterization of children and adolescents is of great importance in the research on the early works of Gunki Monogatari due to its consistency in both writing methods and creation of tragic effects. However, images of children and adolescents rarely occur in the early works as they put an emphasis on the description of historical events, their causes and consequences as well as war scenes. Tales of the individual warriors are focused rather than the depiction of their children and adolescents. Research on these early works also shows the same scarcity. The occasional few papers that involve children and adolescents either focus on the “talk between women and children” (Kouji, 1989), the characterization of mothers, or discuss the source of children characters from the perspective of philology (Imai, 1984). Given the significance and paucity of studies on the characterization of children and adolescents, the present paper aims to examine the dual tragic effect in the early works of Gunki Monogatari, namely, the *Tale of Hōgen* (1992), the *Tale of Heiji* (1992) and the *Tale of the Heike* (1994) through the analysis of the words and actions of children and adolescents.

A remarkable feature in the early works of Gunki Monogatari is the focus on the pathos (あはれ) in rendering the scenes of the defeated who flee or face death. Death seems inevitable for the losers. However, the way children and adolescents behave in the face of death is different from that of adults to some extent: children are more innocent and naive; and adolescents, although childlike, show adult-like maturity and calmness. It is, therefore, of great significance to explore the purpose of depicting children and adolescents in the particular scenarios of facing death. It is argued that the characterization of children and adolescents through their words and deeds creates a dual tragic effect, which refers to a direct touching effect on the witnesses who are present at the death scenarios in the fictional world and an indirect effect on the reader/hearer of the work in the real world.

Innocence of Children and the Dual Tragic Effect

The definition of “adulthood” varies over time. In the present paper, children and adolescents (reckoned as adults in the ancient times) are determined by their age difference. In the early times, the age of eleven was a cut-off point as the coming-of-age ceremony in Japan and was generally held at the age of eleven or twelve years old (Nakamura, 1987). For example, the eleven-year-old son of Minamoto no Yoshinaka was considered an “adult” hostage by Minamoto no Yoritomo in the *Tale of the Heike*. This shows that at that time when the *Tale of the Heike* was written, 11 was a defining age between children and adulthood. In this paper, we, therefore, consider children over the age of 11 to be adolescents. In these three early works, there are a total of nine children from those warrior clans (*numbers in the brackets are indicators of their age*) (Yanagida, 1990): Tsuruwaka (8) and Tenou (7), the two youngest sons of Minamoto no Tameyoshi in the *Tale of Hōgen*; Imawaka (8), Otowaka (6) and Usiwaka (2), sons of Minamoto no Yoriyosi in the *Tale of Heiji*; and the son of Syunkan, Rokudai (8), the son of Taira no Koremori, the daughter of Taira no Koremori (6) and Empiro of Antoku (6) in the *Tale of the Heike*. There are altogether four adolescents: Kamewaka (11) and Otowaka (13), the two elder sons of Minamoto Tameyoshi; Minamoto no Yoritomo (14); and Rokudai (12).

Generally speaking, there is not much depiction of children in the three works to be studied. Children occur and soon fade out. So depiction of them is usually very short. The scenarios that they are involved in are also identical – facing execution or death. These children, though brought up in the warrior clans, are still innocent and naïve, depending on their parents to deal with difficult times. They are sentimental and their thoughts are easily voiced out through their facial expressions, words or deeds. Evidence can be seen in two comparatively long and complete depictions in two chapters in the *Tale of Hōgen* and the *Tale of Heiji*. A comparison of the two excerpts shows that children behave in similar ways although their actions and wording vary to some degree. Similarly, a dual tragic effect has been achieved in both works.

Let’s first look at the characterization of children in the *Tale of Hōgen*. Minamoto no Yosimoto who supports Emperor Go-Shirakawa defeats his father Minamoto no Tameyoshi who is on the other side of the cloistered Emperor Sutoku. Subject to the orders of Emperor Go-Shirakawa, Yoshitomo kills his father and brothers who are defeated in the war. Then he sends his confidant Hatano Jirou Yosimitu to kill his four younger brothers. The chapter studied here centers on how Yoshitomo’s younger brothers are cheated by Yosimitu to the execution cite and killed.

The tragic scene of their deaths is successfully depicted from three perspectives, namely, those of the subjects (children and adolescents), people who are present and the narrator (語り手). First, the reaction of two children (seven-year-old Tenou and eight-year-old Tsuruwaka) in the face of death is analyzed, while that of two elder brothers (11-year-old Kamewaka and 13-year-old Otowaka) will be elaborated in the following section concerning the characterization of adolescents. Tenou and Tsuruwaka first feel happy as they are told to meet their father whom they have not seen for a long time. They rush to board the chair sedan and urge the bearers. However, when they learn that their father was killed by their elder brother Yoshitomo, they become scared and start weeping. They even burst into tears and beg Yosimitu to spare their lives when they learn that they will be beheaded too. The description grasps the typical reaction of children due to their innocence and immaturity. It also creates a tragic effect in that children, though do nothing wrong, are killed as long as they are on the loser side.

Second, witnesses including Yosimitu, his followers, and nannies are all moved to tears by the words and deeds of the sons of their former lord on several occasions. The thought of executing the sons and their father Minamoto no Tameyoshi at the same site brings Yosimitu to tears for the first time. Later, he

has tears in eyes when he has to tell the truth at the request of the youngest child. His tears wet his sleeves when the other three kids become brave facing death under the teachings of the eldest Otowaka about the warrior ethic – martyrdom. The rest of the audience, samurais and nannies are all moved to tears by the children. Nannies and servants of the children break down over the dead bodies of their young masters and end up committing suicide.

Finally, the continuous use of “tragic (無懺)”, “pitiable (墓ナシ)”, and “sad (哀)” mirrors the narrator’s sympathy over the words and deeds of the four excited young sons who are unaware of their miserable fate. The use of respected particle “ノ” in addressing the four young masters shows the narrator’s intention to distinguish them from the rest of the samurais. Later, the narrator laments over their deaths “sons of warrior clans are valiant though they are young”.

To sum up, the vivid description of childish behavior creates a typical image of the children. Their words and deeds move the people present to tears and also arouse the compassion of the narrator. Meanwhile, the reader/hearer of this story may also feel touched, hence creating a dual tragic effect, both within the work and outside of it.

Similarly, in the *Tale of Heiji*, depiction of children in the face of death also works out a dual tragic effect. The chapter entitled “Event at Rokuhara” is about Minamoto no Yoriyosi’s concubine Tokiwa and their three children, eight-year-old Imawaka, six-year-old Otowaka and two-year-old Usiwaka.

There are two scenes in this chapter. One is about their night escape when Tokiwa hears about Minamoto no Yoriyosi being defeated and assassinated. It is a snowy night in February when Tokiwa urges Imawaka and Otowaka to walk on their bleeding feet. The two boys almost cry their eyes out. However, Imawaka’s sorrows give way to happiness when he is told that he will die with his mother and meet his father in the underworld. The fact that they are moody and unable to hold back their feelings suggests that they are still young kids. The other is about their stay at Rokuhara in order to rescue Tokiwa’s mother who has been held hostage by the winning leader Taira no Kiyomori. At the court, when his mother is sobbing out her words, Otowaka, though very young, tries to calm down his mother and helps her to speak clearly. His words and deeds touch all people including Kiyomori who finally spares their lives.

Children’s moves in this chapter can be summarized in this way: crying—being happy—pleading—being saved. Similarly, Tenou and Tsuruwaka in the *Tale of Hōgen* have gone through stages like: being happy—crying—pleading—being killed. Although they go through the first three stages in a different order and end up differently, children show similarities in their characters (e.g. changeable emotions) and their ways to deal with sudden surge of misfortunes (e.g. crying and pleading).

The other similarity in the writing methods of the two tales lies in their identical use of the reaction of people who are present to the deeds of these children. In the *Tale of Heiji*, passengers who feel sorry for the crying Imawaka and Otowaka see them off along the road. Kiyomori was so touched by Otowaka’s attempt to calm down his mother that he spares their lives. The reader/hearer may feel the same way. In this way, the dual tragic effect has been achieved by touching both the people involved and the reader/hearer of the tales.

By contrast, the *Tale of the Heike* lacks in a complete chapter centering on children. The only typical act of children is to plead for companionship. The description of the child is done by a servant Ariou who comes to an isolated island called Kikai where his master Syunkan is kept in exile. In Ariou’s account, the son of Syunkan longs for his father and begs Ariou to take him along to Kikai. His negligence of the danger for the search of his father is out of his innocence and his pleading to see his father in a faraway

land moves others to tears. Later, he dies of pandemics and his death, plus his previous acts, adds to the tragic effect of the work.

Asking to be a companion for someone, regardless of dangers or emergencies, seems to be typical of every child in the three works. In the *Tale of the Heike*, Rokudai and his sister ask his father to take them along when the latter faces death as forces of Minamoto no Yoshinaka are surging in the capital. Later, Rokudai is captured and he tells his mother he is ready to meet his father. His younger sister is naïve, and therefore asks Rokudai to take her along. Another example is in the *Tale of Hōgen*, after he is defeated and killed, Minamoto no Tameyoshi's three younger sons, unaware of their father's death, beg to be their mother's company to the temple and pray for their father. In short, the children's innocence and longing for companionship intensifies the pathetic effect in these works and makes the reader/hearer feel more sympathetic with the tragic ending of these children.

As can be seen from the analysis above, all three war tales have deployed the depiction of innocent children who face parting with parents and death. The *Tale of Hōgen* and the *Tale of Heiji* both give a full account of children's responses that can be categorized as follows: being happy—crying—pleading—being rescued or being killed. In addition, as they do not play an important role in the *Tale of the Heike*, children just show one typical act of pleading. However, this also intensifies the sharp contrast between innocence of children and cruelty of their death. All these methods and descriptions have helped to achieve a dual tragic effect on both people involved in the scenario but also the reader/hearer of the works.

Mature Adolescents and the Dual Tragic Effect

The age difference distinguishes adolescents from children in these war tales. Adolescents appear mature and sophisticated, yet they are still childlike to some degree. For example, in the *Tale of Heiji*, Hyōue no Suke, 14 years old, often cries over the thought of others' benevolence to him. Otowaka in the *Tale of Hōgen*, at the age of thirteen, bursts into tears when he is told to meet his long-lost father and he does the same when he is to be executed, which shows his emotional susceptibility, typical of children. However, retaining attributes of children, these adolescents show more of their maturity and endurance beyond their age: they care about their mothers' feelings, value reputation and keep a stiff upper lip facing hardship, and remain valiant in the face of death.

A very typical example is 12-year-old Rokudai in the *Tale of the Heike*. Rokudai's father is defeated in the battle of Dannoura and Rokudai flees to the Barry of Syoubu with his mother and sister. Finally, they get arrested by Houjyou Tokimasa. Depiction of Rokudai besieged and imprisoned is done in a similar way as that of the children, from three perspectives of Rokudai, witnesses and the narrator. The same dual tragic effect has therefore been achieved.

First, Rokudai acts like a mature adult when he is under arrest and imprisoned. He takes his mother's feelings into consideration. He is determined to die but he does his best to hide it from his mother. When he finds they are besieged by the samurais, Rokudai persuades his mother to hand him over and he comforts his mother by promising to come back soon. During imprisonment, he writes a letter to console his mother and lies about his situation. When he is being executed, he asks his followers not to tell the truth. Instead, they should lie to his mother that he is deported to Kamakura. Meanwhile, Rokudai is realistic. He values reputation and is determined to die gracefully like his father. Although he secretly sheds tears over his longing for his mother, Rokudai remain proud and valiant before his enemies.

Second, the samurais who watch over Rokudai in prison are all in sympathy with him. Even Tokimasa, who arrests him, takes pity on him. His nanny's loud cries and begging, Bunkaku's hard efforts to rescue him as well as the loyalty of his followers make Rokudai's execution sound more tragic.

Finally, the repetition of "piteous (いとほし)" and use of two "sad (哀れ)" shows the narrator's sympathy with Rokudai. In addition, the use of two "mature (おとなし、おとなしやか)" accentuates Rokudai's maturity.

Rokudai's deeds can be outlined as follows:

consideration for his mother — determination to sacrifice himself — being proud and valiant when facing death — consideration for his mother

Rokudai, though still young, has shown unusual maturity that goes beyond his age in the face of death. He is childlike as he is playing with his puppy regardless of the danger of being spotted by his enemies. However, he acts like an adult when is imprisoned. This sharp contrast makes the reader/hearer more sympathetic with his misfortunes and therefore intensifies the tragic effect. In addition, tears of the enemies who take pity on him, plus those of his mother, nanny and followers all add to this effect. The narration helps enhance the dual effect too.

Similarly, in the *Tale of Hōgen*, Kamewaka and Otowaka also appear more mature than their younger brothers. One case in point is in their different reactions when they are told to be executed at the site. Different from the loudly crying younger brothers, 11-year-old Kamewaka weeps silently in his sedan. The more mature 13-year-old Otowaka first explains to his younger bothers about their current situation and then persuades them to die gracefully as they are offspring of warrior clans. Seeing his younger brothers beheaded, Otowaka shows no fear. Before he dies, he cuts out their hair and makes it a souvenir for their mother. His consideration for their mother is so touching and indicative of his maturity.

Otowaka's deeds can be outlined as follows:

determination to sacrifice himself — explanation of the current situation — persuasion — being proud and valiant when facing death — consideration for his mother

It is true that Otowaka is more mature, compared with his younger brothers; however, he is still innocent and childlike. He does not suspect Yosimitu's intention to take them to see their father and he is excited about the news like his juniors. He also bursts into tears on hearing of their father's death and their fate. His maturity is shown in his holding back tears and persuading his younger brothers to accept their fate. Otowaka's deeds arouse sympathy. Besides, the depiction of the deeds of people who are present as well as the narration helps accentuate the misfortunes. In this way, a dual tragic effect has been achieved both within and outside the work. Here we will not elaborate on the dual effect as it has been covered in the previous section.

Another example is Yoritomo in the *Tale of Heiji*, who is captured alive. He does not act like a child who cries and pleads for help. On the contrary, he swims naked in the cold lake and sets up a sotoba in memory of his father at the center of the lake, praying for his father's happiness in the heaven. He also gracefully thanks his savior, Ikenozenni, stepmother of Taira no Kiyomori.

To sum up, these adolescents all show their maturity beyond their age, largely represented in their mature words and deeds, as well as their consideration for their parents. Besides, Rokudai and Otowaka stick to the warrior ethic, i.e. being valiant in the face of death. In terms of the writing methods, characterization of adolescents in the *Tale of the Heike* and *the Tale of Hōgen* is done in similar ways, i.e. from three perspectives of main characters, witnesses and the narrator. So the same dual tragic effect is

apparent in both works. Although there is also a tragic effect in the characterization of Yoritomo in the *Tale of Heiji*, the dual effect on the reader/hearer seems missing.

Writing Methods in Gunki Monogatari

The general narrative structure in the early works of Gunki Monogatari usually consists of three parts, description of the causes of the war, the battles themselves, and the war's aftermath. The initial presence of children and adolescents is usually in the third part and they are all on the loser's side. This is why they are confronted with parting and death. An overview of the three works studied in the present paper has shown a common sympathy with these losers. It is true to some extent that the authors deliberately put children and adolescents in the third part to arouse more sympathy from the reader/hearer and the characterization of these innocent subjects is skillfully done in similar ways, that is, creating a dual tragic effect through depictions from three perspectives, namely, subjects (children and adolescents), witnesses (people who are present) and the reader/hearer of the tales.

The *Tale of Hōgen* and the *Tale of Heiji* has given a comparatively full account of the portrayal for children and adolescents, whereas the *Tale of the Heike* has just presented an all-round image of adolescents. Nevertheless, they adopt a similar way of characterization to create a dual effect, which might have been influenced by the writing approach in the *Gikeiki* and the *Tale of Soga*, which puts an emphasis on the childhood account of the main characters. Further studies on this influence could provide more insight into this issue; however, that's beyond the scope of this paper.

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Analysis of Teacher Talk in College English Classes within the Framework of Relevance Theory

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[Abstract] The present thesis concentrates on the teacher-student interaction in the form of questions and answers in College English classes, which is examined in the light of Relevance Theory proposed by Sperber and Wilson. It elaborates on the analysis and discussion of teacher talk in College English classes within the framework of Relevance Theory. It penetrates the nature of teacher-student interaction, seeking optimal relevance between teacher and the students, and ostensive-inferential communication between teacher and the students. Moreover, the implications deduced from this research can serve as more constructive guidance to future teaching in College English classes.

[Keywords] teacher talk; college English classes; teacher-student interaction; relevance theory

Introduction

Background of the Research

In the process of College English language teaching, communicative methods of teaching are adopted in the College English Classroom with the aim of improving students' ability of performing English. In the study of communicative language teaching, analyses of teacher talk in College English classroom typically center on the features that make or fail to make such talk communicative. Communicative classes are generally expected with the evident communication process between teacher and students. As for teacher talk, we consider it in two aspects: the questions that teachers ask their students, and their response to students' answers. By recording and observing other teachers' English language classrooms, I observe and notice that students have great difficulty in answering teacher's questions, whether on a voluntary basis or a nominated basis. The students' failure of understanding teacher talk hinders successful teacher-student classroom interaction. In order to create successful classroom interaction between teacher and students, the great objective of this thesis is to analyze teacher talk in college English classrooms from the perspective of Relevance Theory, and obtain a theoretical basis for successful teacher talk in language classroom interaction. Another purpose is to propose some implications for successful teacher talk, which can help teachers initiate more effective and relevant questions and facilitate teacher-student interaction in College English classrooms. The research of teacher talk in College English classroom within the framework of Relevance Theory is intended to broaden the practical applications of Relevance Theory and accumulate some valuable implications for English teachers to perfect teacher-student classroom interaction. The research is significantly valued in theory and practice.

Defining of Teacher Talk

Teacher talk, a special social language register, is characterized with its own particular forms and interactive functions. Teachers' questions play a very important role in language teaching, which has always been one of the focuses of foreign language teaching and learning research for many years. Teacher's questions also allow them to maintain the control over the classroom discourse (Ellis, 1994, p. 587) and push language learners to join in the classroom communication and to adapt their speech to be

more comprehensible. Numerous types of questions are classified from different points of view, but we only introduce two types: initiating with the closed questions, to which normally language learners know the answers, and highly complex referential questions/open questions, to which the teacher does not know the answers, often the following responses lead to judgment or a statement of values (Brown, 2001). In order to explore more about teacher talk in language teaching and learning classrooms, this paper is set up within the framework of relevance theory proposed by Sperber & Wilson.

Key Notions and Principles of Relevance Theory

Sperber & Wilson (2003) put forward the notion of relevance and two principles of relevance are: cognitive principle and communicative principle of Relevance Theory serving as the foundation for Relevance Theory. Relevance is defined in terms of contextual effect and processing effort, as follows: the greater the contextual effects, the greater the relevance; the smaller the processing effort, the greater the relevance. The key notions also include: Ostensive-inferential communication, cognitive environment and mutual manifestness. In a mutual cognitive environment, every manifest assumption is what we will call mutual manifest. Sperber & Wilson consider human communication as a matter of enlarging mutual cognitive environments to lubricate the communication. In order to obtain successful communication, interlocutors try to make a set of assumptions mutually manifest to facilitate their communication. These assumptions are made up of a specific context that can give a cue for the hearer to catch the speaker's intended meaning. In addition, the assumptions and principles are true of interactional communication in language teaching and learning classrooms; it is also true of teacher talk from the perspective of interaction between teacher and the students.

Methodology

Subject Selection

In this research, thirty English teachers in a university in Changchun were chosen. They were teaching English to freshmen, sophomores, junior/senior students and the postgraduate students respectively. The undergraduate students in the College English classes participated in a placement test shortly after they enrolled in the university. According to their scores in the placement test, they were arranged in different English level classes: level-one, level-two, and level-three classes when they were first-year college students. Each class was made up of 45 students or with a maximum of 50 students. Thus, the English proficiency and cognitive ability were roughly on the same level in the different-level English classes. The teachers, whose ages ranged from 27 to 50, taught different types of English courses: some taught required English courses to freshman students or sophomores, some taught advanced English courses as optional courses to junior or senior students, some taught intensive multidimensional English courses to the postgraduate students, and others taught general linguistics and American literature as general education courses to the undergraduates. Among thirty English teachers, there were eight male teachers and twenty-two female teachers. In short, teachers with different ages, gender and different class-type were chosen in order to gain natural various teacher-student interactions in the College English classes.

Data Collection

After the thirty subjects were selected, teacher-student interaction in their English classes was respectively recorded. Recording was allowed under the teacher's readiness because they were informed that it was carried out only for academic research. In the process of recording, it was not necessary to record teacher talk from the beginning to the end in each class, which occupied 90 minutes, but we chose

to record typical teacher-student interaction. We followed a criterion in recording: if the teacher initiated display questions or open questions, which generally predicted that a typical teacher-student interaction in College English classes would take place, the recording was spontaneously conducted, plus the investigator's observation and note-taking aimed to make up the missing questions or answers so that a complete teacher-student interaction was gained in the College English classes. Thus, it was beneficial for precisely analyzing teacher talk in this research.

Research Questions

In this thesis, the theory of relevance is adopted to analyze teacher talk in College English classes. Based on the above data collected, this thesis aims to answer the following questions within the framework of Relevance Theory: what is the nature of teacher-student interaction in College English classes on earth? What factors influence successful teacher-student interactions in College English classes? How is it possible for a teacher to talk in a more comprehensible way in College English classes? How does a teacher ask effective questions and facilitate teacher-student interaction in College English classes? And finally, what pedagogical implications can be offered to promote the future successful teacher talk in College English classes?

Analysis and Discussion

The Nature of Teacher-Student Interaction in College English Classes

In College English teaching and learning, the classroom interaction generally comes from teacher's questions and students' answers, which is called teacher-student interactions or teacher-student communication in college English classrooms. Teacher-student interaction is not only a simply physical activity, but also a complicated activity of psychology. Therefore, great importance is attached to a deep reconsideration of the nature of teacher-student interactions. Profound necessity is geared to detect how the kind of psychological activity between teacher and the students works. Actually, the process of teacher-student interaction in College English classrooms is viewed as a process of seeking optimal relevance and an ostensive-inferential communication.

Seeking the Optimal Relevance between Teacher and Students

With the foundation of the cognitive principle and communicative principle of Relevance Theory introduced in the previous chapter, Sperber & Wilson (2003) hold that human beings do have an automatic tendency to maximize relevance because of the way our cognitive systems have evolved. The human system is developed as follows: human perceptual mechanisms tend to automatically pick out potential relevant stimuli; human memory retrieval mechanisms tend to automatically activate potential relevant assumptions; and human inferential mechanisms tend to spontaneously process them in the most productive way. They also believe that human's major purpose in communication is to seek out an interpretation that meets the expectation of optimal relevance. Also, when the new and given information is processed in interaction, two terms, contextual effect and processing effort, are taken into consideration. In college English teaching and learning classes, the teacher predominantly organizes the class communication in the form of teacher's questions and students' answers. Each teacher is eager to understand the students properly and get them to reflect their appropriate answers in the classroom interaction, in which they aim to guide students to search out optimal relevance. The moment the students achieve the optimal relevance by connecting the presented information and the current contextual assumptions, the successful implied meaning begins.

Ostensive-Inferential Communication Between Teacher and Students

Sperber & Wilson (2003) claim that communicators expect to express two intentions through ostensive behaviors: informative intention and communicative intention. Informative intention is to present the content for communication, which makes manifest or more manifest to the audience a set of assumptions; communicative intention is to make it mutually manifest to the audience and communicator that the communicator has this informative intention. Concerning teacher-student interaction in College English classes, from the teacher's point of view, the process of initiating questions is a typical ostensive process in which the teacher intends to deliver the relevant information; whereas from the students' points of view, the process of comprehending the questions is an inferential process in which they spontaneously process the relevant information. In teacher-student interactions, teacher's behavior of questioning to students is an actually ostensive behavior, which includes the appropriateness of relevance. In short, the effort of the hearer in comprehension is to seek for the optimal relevant prerequisite from his cognitive setting, and precisely to construct a context for the likeliest inference.

Elements that Influence Successful Teacher-Student Interaction from the Perspective of Cognition

In College English teaching classrooms, as Relevance Theory (Sperber & Wilson, 2003) claims, communication is a psychologically cognitive activity. Interpretation of the cognitive activity is a process of making clear the cognitive environment of teacher and the students. Successful interaction between them is determined if their cognitive environment is manifested and mutually manifested to each other. Relevance Theory also points out that relevance in interaction is obtained by its contextual effects through processing effort, that the content of the interactional communication is generally information-relevant, situation-relevant and topic-relevant, thus the successful interaction is achieved. Therefore, mutual manifestness of cognitive environments, contextual effect, processing effort, and optimal relevance will dominantly affect the satisfying teacher-student interaction.

Mutual Manifestness of Cognitive Environments: The Foundation of Teacher-Student Interaction

Generally speaking, people's cognitive schema is sharply different from each other. In communication in College English classes, the students' perception from the same information may vary greatly from one to another in accuracy. Such elements as their status in communication, their perceptual and cognitive abilities, their abilities of understanding and inferring, and their accumulation of knowledge and memories are employed in processing communicative information to facilitate comprehension in communication. In the College English teaching classes, the relevance of communicative interaction in the form of question-answer is also rested on the mutual manifestness between teacher and the students. Processing their old given information and new information produced by the teacher, they make their ideas and cognitive environments widened and intersected with the teacher's, thus the mutual manifestness is achieved naturally and finally the student contributes the answer in accordance with the teacher's. It plays a tone-making role in developing lead-in communication as well as a content-blending role in comprehending the whole passage.

Contextual Effect, Processing Effort, Relevance and Successful Teacher-Student Interaction

Contextual effects are contextual implications, which result from a crucial interaction between new and old information as premises in a synthetic implication. Once the newly involved information interacts with the previous contextual assumptions, the newer contextual effect will be further produced. In teacher-student classroom interaction, not until the teacher's talk achieves adequate contextual effects is it considered successful. In short, in College English class teacher-student interaction is definitely a process

of seeking optimal relevance. In order to achieve the successful communication and accomplish their communicative objective, the teacher and the students have to go through a process of constant inference, confirmation, modification and ultimate establishment for the sake of expectation of communication. More importantly, it is the teachers who take the ultimate responsibility for guiding the students towards searching for optimal relevance.

Pedagogical Implications for Successful Teacher Talk

From the perspective of Relevance Theory, great attention is paid to the teacher talk in teacher-student classroom interaction because the teacher is believed to actively play a decisive role in achieving successful classroom interaction. According to the analysis in this research, we can naturally claim that question-answer exchanges are filled with whole classroom interaction. In this process, teachers' questions and teachers' strategies to students' errors play a dominant role in facilitating ideal classroom communication. In this section, some pedagogical implications of teacher talk are generated in terms of teacher's questions and teacher's guidance to the student's wrong inference.

Improving the Teacher's Questions: Generating Relevant Questions, Offering Ostensive Questions

In College English classes, one principle is put into the minds of the teacher: optimal teacher talk should not be perplexingly grammar-orientated, but easily message-orientated in teacher-student interaction. With regard to those grammatical items, the teacher can elaborate on them exclusively apart from teacher-student communicative interaction. With the strong accounts of Relevance Theory for the ostensive-inferential nature of teacher-student classroom interaction, teacher's questioning is believed to be an ostensive attempt to deliver his informative intention. For the students, it is a referential process, in which contextual effects are gained. Actually, in teacher-student interaction in College English classes, teachers perform motivation of ostension, which stimulate new knowledge or assumptions manifest to the students. As a result, the adequate contextual effects are produced and inference is achieved by the students in the end.

Using Questions that Can Help Achieve Mutual Manifestness; Applying Questions that Can Help Students Seek Out Optimal Relevance

In College English teaching classes, one approach is abundantly adopted to carry out an interaction between teacher and the students – asking successive questions related to the theme with the purpose of aiming to widen the students' cognitive environment. Among teacher's questions to a complete part of a larger communication, apparently, referential questions are more carried out than a few closed questions. Applying the reasonable combination of referential questions and close questions in College English teaching classes, to our delight, we can achieve a satisfactory teacher-student communicative interaction. Teacher-student interaction is also taken into account as a process of seeking out optimal relevance between teacher and the students or constructing adequate contextual effects with the smallest possible processing effort. In College English teaching classes, in order to meet the requirements of relevance in the communication of the two sides teacher's question is expected to offer such new information as strengthening, contradicting, and eliminating students' current level of knowledge so that contextual effects as larger as possible are realized.

Employing Appropriate Correction and Evaluation on the Student's Response

In the process of learning language, students inevitably make some errors because of their comparatively limited capacity of acquiring information, their intuition, their cognitive ability and their own background.

It is encouraged for the students to perceive their errors by themselves. Definitely, it is the teacher talk in College English classes that can effectively melt this iceberg. In the process of teacher-student interaction, the teachers supply more relevant information to the students, which constantly changes and extends their cognitive environment. Finally, the students construct more contextual effects with less processing efforts. In teacher-student interaction in College English classes, the teachers not only are expected to initiate the relevant questions, but they're encouraged to guide the students to produce the relevant responses, and to deduce the teacher's genuine intention in the end.

Conclusion

In China, most College students learn English from their teachers in formal English classes. In the formal English classes College students are provided the opportunities to learn English. In the formal English classes, everything takes place through a process of face-to-face interaction, which derives from teacher's questioning and students' answers. Evidently, learning English in the formal English classes is believed to be essentially important in English teaching and learning. More importantly, in the process of learning English in formal English classes, teacher talk plays a significantly vital role in facilitating the students' language acquisition.

In this research, teacher talk in College English classes is analyzed from the perspective of Relevance Theory proposed by Sperber & Wilson with the purpose of detecting some positive implications for the future successful teaching. The thesis has analyzed teacher talk in College English classes from the cognitive pragmatics view and communicative view, in which Relevance Theory supplies a very persuasive theoretical foundation for analyzing teacher talk. Based on the analysis above, this thesis makes clear what makes teacher talk successful, what questions to employ, how to apply effective questions and how to achieve satisfactory teacher-student interaction.

Although several researchers have already adopted Relevance Theory as a theoretical framework to conduct their studies of teacher talk, few of them take the interaction between teacher-student in College English classes as the research subjects and materials. As for the practical application of Relevance Theory to teacher talk in teacher-student interaction in College English classes in form of question-answer, there is still left great room to study. In spite of great efforts made to safeguard the present study tenable, there still remain some deficiencies. Since the research subjects are all chosen from one university, they can hardly be a representation of all teachers in universities. Moreover, the research only focuses on some typical language examples transcribed from 30 teacher talks recorded in advance. To sum up, there is still much more work that needs to be accomplished before we can have an extremely satisfactory and comprehensive cognitive-pragmatic account of teacher talk deposited in teacher-student interaction in College English classes. More cognitive theories and empirical studies are strongly called for to further progress researches on teacher talk melted in teacher-student interaction in College English classes because Relevance Theory is neither rule-based nor maxim-based.

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Investigating Business English Majors' Pragmatic Failure: From Speech Acts in Business Context Perspective

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[Abstract] *The investigation examines the pragmatic failure of speech acts made by business English majors in business context. The results of the investigation are (1) pragmatic failure committed in business context is much more than that in daily context; (2) the distinction of pragmatic failure from speech acts is obvious. Then the causes of such pragmatic failure are presented. Finally, suggestions for class teaching are provided.*

[Keywords] *pragmatic failure; speech act; business context; daily context; business English Major*

Introduction

Pragmatic failure is an important element in observing language users' ability in communication. Thomas first proposed the term "pragmatic failure", and defined it as "the inability to understand what is meant by what is said" (Thomas, 1983, p. 91). The Chinese scholar He (2001) believes pragmatic failure can make communication imperfect in verbal communication. Thomas (1983) also believed the causes of committing pragmatic failure to be violating the language rule of speaking, overusing complete structure of the target language, inappropriate speech acts, impolite or over-polite expressions, and violation of communicative principles in a given context or with a specific participant.

Speech acts are units of dialogue that provide both meaning and reality. Searle (1970) defined a speech act as language that both describes and is the action. By using different types of speech acts, a speaker begins to not only operate within the world, but also interact with the world around him or her. Speech act analyses have taken many forms: assertives, directives, commissives, expressive, effective, verdictive, and quotations (Searle, 1970; Clark, 1996; Baron, et al. 2005; Nastri, et al. 2006). Some essays studied a certain speech act in a non-business context (Demeter, 2007; Tajeddin, et al. 2012; Zhu, 2012). This investigation will discuss some forms of speech acts that are usually performed in dialogue such as addressing, thanks and responds, greeting, parting, telephone answering, acceptance, request, response, asking for explanation, showing concern, opening conversation, guiding, and asking for permission.

Now, with the development of the world economy, many professionals with rich business knowledge and effective communicative skills with foreign business people are largely needed. So it is very important to firmly cultivate business English majors' business communicative competence and help them to avoid miscommunication in business context. These two elements are the triggers of this investigation.

This investigation uses a questionnaire which covers the many different forms of speech acts mentioned above to explore pragmatic failure made by business English majors in the business context, because empirical studies on speech acts play a vital role by serving as a means to define to what pragmatic failure actually refers (Yu, 2005). The authors discover the salient features through analyzing

the failures, and then further explore the causes and suggestions for teaching so as to keep business English majors out of such pragmatic failure.

Method of the Investigation

Subjects

The investigation involves 50 business English majors who took the questionnaire; 10 business English majors were selected randomly from the 50 students and 5 English teachers were also selected for the interview. The average age of the 50 student testees was 18.5 from Grades 4 at Zhanjiang Normal College. The teachers (4 ladies and 1 gentleman) came from the Business English Department at the college. They graduated as English major postgraduates aged 30-50 with more than three years' English teaching experience at the college level.

Instruments

Both quantitative and qualitative methods were used in the investigation. A questionnaire of speech acts covering 30 multiple-choice items was developed, and each item was worth 1 point, with a full score being 30 points. Among the items, 5 items were designed to be only used in a business context, and the other 25 items could be used in both daily context and business context^①. Many of the items were from the book *The Analysis of English Communicative Failure from Chinese Students* written by Tang in 1995, and some were from monographs.

Procedures

The test of the questionnaire was done at the end the first term of the fourth academic year when students basically had finished all of the professional courses, because the second part of their semester included an internship and seeking jobs. After calculating the scores of all the testees, the investigator put the scores into the computer and analyzed them using the SPSS13.0. After the results of the questionnaire were analyzed, interviews of students and teachers were taken in Chinese and collected by recording and note-taking. The data were collected and analyzed from aspects of different speech acts of verbal communication.

Findings of the Investigation

After data collection, the investigator compared and analyzed the data from 3 aspects: Rates of failure of business context and daily context, listed in Table 1, and the rates of failure of speech acts, listed in Table 2. Two findings are observed.

^① Daily context and business context here mean that the 25 expressions in the questionnaire can be used in not only business context, but also everyday context. For ease of discussion, the 25 items are grouped into the same category – daily context in the following data analysis.

Finding 1. Pragmatic Failure from Business Context is Greater than that from Daily Context.

Table 1. Rates of Failure from Business and Daily Contexts

Contexts	Rate of Failure (%)
Business context	43.75
Daily context	29.02

Table 1 shows the statistics of failure of the 50 testees when dealing with the expressions in a business context and in a daily context. The rate of failure of expressions in a business context (43.75%) is higher than that in a daily context (29.02%). The figures obviously can be interpreted that all of the students have higher abilities to communicate in daily context than in business context.

Finding 2. The Distinction of Pragmatic Failure from Speech Acts is Rather Obvious.

Table 2. Rates of Failure of Speech Acts

Speech Acts	Rates of Failure (%)	Speech Acts	Rates of Failure (%)
Asking for explanation	58	Greeting	12
Addressing	54	Acceptance	12
Response	38	Guiding	8
Thanks and responds	33.4	Opening conversation	6
Asking for permission	32	Telephone answering	2
Request	16	Parting	2
Showing concern	13.4		
Mean		22.07	

In Table 2, the features are presented as follows: (1) The mean of the failure is 22.07%; it is low. (2) The percentage distinction of speech acts is very sharp. The rates of 2 speech acts were higher than 50%; the rates of 6 speech acts were between 10% and 40%; and the rates of 4 speech acts were lower than 10%. (3) The rate of pragmatic failure of speech acts solely used in a business context is much higher than that in a daily context. The rates of failure from speech acts of “asking for explanation” (58%) and “addressing” (54%) only used in business contexts were much higher than others. The lowest is “parting” (2%) and “telephone answering” (2%), and these two speech acts can be used in both business and daily contexts.

Analyses of the Causes of the Pragmatic Failure

Pragmatic failure committed by business English majors is very obvious, as reflected in Tables 1 and 2. Next, the investigator needs to analyze the salient failures from the results of the questionnaire and find out their causes, along with the results of the interviews.

Unfamiliarity with Pragmatic Principles

Pragmatic principles can guide language users in using language appropriately in communication. Some scholars claim that speech acts operate by universal principles of pragmatics (Austin, 1975; Searle, 1979), such as principles of cooperation (Grice, 1975) or of politeness (Brown & Levinson, 1987; Leech, 1983). Effective communicative interaction between speakers and addressees is governed through those

principles. But our investigation (Table 1 and Table 2) has shown that the pragmatic principles are not grasped well enough by business English majors.

English speakers often make requests by means of an indirect speech act showing their politeness. “Could you ...?” or “Can you ...?” are used frequently in English requests. But Chinese learners often fail to identify the illocutionary force in direct speech acts showing politeness and regard it as a question. About the item, “*Can you lift my luggage?*” in the questionnaire is a request. The speaker hopes to be helped. The best response is “*Yes.*” Many testees considered it as a question and ignored the speaker’s politeness here. Thirty testees chose “*Yes, I can lift your luggage.*”. This choice is appropriate grammatically, but inappropriate pragmatically, because native speakers may believe the second part of the answer reflects speakers’ impatience, while Chinese people use whole sentence as a response to show respect. Just because of this, the answer to the question violates the Quantity Maxim of the CP.

To some extent, unnecessary over-politeness will arouse English native communicators’ antipathy. Eight student interviewees stated they did not know much about the pragmatic principles and did not realize the principle used in the question when making their choices. All five teachers thought pragmatic principles related to business should be taught to students in class. Two teachers admitted that they seldom taught the principles in class, because the principles are too abstract, and also textbooks cover few. The lack of teaching pragmatic principles may be a barrier for students to use appropriate English in business context.

Lack of Business Knowledge

Business knowledge is one of the bases for businessmen to work well or cooperate with others smoothly, and also it should also be grasped by business English students. In the investigation, the lack of business knowledge was observed, as in the following.

You have something to tell the manager, Mr. Smith, so you go to his place, entering the room and say:

- a) “*You’re not busy, I hope.*”
- b) “*I’m terribly sorry to trouble you, Mr. Smith.*”
- c) “*Can I have a word with you, Mr. Smith?*”

This item in the questionnaire was designed to test the speech act of “asking for permission” in a business context. In most cases, a worker should briefly ask for permission before asking a question during work time, so c) should be the best answer. But thirty students made wrong choices and the rate of failure of the question was 60%. When asked about the reasons of their choices on this question, some student interviewees explained that asking questions was to ask for help, so speakers should be polite. When told that workers should use brief words to ask for permission and quickly get down to business; in reality, they need to learn this.

At the supermarket, after receiving your money, the cashier says to you “Thank you.” with a smile. To this, which of the following is the best response?

- a) *You make no answer.*
- b) “*You’re welcome.*”
- c) “*Thank you.*”

The item is to test how to make a “response” to “thanks” in business context. Forty (80%) testees gave wrong answers on this item. Nine student interviewees stated when hearing “Thank you”, they automatically respond with “You’re welcome.” After receiving money from the cashier at a supermarket, the customer may either smile or say nothing. Hearing the explanation, student interviewees said they did not know that before.

The rates of failure from these two items above and what student interviewees said about their choices show that business English students do not have much business knowledge, and do not consider the business context when answering the questionnaire. Four teacher interviewees told us that business knowledge taught in the class was not from complementary materials, but textbooks.

Limited Authentic English Language Teaching

Authentic English will definitely help students learn the language, and it also improves students to be able to communicate in English like natives, avoiding pragmatic failure. The result of the investigation reflects that the students are not aware of authentic English language in the business context.

In a hotel, Mary asks a serviceman, Mary: "Can you lift my luggage?"

Serviceman: " _____ "

a) Yes. b) Yes, I can lift your luggage. c) No problem.

The item is to test the serviceman's response to a guest in a hotel. Under this situation, the serviceman should say "Yes", because Mary does not ask about the serviceman's ability to lift her luggage, but instead asks for his help. Thirty-seven testees did not understand Mary's intention, and made the wrong choices. The rate of failure of the item was 74%. Nine student interviewees stated they had learned the phrases somewhere, but they had not heard the dialogue in a business context.

The student interviewees also mentioned that they had no chance to practice real-like business expressions in class. Four teacher interviewees presented that they did not have time to search for authentic listening materials from the textbook to play in class.

Suggestions for Teaching

From the above analyses, it is believed that the causes of such pragmatic failure committed by business English students stem mainly from inadequate input of pragmatic principles, business knowledge, and authentic business listening materials in class. In theory, business English students in Grade 4 should have excellent abilities of expression in the business context, but in fact, the findings prove that the students often commit pragmatic failures in speech acts. Business English is one kind of ESP; West (1994) argued that ESP teaching would need to establish the skill priorities for students and most of the business knowledge and business English expressions were obtained in class. So, it is essential to put forward suggestions for teaching in the class to help students avoid making such failures.

Pragmatic principles should be integrated into business knowledge in the class. Not knowing the pragmatic principles, students cannot fully understand the reasons why speakers express in different ways in communication, and cannot interpret appropriate English. Some failures committed in the questionnaire are due to a lack of pragmatic principles. The examples reflecting pragmatic principles given to students in class should be covered in expressions in daily and business contexts, and teachers should try their best to explain the abstract principles in concrete and interesting ways, and find easy-to-understand examples from in and out of textbooks to help students grasp the principles.

Business knowledge should also be covered thoroughly in class. In the interviews, teachers stated that they just taught business knowledge from textbooks. But the textbooks are not enough to enable the students to deal with changeable business affairs. As for business English majors in Grade 4, acquiring business knowledge plays a vital role. The information strictly from textbooks is not enough, and complementary materials are needed in class.

Authentic English must also be presented in class. Students in my college rarely have chances to communicate with native speakers, so it is not easy for them to understand the target language by means of communicating with foreigners. And what's more, some teachers admitted they had not used authentic business listening materials in class. It is known that authentic teaching materials can provide chances in the development of students' language proficiency and can enable the students to learn the target language naturally. Language teaching in class should be "authentic language".

Limitation and Conclusion

This investigation studies pragmatic failure made by business English majors and provides the features of failure from speech acts, the causes of such failure, and some suggestions for classroom teaching. Except from the aspects of pragmatic principles, business knowledge and authentic English to analyze the failures, intercultural awareness, culture diversity, cognitive ability and social experience (Kasper & Schmidt, 1996) may be the causes of pragmatic failure, and the latter items can be researched in the future.

This investigator hopes the findings from the research can provide a method to improve business English majors' professional skills and to cultivate the potential capable professionals. This investigation also intends to draw teachers' and researchers' attention to explore more effective ways to cultivate business English majors, and to help students lay a solid foundation for their professional study.

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Self-Promotion of the University Textbook Prefaces in China: A Genre Analysis

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[Abstract] *This paper explores the diachronic changes of university textbook prefaces in China from 1966 to 2010. Informed by genre analysis, which is the discussion of generic structure potential, this paper makes a quantitative analysis of 60 sample texts and investigates the changes of the generic structure of the genre in question. The analysis reveals that the generic structure of the university textbook prefaces in China demonstrates distinct changes with the development of the times, pointing to the intertextual mix of academic discourse and promotional discourse, which is actually undergoing a process of commodification.*

[Keywords] *commodification; textbook preface; diachronic change; generic structure*

Introduction

Commodification is a process in which discourse types associated with commodity production begin colonizing the discursive practices of an institution which were not originally in the economic domain (Fairclough, 1992; 1993). It means that advertising and promotional genres might come across into the order of discourse of the non-economic domain, producing promotional and mixed genres. In the real world, there are many domains such as education, arts, politics, and academics, whose orders of discourse are being colonized by advertising genre (Fairclough, 1992; Bhatia, 2004). Most of the studies on commodification depend on case studies and investigations of the discursive practices that happened at a synchronic level. It is believed that more systematic studies, especially diachronic studies, could gain a more comprehensive analysis for the issue concerned.

Drawing on the theories in critical discourse analysis, this study aims to explore commodification of Chinese university textbook prefaces through investigating the diachronic changes of this genre and its interaction with its socio-cultural contexts. In addition, this study will employ genre theories (Bhatia, 1993; Swales, 2004), the discussion of generic structure potential (Halliday & Hasan, 1985), and it will investigate changes in the generic structure of the genre in question (from 1965 to 2010), with a view to revealing the process of evolution of the genre in question.

Methodology & Data Collection

With the aim of describing and summarizing changes of the genre in question, the concept of move advocated by Swales (1990), and the theory of generic structure potential (Halliday & Hasan, 1985), are employed in this study. Viewing genre as a highly structured and conventionalized construct, English for Specific Purposes (ESP) scholars cast primary emphasis on moves in the analysis of rhetorical structure of a genre. According to Swales, move is “a discoursal or rhetorical unit that performs a coherent communicative function in a written or spoken discourse” (Swales, 2004, p. 228). It is a kind of cognitive structuring that depends on the communicative purposes it serves. The texts in a same genre may have similar or nearly similar move structures. Step is the substructure of move. One move may be realized by several steps. As the basic element of a text, move can be used to describe the generic structure of a

genre, which is identified in terms of rhetorical function, not in terms of formal unit (Bhatia, 1993; Swales, 2004).

The theory of generic structure potential is also applied in this study. Generic structure potential refers to the potential of textual structure of a same genre. Hasan (1985) thinks that generic structure potential of a genre is a highly condensed abstract model concluded from many individual texts, which describes all the possible textual structure of a genre type. According to Hasan (1985), generic structure potential of a genre covers obligatory elements and optional elements. Obligatory elements determine the genre type to which a text belongs to, while optional elements may result in the changes of a genre. Hasan argued that the generic structure of a genre should be established in a perspective of semantics or function, which is in accordance with ESP school's understanding of generic structure through move analysis. Thus, combining the tool of ESP school's move analysis with the theory of generic structure potential by Hasan, this study attempts to identify and analyze moves and steps in each sample text, to establish the generic structure potential of Chinese university textbook prefaces, and finally to investigate to what extent the generic structure of the genre in question changes or varies during the three periods we have set above.

The data collected are prefaces of university textbooks in China published across 1966-2010. A total of 60 sample texts were collected, with 20 samples selected respectively from each period (i.e. 1966-1980, 1981-1995, 1996-2010). All the data come from two digital databases named *Superstar* and *Duxiu*, which have widespread availability and have reached a large number of users in China. In order to make the data representative, a set of criteria was set up in data collection. First, to ensure a variety of subjects and authors, the data covers the textbook prefaces for subjects in both natural and social sciences, with all samples written by different authors in the disciplines. Second, we only collected data published by professional authoritative publishing companies (such as People's Education Publishing Press, Higher Education Publishing Press and famous university publishing presses in China, etc.). These presses are the main players in the field of China's university textbook publication. The discourse models of textbook prefaces they publish are presumably representing the main features of development and changes in university textbook prefaces in China. Third, only the prefaces written by well-known scholars in certain fields were collected. These well-known scholars in their disciplines usually produce prefaces that might be regarded as the models to be followed and imitated, leading the discursal trend of the time.

Results

This study treats GSP elements whose occurring frequencies are over 95% as compulsory elements, as well as those whose occurring frequencies are 5%-95% as optional elements. The generic structural potentials of the university textbook prefaces during the three periods are typically presented in the following moves and steps. Tables 1-3 present the generic structure potentials of sample texts in the three periods; Table 4 presents the occurring frequencies of each move. For the convenience of description, corpus of data in 1966-1980 is named Group 1, while corpus of 1981-1995 is named Group 2; corpus of 1996-2010 is named Group 3, respectively.

Table 1: Generic Structure Potential in Group 1

Move 1: Establishing the relevant field of study
Move 2: Introduction to textbook
Step 1 guiding principles
Step 2 background, aim and significance of writing
Step 3 main contents
Step 4 weakness of textbook
Step 5 assignments of cowriters
Step 6 scope of application
Step 7 suggestions for application
Move 3: Establishing credentials
Move 4: Acknowledgement
Move 5: Self-modesty and soliciting response

Table 2. Generic Structure Potential in Group 2

Move 1: Establishing the relevant field of study
<u>Move 2: Justification of writing aims</u>
Move 3: Establishing credentials
Move4: Introduction to textbook
Step 1 - guiding principles
Step 2 - background, aim and significance of writing
Step 3 - main contents
Step 4 - specialties s of textbook
Step 5 - weakness of textbook
Step 6 - assignments of cowriters
Step 7 - scope of application
Step 8 - suggestions for application
Move 5: Acknowledgement
Move 6: Self-modesty and soliciting response

Table 3. Generic structure potential in Group 3

Move 1: Establishing the relevant field of study
Move 2: Justification of writing aims
Move 3: Establishing credentials
Step 1 - presenting qualification of textbook and editing staff
Step 2 - instances of applying effect
Move4: Introduction to textbook
Step 1 - guiding principles
Step 2 - background, aim and significance of writing
Step 3 - main contents
Step 4 - specialties s of textbook
Step 5 - assignments of cowriters
Step 6 - scope of application
Step 7 - suggestions for application
Move 5: Acknowledgement
Move 6 Self-modesty and soliciting response

Table 4. Moves in the Genre Across the Three Periods

Periods \ Moves	Introduction to relative field of study	Justification of writing aims	Establishing credential	Introduction to textbook	Acknowledgement	Self-modesty and soliciting response
1966-1980	20%		5%	100%	60%	100%
1981-1995	35%	25%	30%	100%	90%	95%
1996-2010	55%	40%	50%	100%	70%	95%

From Tables 1-4, we see that university textbook prefaces' generic structure varies through the three periods. Although due to the conventionality and integrity of a genre, compulsory elements of the genre in question, namely "introduction to textbook" and "self-modesty and soliciting response", whose occurring frequencies are all over 95% in the three groups, remain the same during the three periods, their optional elements demonstrate distinct differences within the timeframe. Compared with Group 1, a new optional element called "justification of writing aims" (The move underlined in Table 2 and 3) occurs in both Group 2 and 3, whose occurring frequency increases when time goes (See Table 4). This suggests that sample texts in Group 2 and Group 3 don't restrict within introduction to relevant fields of study and extend to justify the importance and necessities of the textbooks. This element implies value of textbooks and functions for the purpose of persuasion.

Another difference deserving attention is the optional element of "establishing credential" which presents distinct diachronic variation. In Group 1, the occurring frequency of this move is 5%. Only one sample text uses this move. In addition, the way of establishing credentials in this case is very objective. Compared with Group 1, the occurring frequencies of the "establishing credentials" move in Group 2 and Group 3 demonstrate distinct increasing tendency, which is 30% in Group 2 and 50% in Group 3, respectively. In addition, the way to establish credentials in these two groups is generally direct, demonstrating positive appraising flavor. Especially in Group 3, nearly more than half of its sample texts establish credentials by using positive expressions.

Besides moves, steps of the genre in question also present distinct diachronic changes. Table 5 shows the diachronic changes of the steps through the three periods.

Table 5. Steps in the Genre Across the Three Periods

Periods \ Steps	Establishing credentials		Introduction to textbook							
	Qualification of textbook and editing-staffs	Presenting instances of using effect	Guiding principles	Background, aim and significance of writing	Main contents	Specialties	Weakness	Suggestions for application	Assignments of cowriters	Scope of application
1966-1980	5%		55%	50%	80%		5%	5%	45%	30
1981-1995	30%		50%	40%	80%	15%	5%	20%	70%	45
1996-2010	40%	15%	45%	40%	70%	60%		20%	85%	35

Table 5 illustrates the occurring frequencies of all the steps emerging in the three periods, which is counted by the total number of a particular step dividing the total number of sample texts in each period. From this table, we can find steps mainly appear in two moves – "establishing credentials" and "introduction to textbook". In Group 1 and 2, move of "establishing credentials" covers only one step –

“presenting qualification of textbook and editing staff”, with occurring frequency increasing when time goes. In Group 3, a new step of “presenting instances of using effect” occurs in this move.

The other move realized by steps – the move of “introduction to textbook” – also demonstrates distinct diachronic changes on step structures. A close examination shows that the step of “specialties of textbook” enters into the main steps of the move with occurring frequency of 60% in Group 3. In sharp contrast, this step doesn’t appear in Group 1, and its occurring frequency in Group 2 is only 15%. The main function of “specialties of textbook” step is to introduce the distinctive features or innovations of the textbooks, which is usually undertaken by positive evaluation or listing the points which potential readers might concern.

The diachronic change of “specialties of textbook” step indicates that the writers of textbooks in Group 3 are increasingly inclined to highlight the values and foreground the differentiation of the textbooks in question both for the purpose of information and promotion. Another important finding in analyzing the data is the changes of “weakness” step. This step occurs both in Group 1 and Group 2, which specifically points out the disadvantages of the textbooks in question. In contrast, none of the samples texts in Group 3 uses this step, which accords with the tendency of introducing advantages and specialties in this group. Another subtle change we can find from Table 5 is concerned with step of “suggestions for application” which appears more frequently in Group 2 (20%) and Group 3 (20%) than it does in Group 1 (5%). This step mainly recommends course hour plans for teaching and the primary parts of the contents in view of teachers as its target readers. The increasing tendency of this step suggests that the authors of textbooks in recent years begin to take the needs of potential customers into consideration, because in China teachers have primary rights to decide which book to be used for their courses.

Conclusion

The analysis of the genre in question demonstrates distinct diachronic changes with the development of the times. In the period of 1966-1980, the university textbook prefaces in China generally presented to be objective in design. While since the 1980s, new promotional move and steps began to emerge and are increasingly visible during the period of 1996-2010. It is found that moves such as “specialties”, “establishing credentials” and “instances of using effect”, which are popularly employed in advertising and promotional discourses, have been drawn on in the genre under investigation to make it both informational and promotional. The emergence of typical promotional moves and steps indicates that the university textbook prefaces in China after the 1980s bear the communicative purposes for both information and promotion, which is actually undergoing a process of commodification.

Genres are “the drive belts from the history of society to the history of language” (Bakhtin, 1986, p. 65). The commodification of the university textbook prefaces in China must be attributed to the particular socio-cultural contexts in which this genre occurred and developed. This study suggests the ideological influence of promotional culture, powerful position of advertising discourse in the current society and the fierce professional competitions as three contextual factors attributed to the commodification of the university textbook prefaces in China.

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Analyzing Online Product Reviews in Different Languages: Chinese and English Speakers' Construal of Sensory Adjectives

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[Abstract] *The present study aims to examine Chinese and English speakers' construal of sensory adjectives by analyzing online product reviews in the two languages. Reviews have been collected from Amazon.com using Amazon's web services. A set of 27 sensory adjectives was derived from previous studies that adopted the Semantic Differential Method. Contrary to previous studies, the present study demonstrated tactile dominance in both Chinese and English sensory descriptors. Sensory descriptors showed significant cross-language differences because associations between literal and metaphorical meanings of sensory adjectives differ in the two languages.*

[Keywords] *construal; sensory adjective; metaphor; product review*

Introduction

With the rapid expansion of e-commerce, online product reviews are considered a significant informative platform for both the product manufacturers who want to keep track of customer opinions and the potential customers who are making informed decisions on whether to purchase the products (Hu & Liu, 2004). Reviews are written for different aspects or features of a product (e.g., appearance, quality and price). Most of the existing work on online product reviews focuses on opinion feature extraction and adjective orientation identification (Wang, et al., 2013). Little attention, however, has been paid to readers' understanding of product features, specifically sensory features.

When customers interact with products, they perceive product properties through different senses. Such sensory information is processed in the brain and contributes to the overall product feature that people can describe and comment verbally in product reviews. When commenting on the product feature, they usually use sensory adjectives that reflect sensory properties (e.g., warm, solid, sweet and loud). But almost all product properties have associations with more than one sensory modality. Melodies can be 'sweet'; the color of a shirt can be 'loud', and so on. In other words, sensory adjectives can transfer their meaning to other sensory modalities (e.g., 'sweet sound', 'warm color') and to other psychological domains (e.g., 'hard decision', 'clear explanation'). Language differences between sensory descriptions can be explained by the fact that metaphorical meanings of sensory descriptors differ cross-linguistically. The present study aims to examine Chinese and English speakers' construal of sensory adjectives by analyzing online product reviews in the two languages.

Past Studies on Online Product Reviews

Past research has demonstrated the influence of online product reviews on e-commerce outcomes such as business profitability and purchase intentions. Since the introduction of e-commerce, manufacturers have used it as one of the main marketing tools to catch customer attentions (Chatterjee, 2001). Online review systems have been considered to be one of the most important communication channels because consumers can receive information concerned with products and manufacturers (Sher & Lee, 2009). In this way, online product reviews have been suggested to be an influential factor that affects sales volume and business growth (Chevalier & Mayzlin, 2006; Resnick, et al., 2006). However, user-generated reviews are also known to be unstructured documents (Jo & Oh, 2011). Many recent efforts have been conducted to improve the accuracy of feature extraction (Somprasertsri & Lalitrojwong, 2010) and sentiment analysis (Cui, et al., 2006).

Past Studies on Sensory Adjectives

Sensory adjectives, such as *sharp*, *dull*, *sweet*, *sour*, *loud*, and *quiet*, often extend their meaning from one basic, or prototypical, sense modality to one or more modalities. Based on an investigation of 19th century poetry, Ullmann (1951) proposed the following two hierarchies: touch > taste > scent and touch > sound, sight. Out of a total of 2009 transfers, he found 1665 upward transfers (from left to right) and only 344 downward transfers. The largest number of extensions occurred between touch and sound. Ullmann's study mainly focused on literary metaphor synchronically. Williams (1976) looked at historical changes of English sensory adjectives in English dictionaries. He found that metaphorical transfers, with relatively few exceptions, go in a unidirectional manner. In other words, a touch word may transfer to taste ('hot') or directly to sound ('sharp') or sight ('soft'). A taste word may extend to sound or to smell ('sweet music', 'sour smell'), and sight words may transfer to sound and vice versa ('loud color', 'clear sound'). Williams suggests that the hierarchy is biologically based. The transfers go from the physiologically least differentiating, evolutionary and ontogenetically primitive sensory modalities to the most differentiating, most advanced.

On the basis of the earlier research, Shindo (2008) then carries out her study focusing on semantic extensions of sensory adjectives panchronically, that is, both synchronically and diachronically. She argues that the schema-extension model is more helpful than metaphor in explaining the semantic transitions from abstract to concrete.

Methodology

The aim of this study is to find out the extent to which sensory adjectives are related to the different sensory modalities. The study also tries to test whether a difference exists between the construal of sensory adjectives in online product reviews for Chinese and English participants. We assume that for sensory adjectives in product reviews, its original sensory modality (literal meaning) will be dominant, such as taste for 'sour', touch for 'cold', and audition for 'quiet'. Sensory adjectives describing product experience are likely to be multisensory, but possibly one or more sensory modalities play a more dominant role in assessing how sour, cold or quiet people find a particular product. Readers' construal of sensory adjectives may differ between the languages in terms of literal meaning, cross-modal meaning or evaluative meaning. Cross-modal meaning and evaluative meaning are both metaphorical meaning in that the former is achieved through synesthetic metaphor while the latter through cognitive metaphor.

Participants

The sample consisted of 145 (41.4% male, Mage=33.5, SDage=9.75) native English participants and 157 native Chinese participants (44.6% male, Mage=31.7, SDage=8.69).

Procedure

Reviews were collected from Amazon.com using Amazon’s web services. It is the world’s largest online retailer, selling MP3 music, software, apparel, furniture, food, toys, and jewelry. In addition, Amazon has retail websites for the United States, United Kingdom and China. Diversified product reviews in Chinese and English languages are available. Amazon web services (AWS) allow the developers to automatically collect plain text reviews. A set of heuristics was used to discard some pages, paragraphs, and sentences that are unlikely to be reviews (such as sentences unrelated to the product feature). Then each review was decomposed into sentences, and a POS tagger was used to identify each word.

A set of 27 sensory adjectives was derived from previous studies (Fenko, et al., 2010) that adopted the Semantic Differential Method. All original items and their translations can be found in Table 1. As the interpretations of words vary among cultures and languages, it is difficult to reach item equivalence with research participants from different languages. Thus, the sensory descriptor list employed in the present study was prepared using translation, back-translation and confirmation of interpretive validity of the translated version (Brislin, 1980). Back-translation was used as a means of ensuring that the Chinese sensory descriptors were equivalent to the English counterparts.

The set included adjectives from different senses: tactile (such as rough, sharp and warm); auditory (such as loud quiet, and noisy); visual (such as clear, shiny and colorful); olfactory (such as stale and fresh), and gustatory (such as sweet and bitter). Product reviews (145 English reviews and 157 Chinese reviews) that contained these sensory adjectives were selected. The review writers whose reviews were selected received a message and paid five E-Coups for their participation. In the message, they were asked to answer two questions: “To what extent do the following senses contribute to your comment of the product as... (the sensory adjective which the review writer used, such as ‘warm’)?” “To what extent is your comment ... an (affective or cognitive) evaluation of the product?” The selected reviews cover a wide range of products, such as bags, toothbrushes, shoes, shampoos, soft drink and cameras. They assessed the relevance of sensory modalities and evaluation on five-point scales from ‘not important’ (1) to ‘very important’ (5). For each sensory adjective, the mean relevance was rated for vision, audition, touch, olfaction, taste and evaluation.

Table 1. Mean Relevance Ratings of Modalities and Evaluation for 27 Sensory Descriptors

Sensory descriptors	Language English/Chinese	Modality					Evaluation
		Vision	Audition	Touch	Olfaction	Taste	
Visual	Colorful**	4.7	2.8	1.7	2.1	3.5	2.2
	多彩的	4.9	2.7	1.6	1.9	2.9	1.8
	Clean**	4.7	1.9	3.8	3.5	2.9	1.6
	干净的	4.8	2.8	3.7	3.7	1.4	1.4
	Shiny*	4.9	1.8	1.6	1.2	1.1	2.4
	闪亮的	4.9	2.7	1.1	1.9	1.8	1.6
	Clear	4.7	2.9	2.0	2.1	2.4	1.8
	清晰的	4.8	3.2	2.6	2.4	2.2	1.3
	Conspicuous*	4.7	3.6	3.0	3.6	2.4	1.7
	明显的	4.7	3.8	3.7	3.6	3.5	1.6
Beautiful*	4.7	3.6	3.5	3.2	3.4	3.6	

	美丽的	4.9	3.7	2.7	3.6	3.5	3.4
	Breakable	4.3	3.9	4.4	1.1	1.1	1.3
	易碎的	3.2	3.5	4.6	1.1	1.1	1.1
	Quick*	4.7	3.2	3.3	2.6	1.2	1.2
	迅速的	4.7	3.5	3.4	2.5	1.6	1.3
Tactile	Warm**	2.8	2.2	4.6	1.5	2.8	1.7
	温暖的	3.6	3.5	4.6	2.2	3.5	2.6
	Sharp**	4.4	4.3	4.5	3.8	4.0	1.3
	尖锐的	4.2	4.1	4.6	1.2	1.2	1.2
	Hard**	3.8	2.0	4.7	1.3	1.2	1.4
	坚硬的	4.2	3.6	4.8	1.1	1.3	1.2
	Rough*	4.1	3.0	4.7	1.1	2.3	2.0
	粗糙的	4.1	3.5	4.8	1.1	1.7	2.4
	Strong*	4.2	3.1	4.5	3.0	2.5	1.9
	强大的	4.0	3.4	4.3	3.2	2.8	2.9
	Heavy	4.1	2.7	4.6	2.6	1.2	1.4
	沉重的	4.1	2.6	4.5	2.4	1.4	2.6
	Flexible*	4.1	2.5	4.6	1.2	1.4	3.0
	柔韧的	4.0	3.0	4.6	1.1	1.8	1.5
	Moist	3.9	1.7	4.7	2.9	2.7	1.3
潮湿的	3.8	2.3	4.7	3.0	2.5	1.2	
Gustatory	Bitter**	2.6	1.8	1.9	3.3	4.8	2.6
	苦涩的	2.4	2.0	1.2	1.4	4.9	1.8
	Sweet*	3.8	3.6	2.1	4.4	4.9	2.8
	甜蜜的	3.9	3.5	2.0	3.6	4.9	1.6
	Sour**	3.3	1.6	1.4	4.1	4.9	1.3
	酸的	3.2	2.8	2.4	4.3	4.9	1.2
	Spicy	3.2	1.1	1.6	4.4	4.8	1.3
	辣的	3.3	2.0	1.8	4.5	4.9	1.8
	Mild**	3.4	2.5	4.3	3.5	4.4	1.3
	温和的	3.0	1.6	4.5	2.6	3.4	1.6
Pure**	4.0	2.8	2.4	2.4	4.2	1.8	
纯净的	4.0	3.0	2.2	3.6	4.0	1.4	
Auditory	Loud*	2.8	4.8	1.6	2.2	1.8	1.3
	响亮的	1.4	4.9	1.5	1.2	1.2	1.2
	Quiet**	3.8	4.9	3.2	1.2	1.7	1.3
	安静的	3.2	4.9	1.8	2.4	1.8	1.6
	Noisy	3.2	4.9	1.6	1.3	1.2	1.2
吵闹的	2.1	4.9	1.6	1.2	1.1	1.2	
Olfactory	Fresh	4.2	1.6	3.0	4.6	4.4	3.1
	新鲜的	4.1	2.4	2.5	4.0	4.3	1.4
	Stale**	3.3	1.4	2.6	4.7	2.2	2.1
	陈腐的	4.0	2.4	1.6	4.7	3.8	1.9

* The effect of Modality (Evaluation) × Language interaction is significant at 0.05 level.

** The effect of Modality (Evaluation) × Language interaction is significant at 0.01 level.

Results

We performed repeated measures ANOVA with Descriptor, Modality (or Evaluation) as within-subjects factors and Language as between-subjects factor. The dominating effects for Descriptor, Modality and Language were significant: $F(32, 1023) = 37.8$; $p < 0.001$ for Descriptor; $F(4, 271) = 320.6$; $p < 0.001$

for Modality; and $F(1, 98) = 4572.5$; $p < 0.001$ for Language. The Modality-Language interaction was not significant: $F(4, 271) = 1.5$; $p > 0.2$. The Modality-Descriptor interaction [$F(124, 23718) = 124.5$; $p < 0.001$] and the Descriptor-Modality Language interaction [$F(124, 23718) = 12.9$, $p < 0.001$] were both significant.

The dominating effects for Descriptor, Evaluation and Language were significant: $p < 0.001$ for Descriptor; $p < 0.001$ for Evaluation; and $p < 0.001$ for Language. The Evaluation-Language interaction was not significant: $p > 0.1$. The Evaluation-Descriptor interaction [$p < 0.001$] and the Descriptor-Evaluation Language interaction [$p < 0.001$] were both significant.

To test if age or gender differences between participants affected results, repeated measures ANOVA was also performed with Descriptor and Modality (or Evaluation) as within-subjects factors and Language, Age and Gender as between-subject factors. The effects of both Age and Gender factors and their interactions with other factors were not significant ($p > 0.20$). In contrast to Fenko, et al. (2010), we found that overall mean ratings of the 27 sensory descriptors showed that touch had the highest rating for 9 descriptors, vision for 7, taste for 6, audition for 3 and olfaction for 2 descriptors. As predicted, sensory descriptors exhibited the highest ratings for the corresponding sensory modalities (e.g., touch for ‘hard’, audition for ‘quiet’, taste for ‘bitter’, olfaction for ‘stale’). However, different from Fenko, et al. (2010), ‘breakable’ (in both Chinese and English) demonstrated the highest ratings for touch (rather than its original sensory modality). Besides, some sensory descriptors showed cross-linguistic differences. For instance, ‘fresh’ appeared to be mainly a olfactory experience for English respondents, and taste for Chinese participants (‘新鲜的’). Taste was dominant for ‘mild’ in the English group, but in the Chinese group (‘温和的’) was tactile.

As the three-way interaction was highly significant, responses for each adjective were subjected to repeated measures ANOVA with Modality (or Evaluation) as within-subjects factor and Language as between-subjects factor. The effect of Modality was significant for all descriptors ($p < 0.01$). For 20 out of 27 descriptors, the effect of the Modality \times Language interaction was also significant (see Table 1).

At last, the response distribution patterns of all the items are examined to find out whether the responses were distributed normally within each language group. In the Chinese and English sample, bimodal distributions were observed. So we can conclude that there are sub-groups within each sample that have different opinions on modality-evaluation interaction for a particular descriptor.

Discussion

We set out to examine Chinese and English speakers’ construal of sensory adjectives by analyzing online product reviews in the two languages. Contrary to previous studies on product experience (Schiffstein, 2006) and sensory semantics (Viberg, 1983; Sweetser, 1990), the present study demonstrated tactile dominance in both English and Chinese sensory descriptors. Among sensory modalities, touch is the system that is strongly connected to (both positive and negative) affect (Hollins, 2010). Interpersonal touch expresses both emotional and communicative meaning (Hertenstein, et al., 2006). For example, pain sensations, which also belong to the domain of touch, are closely related to negative emotions (Villemure, et al., 2003; Bruehl, et al., 2006). Psychological research observes that warm and cold stimuli have affective connotations (Rolls, 2005). For example, a warm surface applied to the hand often feels pleasant. That accounts for the finding in the present study that ‘warm’ is widely used in product reviews to convey affective evaluations.

In the present study, touch had greater ratings than vision. The possible explanation for this result is that touch is more precise than vision in assessing differences in textures. A multidimensional scaling study showed that roughness is one of the two main dimensions of texture space (Hollins, 2000). Its perception also has an affective component. That's why 'rough' has considerably higher rating for evaluative meaning among the tactile descriptors.

Significant differences were found for sensory descriptions across the languages (such as 'warm', 'sharp', 'quiet' and 'sour'). This is due to, first, in Chinese and English semantic connotations for sensory adjectives differ. For example, 'warm' in English and '温暖的' in Chinese both characterize a multisensory product experience. But audition has a higher importance rating for '温暖的' in Chinese. Moreover, evaluative associations with '温暖的' are even stronger than for the English sample. This can be due to the fact that Chinese are more sensitive to temperature changes and shape a wealth of metaphors concerning social relations and emotions (Yu, 1998). Secondly, studies in cultural psychology suggest that individuals from cultures stressing interdependence not only tend to perceive more changes in relationships between targets (Masuda & Nisbett, 2001), while individuals from cultures emphasizing independence are more likely to categorize targets on the basis of shared categories and features. Chinese is distinctively a culture emphasizing interdependence and English belongs to cultures stressing independence. That's why in the current research Chinese participants' perception of warmth is more connected to affective and cognitive connotations.

In English people tend to characterize an unbearable smell or pungent food as sharp. In Chinese another word is used for characterizing a sharp smell (刺鼻的) and a sharp taste (辛辣的). That's why '尖锐的' in Chinese has a low importance rating for gustatory and olfactory experience. For Chinese speakers associations were stronger with tools like knives or scissors than with food.

As the result shows, sub-groups within each sample have different opinions on modality-evaluation interaction for a particular descriptor. Experimental data suggest that vision and audition are most intimately related to rational thinking (Goodale & Humphrey, 1998; Paivio, 2006), while touch, smell, and taste are more strongly connected with emotions (Sweetser, 1990; Hinton & Henley, 1993). The divergence on modality-evaluation interaction may be caused by the different relationships of particular sensory modalities with cognitive and affective systems.

Conclusion

This research investigated the differences between the construal of sensory adjectives in online product reviews for Chinese and English participants. We found that sensory descriptors showed significant language differences because metaphorical transfers of sensory adjectives differ between languages. In contrast to Fenko, et al. (2010), the overall mean ratings of the 27 sensory descriptors showed that touch had the highest rating because it is more precise than vision in assessing differences in textures. Significant differences were found for sensory descriptions across languages (such as warm, sharp, quiet and sour). The divergence on modality-evaluation interaction may be caused by the different relationships of particular sensory modalities with cognitive and affective systems.

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An Analysis of College English Hidden Curriculum and its Action Plane

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[Abstract] *The function, components and action plan of college English hidden curriculum were studied. In combination with a school's "Foreign Languages Experiencing Festival", its significance for being practical and implementation method is illustrated. The results show that the hidden curriculum of college English has humanistic function. It can guide students in conducting themselves and doing things in a subtle way, and consequently, it is the necessary supplement of college English manifest curriculum.*

[Keywords] *college English; hidden curriculum; manifest curriculum; action plane*

Introduction

National Long-term Educational Reform and Development Plan (2010-2020) (2010) (hereafter referred to as *Educational Development Plan*) designates that higher education should “meet the national economic and social demands on China’s opening to the outside world and cultivate large quantities of international talents who have international visions and a good command of international rules, and are able to participate in international affairs and competition” (p. 45). The *Educational Development Plan* makes further requests on talent cultivation of higher education: “To put forth effort to cultivate high-quality specialized talents of being persistent in faith, noble in character, rich in knowledge and excellent in skills” (p. 25). The requirements of the *Educational Development Plan* on higher education can be understood from two perspectives: (1) to cultivate college students’ professional quality, enabling them to master the theoretical knowledge and relevant practical skills of their specialty; (2) to cultivate college students’ moral traits, right values and judgment and proper conducts. The core mission of modern higher education is quality education.

College English instruction is an important means for college students to come into contact with foreign languages and foreign cultures, to widen knowledge scope, and to expand international vision. According to the *College English Curriculum Requirements* (2007) issued by the Ministry of Education (hereafter referred to as *Curriculum Requirements*), the main content of college English is English language knowledge, language application skills, cross-cultural communication, and learning strategies, and its instructional objectives are to cultivate students’ English integrated application ability, especially the ability to listen and speak, to enhance their autonomic learning ability and to improve their comprehensive cultural literacy. The *Curriculum Requirements* embodies the instructional philosophy of “people oriented, student centered” (p. 7) and the educational function of college English education. Hidden curriculum is the important front of humanistic education and quality education, with the features of attaching importance to educational function, emphasizing respect for students’ individuality, developing their personality, tapping their creative potential and developing their autonomic learning ability. Hidden curriculum can not only exert influence on students’ motivation to learn, learning strategies and learning effect, but also influence students’ philosophy of life and moral values.

Connotation and Properties of Hidden Curriculum

Curriculum is the necessary route to the achievement of educational objective. Based on its pattern of manifestation and its way of influencing students, curriculum can be divided into manifest curriculum and hidden curriculum (Shi, 2011). Since the 1960s, educators, headed by American educator P. W. Jackson, have come to a conclusion that in addition to the conventional curriculum, there is an invisible and inherent curriculum and it exerts its impact on every student at school (Dang, 2004). This invisible curriculum is called the hidden curriculum. In 1968, P. W. Jackson first presented the concepts of “manifest curriculum”, and “hidden curriculum” in his *Life in Classroom* (1968). It says if “manifest curriculum” is the “formal curriculum” implemented with plan and organization in school education, then the hidden curriculum is the unplanned or unintended knowledge, values, norms and attitude that students acquire in the entire school educational environment (Jackson, 1968).

The *Education Dictionary* (Bang, 1991) interprets hidden curriculum in the following way: “hidden curriculum”, also called “latent curriculum” or “informal curriculum”, is, in a broad sense, an important component part of school curriculum. In contrast with “manifest curriculum”, “hidden curriculum” is chiefly characterized as potentiality and non-anticipation. It neither reflects in course planning, nor goes into effect through formal teaching. It exerts a subtle influence on students’ knowledge, emotion, belief, desire, behavior, and values, and promotes or interferes with the accomplishment of educational objective. The “hidden curriculum” is usually embodied in school and classroom circumstances, including physical circumstances (such as the school building, and equipment, etc.), cultural circumstances (such as a classroom setting, campus culture, campus ceremonies and activities) and interpersonal circumstances (teacher-student relations, student-student relations, study atmosphere, class atmosphere, school spirit, and school discipline, etc.). The interpretation of hidden curriculum in the *Education Dictionary* is specific and explicit and it is well accepted in the academic field at home.

One of the prominent features of hidden curriculum is the pluralism of its functional plane. Hidden curriculum takes effect not only on a physical plane, but also on a spiritual plane, not only on static plane, but on dynamic plane; its function can be either explicit and visible or implicit and invisible, and it involves not only students but also their families and the whole society. Another feature of hidden curriculum is the potentiality and latency of its objective. The teaching activities of the hidden curriculum are not normally included in a school teaching plan. Students unconsciously acquire curriculum content under school environments, thus the educational mode of hidden curriculum is indirect and implicit, and its influence on students’ emotion, attitude and values is subtle. Durability of its influence is another feature of the hidden curriculum. The educational value of a hidden curriculum belongs to insubstantial spiritual culture, and it ultimately exerts influence on students through an unconscious psychological plane. Once the influence is established, it will lastingly act on students’ psychology and behavior. A school’s spiritual culture life embodies certain social norms, codes of conduct and moral atmosphere. After living on campus for a period of time, students will develop some awareness and habits that will influence them durably, or rather, all their life.

Functions and Components of College English Hidden Curriculum

College English also comprises manifest and hidden curricula. First, college English has its well-known tool function. Under the teachers’ guidance, students learn English in accordance with the procedure of understanding, mastering and using, and through association, they reinforce what they learn and make English serve the tasks of acquiring professional knowledge, reading general literature, doing routine

work, and conducting social communication and international exchange. In doing things with English, students' language ability, thinking ability, and communicative and cooperative ability are developed. The tool function of college English is normally accomplished by its manifest curriculum, that is, the planned and organized language teaching activities. College English also has its humanistic function, that is, the function of integral cultivation. It can promote the development of students' cognitive ability, enabling them to develop a new cultural awareness, life psychology, morality, sense and sensibility. The humanistic function of college English is supposed to be accomplished by its hidden curriculum. When instructing students in academic knowledge and skills, teachers are also supposed to attach great importance to the cultivation of students' capabilities of participating and experiencing, perceiving and accumulating, and practicing, and to the cultivation of their emotions of gratitude and love. They guide students subtly in conducting themselves and doing things. Considering this, the hidden curriculum of college English is an essential way to cultivate students' comprehensive quality.

The components of college English hidden curriculum are inherent not only on a physical plane, but also on a system plane, spiritual plane and action plane (Zhang, 2007). Hidden curriculum of college English on a physical plane comprises explicit and visible campus English cultural facilities, language laboratory, autonomic listening and speaking laboratory, class size, and students' seats arrangement, etc. The appropriate allocation of these physical factors will be favorable for the execution of English teaching activities, the mobilization of students' learning initiatives, and the cultivation of students' creativity and imagination. Hidden curriculum on a system plane comprises school's affirmation and use of students' performance in College English Test Band Four, Test Band Six, and contests and activities of all sorts and levels in students' graduation, degree obtaining, graduate study recommendation and excellent students' appraisal. Hidden curriculum on a spiritual plane comprises the school's English learning atmosphere, teacher-student relations, and student-student relations, and it plays a profound and lasting influence on students' academic and personal development. Hidden curriculum of college English on an action plane comprises all actions in teacher-student interactions, especially college English second classroom activities. Rich and colorful second classroom activities can provide students with the chances of directly getting into contact with teachers and other students, and thus, play an important role in students' development of psychological diathesis, including cognition, emotion and personality.

Mechanism of College English Hidden Curriculum Action Plane

The important carrier of the college English hidden curriculum action plane is the college English second classroom activities. They are composed of activities of cultural entertainment, language practical ability training, and expert lectures, etc., with the characteristics of being rich, interesting, entertaining, informative, autonomic, practical and creative. This system, from different perspectives and on different planes, provides students with the chances of practicing listening, speaking, reading, writing and translating, enabling them to actively participate in English learning in a positive, vigorous and lively atmosphere. In practicing language, psychic structure, knowledge structure and thinking structure of the students' cultural psychological plane change under the motivation of non-cognitive psychological effect and the feedback of cognitive psychology, and in this sense, the subtle influence of hidden curriculum is achieved. Several psychological theories, including field theory, human suggestibility, affect memory and constructivism, provide enlightenment on the function of second classroom activities hidden curriculum.

The second classroom activities of college English are characteristic of "field", and all the key elements in the field interact (Ge, 2008). The impact of the field is compulsory. Students and teachers

engaged in the activities are all influenced individually by the mass. Either the teachers sending instructions, or the students organizing different activity groups as group leaders, or the students taking part in different activities as group members, are all members of certain basic groups. They are thus the ones who are to be influenced, and when they receive influence sent from a group, they will change the quality and quantity of information they themselves are going to send. Field compulsiveness is the internal driving force of English cultural environment. It inherently binds and regulates students' English practical conduct and impels them to be self-disciplining and self-regulating in English practical activities, which will further prompt them to develop good language learning habits.

Psychological studies show that all people are suggestible (Zhang, 1999). This quality is the precondition for actualizing the hidden curriculum of college English second classroom activities. Teachers entrust students with more freedom and trust in activity form, content, organization method and language output pattern. The attitude and behaviour of such trust will influence students' achievement motivations and attribution styles through unconscious psychological activities, satisfy their needs for acknowledgement and development, and make the changes from quantity to quality become true. The automatically accomplished cultural self-awareness plays an important role in promoting students' language learning initiative and learning quality. Suggestibility of the hidden curriculum of college English second classroom activities is direct and effective, highlighting the educational penetrability of hidden curriculum.

Affect memory is another important feature of hidden curriculum that can trigger linkage effect, turning knowledge into wisdom, wisdom into emotion and emotion into personality (Tan, 2004). The hidden curriculum of college English second classroom activities surpasses traditional classroom in time and space because it creates an open, free, dynamic, developing and changing language cultural atmosphere. Under psychological freedom and security, empathies can motivate students' active emotions, and then the active emotions can motivate students' psychological potential, and the psychological potential can promote students' cognition. In this sense, students will strive for greater success in language learning.

According to constructivism, language instruction should be student-centered, and in the whole process of instruction, the teachers are organizers, instructors, helpers and promoters who should make full use of learning environment elements, such as circumstances, coordination and conversation, to give full play to students' initiative, enthusiasm and creativity. This aims at students' meaning construction of the current learning knowledge (He, 1996). The second classroom activities of college English are students-centered, planned and purposeful language practice activities under the teachers' guidance, with flexible teaching forms and individualized teaching content. Furthermore, college English second classroom activities can construct appropriate English learning circumstances. Learning under these language circumstances, students can have their learning interest highly motivated and their learning efficiency consequently enhanced. On the contrary, conventional college English class is restricted in time and class pattern, which is unfavorable to the communication and collaboration between teachers and students, and students themselves. Second classroom hidden curriculum constructs a pleasant and relaxing language practice environment in which students' communication is natural and necessary, their learning initiative and enthusiasm are enhanced, and their ability to use English to solve problems is accordingly improved.

Empirical Analysis of College English Hidden Curriculum Action Plane: Foreign Languages Experiencing Festival of JAU

The yearly serial college English second classroom activities of Jilin Agricultural University's (JAU for short) "College Students Foreign Languages Experiencing Festival" started in 2004, and by far, it has been held for ten years. The serial "Experiencing Festival" activities have foreign language cultures as the carrier and the theme is "Experiencing English, Experiencing Life, Experiencing Future, and Experiencing Success". The serial activities consist of Foreign Language Singing Contest, English Speech Contest, English Hand-made Newspaper Contest, English Debate Competition, Foreign Languages Short-drama Performance, Foreign Languages Dubbing Contest, Western Culture Appreciation Lecture and Seminar, and English Films Appreciation Seminar, etc.

The Foreign Languages College of JAU, organizer of the "Experiencing Festival", has three working principles. The first principle is to be open and free. Respect students' principal part status, and confer them the right of independently deciding and implementing content, form and organization of all activities while teachers play the role of macro control and individual tuition. The second is the targeting principle. The experiencing activities are based on universality; that is, all freshmen and sophomores are expected to participate in them, but simultaneously, they are designed with different expectations, given that students' interest, desire and language foundation vary from person to person. To those whose English foundation is weak, teachers give them more encouragement and guidance, and to those who have done well in English learning, higher expectations are placed on them and they are given a free hand. Third is the stimulatory principle. Students' participation and performance are incorporated into the assessment system of college English curriculum and given a weighting for their' regular course grades. Those who are actively engaged are rewarded with creative credits. Students' performance is also incorporated as an important indicator into the comprehensive evaluation system of selecting excellent and outstanding students. A teacher stimulatory mechanism is also established, designating quantitative indicators for teachers' work.

"College Students Foreign Languages Experiencing Festival" places stress on students' participation and creativity. Its influence on the campus has expanded year after year. In 2011 and 2012, it attracted more than 8000 students from 12 colleges and 100 teachers, respectively. Through ten years' practice, the "Experiencing Festival" has played an active role in raising students' ideological awareness, nurturing their tastes, widening their English cultural knowledge and cultivating their innovative spirit and practical abilities. Meanwhile, it has become a well-acknowledged exquisite cultural campus activity, playing an important role in building a foreign languages learning atmosphere, promoting school study style construction, enhancing students' quality and developing campus English culture.

In 2013, to give a full play to the second classroom hidden curricula in talent cultivation, on the basis of sufficient investigation and study, JAU officially incorporated the second classrooms into talent cultivation programs, which will be implemented cooperatively by JAU Students' Affairs Office, the Youth League and Foreign Languages College from the following year. JAU plans to formulate assessment principles for the second classrooms, stipulating that students who are not qualified in second classroom quality demonstration will not be granted graduation, the purpose of which is to strengthen the educational influence of second classroom hidden curricula.

Conclusion

Hidden curriculum is an essential component part of college English curriculum system. It is the necessary supplement of manifest curriculum, capable of improving the efficiency of manifest curriculum, aiming at the quality education advocated by higher education. Considering that more and more educators of higher learning are attaching great importance to the implicit and explicit function of hidden curriculum, that researches on this are still in their infancy and its practice is short of theoretical direction, the theoretical study and development of college English hidden curriculum is an important research topic of very high theoretical and practical significance. It will be favorable in improving the quality of college English instruction and to promoting students' all-round development.

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The Reform on English Major in University under CBI Teaching Mode: Taking English Major of Qingdao Agricultural University as an Example

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[Abstract] Facing with the social reality that the reform of English major in Chinese universities is imperative in nationwide, CBI teaching mode, which organically combines language and content, is becoming more acceptable and popular. In order to follow the trend of the reform, the English department in Qingdao Agricultural University put the CBI mode into teaching practice, and obtained some commendable teaching achievements. There are some points in the practice that are worth popularizing to other colleges and universities as well as college English teachers in China.

[Keywords] CBI mode; English major; Teaching reform; Qingdao Agricultural University

Introduction

According to the newest edition of *The Teaching Program of English Major at University*, English department hammers at fostering compound-typed English majors who grasp solid foundation of English language and encyclopedic knowledge, and can skillfully use English language to undertake such jobs as translation, teaching, management, and research in the fields of foreign affairs, education, economy and trade, culture, technology and military affairs. It is very obvious that the newest requirement for foreign language education is to cultivate compound-typed foreign language personnel. The content-based instruction (the abbreviation form is CBI) meets the requirement perfectly, and that is why CBI is valued day by day in college English teaching in China. At present, the CBI mode is practiced in foreign language education in many Chinese colleges and universities, and the practice of CBI obtains some achievements there. In recent years, English department of Qingdao Agricultural University put CBI mode into practice, and took reforms in subject orientation, training objective, curriculum and teachers' scientific research respectively, which achieved obvious success, and many of them are worthy of popularization.

CBI Mode and Its Research Status

CBI is a teaching mode which can achieve the aim of foreign language acquisition via theme-based or content-based teaching. It is the organic integration between language and content which changes educational focus from the pure skill training to the content-centered language learning. After several years of practice, CBI has gradually been developed into the following three modes: theme-based instruction, sheltered subject-matter instruction and adjunct instruction. It does emphasize the use of language, but more importantly, it pays more attention to meet the student's needs on language acquisition, cognitive ability training, vocational demand, hobbies and interests.

For example, taking CBI as a key word to search in Qinghua Tongfang, there are 302 results. The chart below shows the number of the published articles about CBI from 1998 to 2012.

Table 1. The Number of the Published Articles about CBI from 1998 to 2012

Publication Year	12	11	10	09	08	07	06	05	04	03	02	01	00	99	98
Number of articles	81	67	48	33	14	13	13	4	4	3	3	3	1	0	1

It can be seen from the chart that more and more importance is attached to CBI from 1998 to 2012. In their article “The Reviews of CBI Foreign Language Teaching in Recent 15 Years in China on Journal of Shaoguan University”, Gu Feirong and Ji Shengmei from Nanjing Agricultural University pointed out that CBI cannot be simply applied to foreign language teaching in universities in China if it is just understood as a concrete teaching method. Instead, it should be used in teaching practice and experiment to verify its possibility and feasibility of application in foreign language teaching under China’s specific social condition. There are several keywords in this article: practice, China’s specific social condition, possibility and feasibility. Meanwhile, Gu and Ji severely criticized some results in the published articles that lack empirical research, and argued that empirical research is very essential in the CBI research. At the same time, they stressed that CBI is not omnipotent teaching method which can solve all the problems in foreign language teaching, therefore, we should fully consider the real social condition during the process of practice, and scientifically judge its application effect.

In 2012, there were 81 published articles entitled CBI, among which 15 articles contain words like practice, solid evidence or effect. It can be seen that the research of CBI is coming closer and closer to empirical research, which is more significance of practice instruction just as what Gu and Ji expected. Another highlight in the published articles in 2012 is the attempt to combine CBI and the promotion of university teacher’s quality. The articles hold the opinion that the practice of CBI demands the teachers with higher quality, who are expected to have not only profound professional knowledge, but also a keen insight to recognize the real needs of students and society, and can take positive actions to meet the needs. Making demands to college teachers’ cognitive ability is not only one of the key points in the reform of foreign language teaching, but also an effective prescription to the reform of foreign language teaching in China.

The Necessity and Direction of the Reform on English Major

First of all, at present, there are about one million English majors at school in nearly 1000 universities which establishes the English departments in China. The large number of English majors is beyond the reach of any other majors. However, such a large number of English graduates causes heavy burden to the job market in China. Secondly, since English majors spend most of their time in learning and training of language skills, their comprehensive quality is not as high as they are expected. The biggest manifestation is that they lack critical thinking ability. Professor Huang Yuanshen from East China Normal University indicated for several times that the absence of critical thinking ability is a lasting problem for English majors. According to Huang, if this ability is not developed and improved, it is hard for the English majors to survive in our modern society. Consequently, it is necessary to implement reform to improve the students’ quality in nationwide and to solve the survival crisis the English majors are faced with in English department in China.

In recent years, the call for reform on English major is much louder than ever before. The reform mainly involves teaching method and curriculum, which can boil down to the reform of personnel training mode. The personnel training mode of English major has made qualitative leaps from the training of comprehensive skills, such as listening, speaking, reading, writing and translating in the very beginning to

the training of compound-typed students which was put forward recently. The emphasis of English five skills mentioned above takes English learning as a tool, while the advice to cultivate compound-typed and practical talents changes English learning into a subject. The reform orientation of English department in China happens to have the same view with CBI mode, which makes CBI even more popular and valued.

Implementation of Reform –Taking English Major of Qingdao Agricultural University as an Example

Subject Orientation

There are two views about subject orientation in foreign language circle at present: humanities orientation and tool orientation. We believe that orientating a subject should take the following factors into consideration: market requirement, rules of education, quality of students and teachers situation. China is undergoing a conversion from “localizing country” to “internationalizing country”, and its feature of economic globalization is becoming more and more obvious. Under such circumstance, being able to speak a foreign language skillfully is very important, but it is never enough, because what talents the employers want are not those who are good at listening, speaking, reading, writing and translating any more, but those foreign language talents with some professional knowledge, that is “English skills + professional knowledge”. A common feature of all educational activities is to develop students’ abilities, including the ability of acquiring knowledge, the ability of using knowledge, the ability of analyzing problems, the ability of proposing individually, the ability of innovation and so on. But the factors of the quality of students and teachers situation should be judged according to the concrete circumstances of different schools.

The English department of Qingdao Agricultural University belongs to the second batch of universities, which indicates that its students do not have very high quality when they first enter university. Therefore, it attaches great importance to the learning and training of English language skills. Qingdao Agricultural University recruits students from 29 provinces in China, which leads to students’ different expectations for their study and employment based on their diversely social and cultural backgrounds. We learn that most students in the university expect to master some professional knowledge related to English language if they manage to consolidate their basic language skills. In this way, there will not be so many limitations on their major when they have to find jobs. The faculty of the English department of Qingdao Agricultural University all has master degree or above, and they own solid language skills and profound specialized knowledge. The average age of the faculty is about 33 years old, which is, apparently, in comparatively young age. Therefore, they are very sensitive to the trend of their occupation development and like to try and accept new things, which provides favorable humanistic environment for the reform of English teaching.

According to the analyses above, the English department of Qingdao Agricultural University positions itself as instrumental applied humanities, which organically combines English skills and specialized knowledge together. The subject orientation in the English department of Qingdao Agricultural University definitely embodies the teaching idea of CBI mode.

Training Objective

Professor Cai Jigang from Fudan University once pointed out that the training objective of English major should change with the social needs, and always be reflected by personnel training mode. He argues that our society needs those people who master some professional knowledge as well as English language

skills. And the employers no longer want the graduates with only perfect English language knowledge, but those English talents with certain English specialized knowledge, so that the employees can shoulder the work related to English subject with the help of English language skills. Professor Cai believes that such talent demand mainly exists in the fields of press, law, medicine, biology, chemistry, environment, software, electronics and maritime, but more importantly, it will be more common in the overseas-funded enterprises.

As surveys in 2011 and 2012 show, 92% English major graduates from Qingdao Agricultural University are working in private enterprises, overseas-funded enterprises or educational training organizations, taking up jobs in foreign trade, marketing, translation, educational training and secretary in Shandong province. This employment information obviously asks for the personnel training mode of “English skills + professional knowledge” in Qingdao Agricultural University.

Based on the analysis above, the training objective of the English major of Qingdao Agricultural University is to cultivate the compound-typed students with high morality, intelligence and physical development, and also with strong foundation of English language skills, proficient specialized skills, profound Chinese and foreign cultural knowledge and certain knowledge about business, tourism, literature and linguistics, through which they can be engaged in translation, business, management, teaching and scientific research in economy and trade, foreign affairs, cultural education, technology and tourism.

Curriculum

According to the *Teaching Program*, the knowledge hierarchy of English major is divided into three parts, English professional skills, English specialized knowledge and the knowledge related to some subject. In accordance with the *Teaching Program* and based on the school’s own characteristics, the English department of Qingdao Agricultural University has conducted reform in knowledge hierarchy mentioned above.

Class hour of language skills has been increased on the purpose of strengthening language basic skills of English language. For example, the class hour of Interpreting Course is doubled from one semester to two semesters. The class hour of Advanced English is also added to three semesters from two semesters. These adjustments enjoy great popularity from students, because the two courses are quite important and challenging to them.

CBI teaching mode connects subject content with language teaching goal, and teaches subject knowledge and language skills at the same time. The establishment of language courses is to satisfy students’ requirement of certain subject knowledge. Language teaching activities are also carried out to solve problems that they encounter during the process of subject knowledge learning. It just happens that CBI concept has much in common with the curriculum reform of English major. The English department of Qingdao Agricultural University mainly starts the reform with humanity knowledge courses of English-spoken country. So the study hour of English literature and American literature is prolonged from two semesters to four semesters, and the course of A Survey of English-speaking Countries is adjusted from selective course to required course, and two semesters of Intercultural Communication are added as compulsory course.

As to the knowledge related to some subject, universities should determine its content, depth and emphasis based on the concrete factors of their specification of personnel training, situation of students quality and teacher situation. On the basis of its subject orientation, training objective, social needs,

students' interest, the nature of school, the school's geographical location and cultural background, the English department of Qingdao Agricultural University bonds business trading knowledge and English language skills together, and offers some courses related to trade and tourism.

The chart below reveals the arrangement of curriculums after the reform, from which we can see that content-based teaching goes with language teaching, and more emphasis is placed on the cultivation and promotion of students' comprehensive quality.

Table 2. Curriculum Structure of English Department in Qingdao Agricultural University

Courses of Language Skills	English Phonetics
	An Integrated English course I - IV
	Reading Course I - IV
	An Listening course for junior I - II
	An Listening course for senior I - II
	Oral English I - IV
	English Writing I - II
	English Grammar I - II
	English Lexicology
	Advanced English I - III
	Translation I - II
	Interpreting I - II
	Advanced Listening Comprehension I - II
Courses of English Specialized Knowledge	An Introduction to Linguistics I - II
	British Literature I - II
	American Literature I - II
	An Survey of English-speaking Countries I - II
	Academic Paper Writing
	Intercultural Communication I - II
	A Brief Introduction to Chinese Culture
	Translation Theory of China
	Translation Theory of Western Country
	Selected Readings in Foreign Newspapers and Periodicals
Course of Related Subject Knowledge	Advanced Mathematics
	Practice of International Trade
	Business Video and Negotiation I - II
	English for Tourism I - II
	Tour Guide Business
	Commercial Contract Writing
	Electronic Commerce
	Foreign Trade English Correspondence
	Marketing
Translation for Business	
Practice Course	English Language Practice I - VI
	Reading Report of English Masterpiece I - IV
	Translation Practice I - II
	Practice of Professional skills I - II
	Graduation Practice
	Course Paper
Graduation Thesis	

According to such principles as expanding students' horizons, contacting society and diversified forms, the practice course won great popularity among teachers and students, and it also got some prominent achievements. For example, in the practice course of the third grade, students went out of the campus and respectively visited Vegetable Expo in Shouguang and Beer Museum in Qingdao in the last two years, which are both specialty industry and tourist attractions in Shandong province. Before the visits, teachers did not lay out specific assignments for students, but let them show their feelings and inspirations through PowerPoint presentation after visiting. It can be seen from the PowerPoint presentation that these trips mean a lot, because the students' focus is neither some English words explanation or grammar rules teaching, nor some famous English masterpieces or language laws any more, but something interdisciplinary, which the students have seldom even never tried in classroom learning, such as the relationship between modern agriculture and technology in Vegetable Expo, diagnoses of market outlook of some new vegetables or the developing history or working process of Qingdao Beer. By means of such practice, the students developed the abilities of observation, analysis, ratiocination and innovation, and at the same time practiced the learning mode of "subject content + language application" by students themselves.

Teaching Method

There are also some practical attempts in the reform of teaching method in the English department over the past three years. Teachers used to prepare lessons collectively, and now the collective preparation of instruction has been changed through practice. The English department adopted the form of teaching-by-turns so as to develop teachers' biggest professional potential and give full play to their professional advantage. Taking the Advanced English Course as an example, the teaching materials in the course can be divided into three types according to the articles' themes: English literature, English linguistics and culture of English-speaking country. These teaching materials are prepared and taught by teachers who respectively major in English literature, English linguistics and intercultural communication. Thus, the primary instructors for one class are not fixed any more, but several teachers take turns to deliver lectures. After a semester of practice, we conducted a questionnaire survey to all students studying the course. 97% of them said that they liked this form very much for the following reasons: firstly, the different teaching method and teaching style of different teachers can inspire students' study interests more; secondly, the teachers consolidate and broaden English-related knowledge more abundantly, profoundly and thoroughly. The form of teaching-by-turns according to teachers' majors can not only benefit students, but also benefit teachers themselves, which can give free rein to their professional advantage and the teachers deliver lectures with more proficiency and ease.

Scientific Research

Scientific research has always been the assistant undertaking of university education; therefore, Qingdao Agricultural University gives biggest support and encouragement to teachers' scientific research all the time. Faculty of the English department work in an intense but orderly manner, besides, they also undertake many scientific researches, which is an important part of their work. In recent two years, teachers of the English department have a broader scientific research perspective under the consideration of developing outlook of English major and promotion of their quality. Their scientific research is no longer restricted to the pure research of English language; instead, they try hard to find out a connective point between English language and other subjects, and then combine them organically, which makes

their research more directed and practical. For example, there is a scientific group in the English department, whose members all work on English linguistics. The latest task in their scientific research is to set up a language corpus of special English for agriculture on the purpose of analyzing characteristics and laws of English language in essays related to agriculture. The process of establishing the corpus is also a good way to learn something for the members, which provides new direction for their research as well as a new perspective for English linguistics research. More importantly, the corpus will supply English students with greater number of language materials and broader learning fields, which is of great significance.

Only when teachers master English-related professional knowledge or knowledge of other subjects, can they educate students with compound knowledge. The scientific research group studies language in agricultural subject category by virtue of advantage of agriculture in their school, which makeshift the research more concrete and practical. Meanwhile, the research contributes to agricultural English, and it is also an attempt of the combination of CBI and ESP (English for Specific Purposes).

Achievements of the Reform

During the two years of practice of CBI mode in the English department of Qingdao Agricultural University, we have achieved some preliminary success, which is embodied in the following three aspects: the topic choice of students' theses, the choice of postgraduate's major and social employment of graduates. Taking the graduates in 2011 and 2012 as an example, we conducted a survey on their theses topics choice, postgraduate major choice and social employment, and drew the following conclusion: about their theses topic choice, the students choosing English literature as their theses topic accounted for 20% (2011) and 18.7% (2012) respectively of the whole; English linguistics accounted for 17.6% (2011) and 19% (2012); western culture accounted for 18.5% (2011) and 20% (2012); translation accounted for 12% (2011) and 10.5% (2012); 28% (2011) and 26% (2012) of the students chose business English as theses topic and about 4% (2011) and 4.1% (2012) of them chose English language as theses topic. In addition, among students who successfully have passed their postgraduate entrance examinations in these two years, 75% (2011) and 81% (2012) of them chose non-English majors to be their majors in further education, such as journalism, education, law, economics and philosophy. Besides, according to the employment investigation, 85% (2011) and 91% (2012) students took up such jobs as foreign trade, marketing, secretary and tour guide, and only about 15% and 9% (2012) of them hold a post related to English language, such as translation and English teaching. The information of the three aspects mentioned above is obviously different from that before the practice of CBI mode, which also shows that the English majors graduated in 2011 and 2012 mastered more professional knowledge and English-related subject knowledge as well, and they can meet the needs of the modern society better.

Conclusion

CBI mode is one of the directions of the future development of English education in universities. In order to follow this tendency, the English department of Qingdao Agricultural University brings CBI mode into educational practice and obtains great achievements on the basis of its unique features in geographical location, students sources and teacher resources. In the future work of education, the English department will deepen the reform, enrich its content and actively feedback its results to enlarge the educational significance and practice-guiding significance of CBI mode.

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An Overview of the Empirical Studies of Hedges and Boosters in English and Chinese Written Discourses

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[Abstract] This paper gives an overview of the empirical studies of hedges and boosters made in English and Chinese written discourses, both at home and abroad. Inspiring results are introduced and limitations and possibilities of further research are elaborated.

[Keywords] empirical study; hedges; boosters; metadiscourse

Introduction

Hedges and boosters, as two major interactional metadiscourses, are found largely employed in discourses. Hedges have a longer history traced back to the 1970s. G. Lakoff (1972) was the first to define hedges as “words whose job is to make things fuzzier or less fuzzy” (p. 195). Zadeh (1972), Prince, et al. (1982), and Meyer (1994) divided hedges into varied categories. Those taxonomies enjoyed the most popularity among the researchers in the following decades.

Later, Hyland’s categorization of interactional metadiscourse brought “boosters” into view (1998). Boosters indicate the linguistic expressions to emphasize certainty and close dialogue (Hyland, 2005) by expressing authorial commitment to a proposition (Crismore, et al., 1993) and constructing rapport by marking involvement with the topic and solidarity with an audience, taking a joint position against other voices (Hyland, 2005). Hedges, on the other hand, are the self-reflective ones which withhold commitment and open dialogue (Hyland, 2005) by allowing writers to express propositions with greater precision, helping writers avoid personal responsibility for statements and contributing to the development of a writer-reader relationship, addressing the need for respect and cooperation in gaining readers’ ratification of claims (Hyland, 1998). Therefore, Hedges and boosters are opposite in affecting the illocutionary force of the speech acts with one attenuating or modifying the force but the other strengthening or boosting the force though they both perform the interpersonal function in discourses.

It is necessary to distinguish hedges and boosters in the sense that significant differences have been found between them in varied languages, genres and disciplines. As metadiscourse is likely to reflect cultural norms, values and belief systems prevailing in discourse communities which constitute social contexts of texts, looking into those variances would certainly contribute to cross-cultural, social, pragmatic, cognitive, and functional linguistics, etc. This paper is to give an overview of the empirical studies of hedges and boosters made in English and Chinese written discourses both at home and abroad and elaborate the limitations and possibilities of further research in this field.

Synchronic Empirical Studies of Hedges and Boosters in English and Chinese Written Discourses

The investigation into the use of hedges and boosters has long seized scholars’ attention over the past decades. This overview focuses on significant research results concerning the use of hedges and boosters in English and Chinese written discourses. It turns out that academic writing research plays an

overwhelmingly predominant role in this field. Meanwhile, synchronic studies outnumber diachronic studies dramatically. Additionally, multiple hedges and combined use of hedges and boosters are prone to be promising fields yielding interesting results in the future.

Cross-linguistic Contrast

Hu & Feng (2011) made a comparative study of hedges and boosters in abstracts of applied linguistic articles in English- and Chinese-medium journals. The results reveal that Chinese Abstracts in Chinese journals has a markedly lower frequency of hedges and a higher frequency of boosters as compared with the English abstracts in English journals. The Chinese authors sounded more authoritative and confident, whereas the English counterparts appeared more prudent and tentative. They mark their knowledge claims as provisional and avoid making strong generalizations. Gao's study (2005) further proves the claim that Chinese with L1 influence prefer to use strong assertions in their rhetoric. Chinese scholars are found to use boosters more frequently than the natives (3.13 vs 4.97). Whereas native scholars tend to use far more hedges than the Chinese do in English research articles of applied linguistics (13.17 vs 8.95).

While comparing the English abstracts in English and Chinese journals, Hu & Feng (2011) claimed that significant differences were found in the use of hedges, but not in the use of boosters in English and Chinese journals. The plausible explanation for the markedly lower incidence of hedges lies in the incompetent English proficiency of the Chinese applied linguists.

Similar variance can be found in students' writings. Hyland and Milton (1997) comparing the English writings of Hong Kong and UK undergraduates, found that the latter made far more use of hedges. Li and Wharton's study (2012) on the English academic writings of two groups of Chinese students in mainland China and the U. K. drew similar conclusion, i.e., the former seem to use hedges and boosters in equal proportion, but the latter use more hedges, indicating a preference to diminish their commitment to propositions.

Those salient differences can be attributed to epistemological beliefs and cultural-specific rhetorical strategies resulted from philosophical traditions and pragmatic concerns, etc. China has been moving fast towards positivism which results in less use of hedges as a gesture of showing assertiveness while the applied linguistics in the west are shifting from positivism towards constructivism which leads to more use of tentative and negotiating expressions (Hyland, 2005). What's more, with the historical roots in Socratic and Aristotelian philosophical traditions, Anglo-American cultures value questioning and independently evaluating received knowledge and engaging in debate and formal argumentation as a canonical form of knowledge construction. In contrast, Chinese writers with their pedigree in Confucian and Taoism traditions are characterized by a respect for essential, authoritative knowledge and a tendency to rely on prior beliefs and experience in problem solving (Peng & Nisbett, 1999). Furthermore, different pragmatic concerns for politeness also contribute to the differences in hedges and boosters use. Anglo-American's resentment of impositions lead to the use of hedging as a negative affective strategy (Brown and Levinson, 1987).

However, different results appear in Xu's research (2011). He compared the academic writings of Chinese advanced learners with those of the native experts and found that both hedges and boosters were more frequently used by native writers than Chinese English learners. Wu's research (2010) yields relevant results. It was found that in conclusion part of academic papers hedges were more than boosters in both English and Chinese research papers, and surprisingly hedges and boosters all surpass the Chinese

counterparts in number. It is argued that English writers pay more attention to interaction with readers whereas Chinese writers try to establish objectivity by avoiding personal involvement.

Genre-Based Differences

Academic writings. Statistics show that academic writing is extensively hedged. At least one hedge can be found in every two or three sentences (Skelton, 1988). A number of studies have ascertained the role of hedges in academic discourse. In a 330,000 words corpus of 56 articles from eight widely different disciplines, Hyland found hedges averaged 14.6 per 1,000 words, or about 85 cases per paper (1999a). And over 70% of all hedges occurred in the humanities/social science papers and were over twice as frequent per 1,000 words in philosophy, marketing and linguistics, as in physics and engineering. Salager-Meyer (1994) also found review articles were more heavily hedged than research papers. This is probably due to the reason that writers in the soft fields, as compared with the hard science, can generally assume less about what they can taken as given knowledge and the kinds of claims that readers are likely to accept therefore the claim has to be expressed more cautiously, using more hedges (Hyland, 2005).

Hyland (1998) also compared the frequencies of hedges and boosters in 56 research articles in eight disciplines. The result shows that hedges exceeded boosters by nearly 3 to 1, reflecting the critical importance of both distinguishing fact from opinion in academic discourse and the need for claims to be presented provisionally rather than assertively. And a clear distinction exists between the hard and soft disciplines. Over 70% of all hedges occurred in the humanities/social science papers and they were over twice as frequent in philosophy, marketing and linguistics, as in physics and engineering. However, no big discrepancies can be found in the number of boosters in the 8 disciplines. Li (2006) also explored hard and soft disciplines in Chinese. Hard papers manifest scarcity of both hedges and boosters in that they are abundant with quantitative data which by they are persuasive enough to convince the readers therefore there is no need for hedging or boosting.

However, the above statistics amazingly run contrary to the situation in abstracts. Gillaerts, et al. (2010) examined a corpus of three decades of English abstracts in the field of applied linguistics and reported that there were more boosters and less hedges in abstracts than in research papers. And boosters even overtake the frequency of hedges in abstracts. The fact that abstracts show more affinity with boosting rather than with hedging as in contrast to research articles links up with the functional differences of the two text types. Besides summarizing, abstracts also have a promotional function as an advertising means for attracting readers to the full-length text of the research article therefore boosters are the most effective means of interaction marking.

Furthermore, Hu and Feng's research (2011) indicated that the abstracts of the empirical research articles in applied linguistics used significantly more boosters than the abstracts of the non-empirical articles, i.e., review articles, theoretical articles, methodological articles, etc. Authors are expected to be less visible in empirical research articles than in the non-empirical ones in that empirical evidence collected systematically is likely to be perceived as providing backing that is firm enough to warrant the use of boosters to convey a considerable level of certainty, conviction and committal (Hyland, 2005).

Apart from research articles and abstracts, more hedges (28.1%) than boosters (13.3%) were found in 18 English book reviews (Yi, 2011) for conveying commitment to the book contents and respect for readers.

Textbooks, as accredited knowledge, contain fewer hedged propositions (Myers, 1992). And a comparison of research articles and university textbooks also shows that hedges are almost three times

more common in the former (Hyland, 1999b). The low occurrence of hedges in textbooks can be attributed to the authoritative role of the editors.

Other genres. Wang (2012) examined 45 English advertising discourses and found that hedges (5%) are much less than boosters (20%) in proportion. As comparing the results in Hyland's (1998) and Chen's (2009) studies, there is no significant difference between hedges in American tourism advertisements and English research articles but apparently more boosters are found in advertising discourses. It is argued that overstatements are usually preferred for product promotion and boosters are to imply certainty and emphasize the force of the proposition and to mitigate the consumers' burden and help them to overcome the kind of moral dilemma they face when confronted with the possibility of acquiring something they do not really need (Fuertes-Olivera, et al., 2001).

Based on two corpuses of 30 Chinese and English news commentaries respectively (Huang and Xiong, 2012), statistics show that both the hedges and boosters in English news commentaries outnumber those in the Chinese counterparts. What is surprising is that more boosters were found in the English corpus though boosters apparently have higher frequency than hedges in Chinese news commentaries that might suggest Chinese news commentary writers' preference for achieving objectivity and credibility with unquestionable assertion and personal invisibility.

Zhang (2012) examined Chinese modal adverbs of certainty in 7 disciplines. Statistics indicate that the degrees of subjectivity and interaction in writings are the decisive factors for the frequency of boosters. Modal adverbs of certainty are found more in interviews, novels, comic dialogues, and occasionally appearing in editorials and academic writings and seldom in expository writings and articles of law.

Fu (2010) constructed a corpus of 680 English texts in three genres: scientific popularization articles, opinion texts, and job postings. Statistics show hedges are frequently used in scientific popularization articles and opinion texts but notably less in job postings, but boosters in job postings outnumber the others though hedges appear to be much more than boosters in all the three genres.

In conclusion, the use of hedges and boosters vary across languages, genres and disciplines but one thing is certain that it is regulated both by general rules of communication, social norms and rhetorical practices in the particular community.

Multiple Hedges and Combinations of Hedges and Boosters

Another interesting angle to take is multiple hedges. Hyland's corpus of 240 academic research articles has shown us that the presence of multiple hedges in academic text is quite strong; double hedging may occur as commonly as in 40% of hedged expressions, and triple hedging seems to occur at around a rate of 30% of double-hedged expressions. Françoise Salager-Meyer's (1994) found multiple hedges occur most frequently in the Discussion section, relatively frequently in the Introduction section, and not very frequently in the Methods and Results sections. The results of Banks' corpus-based study (1994) of eleven scientific articles results in 58 sentences, which possess multiple hedging device. The conclusion is that multiple hedging is an acceptable and useful strategy – but it should not be overdone.

Banks (1994) also speaks of “trimmed” hedges, which are de-emphasized hedges or combinations of hedges and “boosters”. According to his research, multiple hedges are much more common and occur in many more varieties than do trimmed hedges. However, Gillaerts, et al.'s study (2010) clearly shows an increased popularity in the combined use of hedges and boosters. In other words, boosters are increasingly less often used on their own. The increasing trimmed hedges could be explained by a shift in

rhetorical ethos. It is argued that scholarly credibility is currently established by a deliberate, cautious expression of scientific claims, rather than by the authoritative stance of an “omniscient” academic. In order to mitigate a strong presence of the author’s stance, it would be reasonable to put boosters under the scope of an extra hedge. What’s more, the combination of hedges and boosters may help writers create a credible image of authority and help to achieve the affective and credible appeal (Ai, 2012).

Diachronic Empirical Studies of Hedges and Boosters in Written Discourses

Gillaerts, et al.’s diachronic study (2010) of research article abstracts in the field of applied linguistics in *Journal of Pragmatics* over a period of 30 years (80s, 90s, 00s) shows that hedges rise in frequency throughout the former 2 decades, albeit not in a linear way. However, boosters constituting the most popular class of interactional devices in any period neither gain nor lose relative importance over time but drop slightly in number. A plausible answer to the fall in the use of boosters is due to a converging move of (applied) linguistics towards the hard sciences, with a growing emphasis on empirical studies.

Cui (2011) also looked into the development of hedges and boosters in English abstract of Chinese linguistic journals. Her corpus covers 15 years from 1996 to 2010 and is divided into 3 phases. Hedges showed an upward and then downward progress, however, boosters kept increasing over the years and even overtook hedges slightly during the last phase. The results suggest that Chinese writers used to ignore interaction with readers via hedges but were gradually influenced by the western writers, later shifted to overuse of hedges around the second phase whereas recently become more rational with the use of hedges. On the other hand, the increasing growth of boosters reveals that Chinese writers prefer to bring forth opinions straightforward, assertively and close dialogue and ignore opposite ideas to intensify proposition certainty to convince the readers.

Li (2006) conducted an inspiring comparison between “Wen Yan Wen” (WYW: writings in classical Chinese) and Modern Chinese Writings (MCW) and found that hedges and boosters can hardly be found in WYW which probably reveal that traditionally Chinese writings are writer-centered and reader-responsible, that is, writers were likely to encode discourses based on their own epistemological system and language competence without much emphasis on form. But since the May 4th Movement (an anti-imperialist, anti-feudal, political and cultural movement in China in 1919) Chinese writings, inherited from WYW, have absorbed much from “Bai Hua Wen” (writings in vernacular) prevailing during Ming and Qing Dynasties and meanwhile have been influenced by western concepts and English language via translation of their works. MCW generally shifts in its encoding mode with interactive purposes manifested more overtly in form. Chinese writings used to be featured with “parataxis” with more emphasis on meaning, fuzziness, implication and covert relation determined by traditional Chinese philosophy and aesthetics but now are liable to develop into “hypotaxis” with focus on form.

Conclusion

As shown in the above empirical research, hedges and boosters in English and Chinese discourses manifest the following features:

1. The use of hedges and boosters differ greatly between Chinese and English due to varied cultural norms, epistemic beliefs, pragmatic concerns, etc. which conjunctively result in differing rhetorical practices.

2. The distribution and frequency differences between hedges and boosters are genre-specific. Scholars found significant variation lies in the use of the two particular metadiscursive devices in varied genres and disciplines.
3. The study of multiple hedges and the combinations of hedges and boosters in English and Chinese discourses might be interesting perspectives to take. Much data has shown that multiple hedges and combined use of hedges and boosters exist in great number in English discourses. Little concern has been shown to Chinese discourses in this aspect.
4. Synchronic empirical studies of hedges and boosters not only contribute to the enrichment of function discussion in varied languages, genres, disciplines but also assist in revealing cultural differences, epistemic beliefs, rhetoric practices, social norms, pragmatic concerns, etc.
5. Diachronic studies of hedges and boosters are indispensable and supplementary to synchronic studies in that they could render insights into the development of language, society, culture and ideology, etc.

There are also some limitations to be considered.

1. The classification system of hedges and boosters is not uniform. Many researchers apply the taxonomies made by Meyer (1994) and Hyland (2004) which differ greatly in that the former covers more domains than the latter. Since the theoretical foundations differ, data collected may not be consistent enough. Standard principle should be set as to how to define hedges and boosters and the subcategories should be clearly classified.
2. Most studies of hedges and boosters concentrate on academic writings, but less has been done to other genres. Diachronic studies of hedges and boosters are far from being sufficient, though many interesting mysteries are left to be disclosed. The scope of study should be broadened and more factors require consideration.

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Incorporating Second Life into Business English Instruction in Universities in China

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[Abstract] Due to the constraints of reality, students of Business English major in China are usually lack of the opportunities of observing or involving in the actual use of business English. To solve this problem, this paper tries to explore the ways of incorporating Second Life into Business English instruction and introduced three teaching models. The potential advantages and disadvantages of the incorporation are also discussed in the paper.

[Keywords] Second Life; Business English instruction; teaching models

Introduction

One of the problems business English teachers in China often encounter is that learners barely have the opportunity to observe and practice the language in real life. Researchers have proposed several ways to solve this problem either by improving textbooks or incorporating visuals into the class. However, none of these methods can bring the students into a relatively real situation. Second Life, as one of the most popular virtual worlds, has received wide attention in both education and business field. In this paper, we introduce a business English teaching model that incorporates Second Life into instruction. The paper discusses three possible ways of incorporating Second Life into the instruction, namely, observation, role play, and interaction. The benefits and challenges of the model are also included in the paper.

Literature Review

Business English Teaching

Business English has close connection to the real business world. Successful teaching should enable students to understand the operation process of business world, familiarize themselves with business activities and learn business communication skills. One of obstacles that business English teaching faces is classroom teaching and traditional printed teaching materials cannot provide sufficient experience and knowledge of business reality. In addressing this problem, educators and researchers have discussed how to facilitate classroom learning and provide students with real-world or quasi business experience.

Some researchers have been focusing on the problems of textbook. In studying business English textbooks, Tarnopolsky (2002) found that the present textbooks are lacking in cultural relevance. He suggested that ideal textbook should include features such as “use of continuous simulation, promotion of student autonomy in learning business English, use of student project activities, use of the integrated skill approach, use of cooperative learning, and introduction of a fictitious setting” (p. 1). The ideal format of textbook of Tarnopolsky, however, is actually far beyond the scope of textbooks.

Since the traditional printed textbooks is not enough to satisfy students’ needs, more scholars began to discuss the application of multi-media resources such as audio, visuals and internet. For instance, Adamson (2005) suggested using the so-called real world marketing visuals. Compared with what was printed on business English textbook, the ‘real-world marketing graphics’ is better resource to facilitate

students to practice more precise business vocabulary to describe marketing-related content. However, the 'real-world' graphics are still not as real as what people actually do in the real business world.

In 1998, Tarnopolsky advocated a method of teaching which focuses on the classroom approach that incorporates imaginative continuous simulations and critical analysis tasks. He explained that the focus of imaginative continuous simulations is "uninterrupted modeling of business activities and communication, with conditions and processes invented by the learners" (p. 1). For situation, he refers to varied business scenes such as negotiation and meeting. Simulations should begin with a certain topic and continues throughout the course until all scenes are covered. We propose that Second Life has the potential to satisfy the conditions required by Tarnopolsky's method through providing students with the imaginative continuous scenes and fictions setting.

What is Second Life

Second Life is an immersive and interactive virtual reality environment that is as complex as the real world. It was created by the founder and CEO of Linden Lab, Philip Rosedale who was inspired by the 1992 novel *Snow Crash*.

Second Life is comprised of simulations known as islands and there are two types of land available in Second Life: main land and private estates. "Main land is land that may be purchased directly from Linden Lab or from individual real estate agents" (Sanchez, 2009, p. 5). A monthly fee must be paid in addition to the purchase price in order to maintain the use of it. "Private estates are typically purchased by a single person or an organization and are then divided into smaller pieces for designated projects or sold to other users" (Sanchez, 2009, p. 5). Private estates can be separated from the main land in Second Life and the residents can control the access to their own spaces (Sanchez, 2009). The users or the residents in Second Life are called avatars who have the ability to construct and create content. The residents can explore, build, socialize and participate in their own activities. Furthermore, Second Life even has its own currency – Linden Dollar with an exchange rate that fluctuates between L\$263- L\$270 to each U.S. dollar (Steel, 2006). Communication in Second Life typically occurs as text chat or through voice chat. Both voice and text chat can be sent through an open channel, a private instant messaging channel, or a group-message channel. Additionally, during events like conferences or concerts, communication may occur through streaming media from a real-life place into Second Life.

Second Life is different from other virtual world in several aspects. First, Second Life has developed its own tools for building and the world is built entirely by its residents. Second, multi-media resources such as animation, sound, video, and textures can be developed outside Second Life and easily brought into the environment. Third, in-world residents can own property and interact with objects created by others. Finally, Second Life has networking tools for organizing contacts and for seeing who is online at any one time.

Second Life in the Field of Education

Educators are among the first to explore the potential of second life to facilitate education. For example, Harvard University has been offering the course of "Law in the court of Public Opinion" in Second Life since 2006. It is reported that approximately three quarters of UK universities are actively developing or using Second Life, at the institution, departmental or individual academic level (Rufer-Bach, 2009). Researchers and teachers have been trying to draw pedagogical implications from the use of Second life. In Second Life, educators can design and manipulate the learning environment and participants can

communicate with each other simultaneously. These advantages make it possible for educators to organize and conduct conversations, lectures, debates, presentations, tutorials, etc in Second Life, which can resemble or even surpass the real-life classroom.

Second Life in the Field of Business

In Second Life, the residents can create and sell various objects, skills and services, through which a market economy has been founded in-world. Because the in-world fortunes (Linden dollars) can be cashed out for real-life fortunes through a variety of means, the business activities in Second Life are very different in nature (Shen & Eder, 2009). Some businesses are real businesses through which residents are able to cash out money. A lot more are hobby businesses and some are just role play (Rufer-Bach, 2009). There is a growing body of academic literature that explores the use of virtual worlds and avatars in business. V-commerce, or Virtual Commerce, describes the integrative use of the 3-D Internet and virtual worlds to market products and services (Bell, 2009). Second Life is a platform that has attracted growing interests from many big companies. Although some companies established their virtual business on Second Life mainly to attract media's coverage, there is still great potential for businesses to thrive on Second Life (Rufer-Bach, 2009).

The Application of Second Life in Business English Instruction

The application of Second Life in business English course can take different forms. For example, the course can be conducted completely in the virtual world as a form of distance learning. This paper focuses on introducing some possible activities that can be incorporated to supplement the traditional instruction.

Role Play

In business English, students usually learn the languages that are used in different business occasions, such as conference, negotiation, merge and acquisition. In order to strengthen the language knowledge for different scenarios, teachers usually organize some role play activities in the traditional classroom setting. These activities, however, can be very time-consuming and students may easily get distracted when they are facing their classmates. Besides, teachers cannot examine the effects of each group. The ability to create content in Second Life provides educators an exceptional platform for creating role-playing activities (Sanchez, 2009). Teachers can set a particular occasion and assign different roles to a group of students. Students will be required to participate in the business activities in their own roles in applying what they have learned in the traditional class to accomplish the task together. Take negotiation for example, teachers could set, in Second Life, a virtual conference room which resembles the real conference room and students need to choose appropriate costumes for their avatars before conducting the activity. In this way, the students are able to experience the relatively real environment and atmosphere. And because the activity is conducted after class, the students have the freedom to decide the time for their own negotiation as long as they can finish it before the deadline set by the teacher. After the negotiation, the students should present the teacher with their recordings of the voice and text communication. A snap photo of the conference should also be submitted to the teacher so that teachers can provide feedbacks to each group of students.

Observation

Business English does not only involve the language used in the real-life communication, but also include many technical terms such as the names of different divisions and different processes in a production line. Familiarizing the students with the technical terms is one of the objectives in the course of business. However, the explanations and examples in the textbook usually distance the students with these terms. It is important for the students to observe the usage of the terms in real-life environment. As a tour of an English company may not be very realistic to the students in the China context, Business English teachers can solve this problem by offering the students opportunities to visit the virtual companies established in Second Life. In Second Life located many famous companies, such as IBM, Dell, and Adidas, which represent the most recognizable businesses in the world. Students can teleport to any of the destinations they want to explore. They can take a visit to the administrative building of IBM, or observe the manufacturing activities in Second Life. Schiller (2009) provided a very good example of utilizing Second Life to facilitate business teaching. In her project, students can visit the car production line on Nissan's island, "experimenting with concept cars and giving feedback on the message machines" (Schiller, 2009, p. 373). Through this observation and experience with the virtual environment, the technical terms become meaningful to the students. When applying this activity, teachers should make preparation by searching the environments that are related to the contents covered in class and text books. Each student will be required to visit one of the locations listed by the teachers. After their visit, students should bring a snapshot of the place and complete a learning journal to reflect on the learning experience on Second Life.

Interaction

When students are playing different roles in Second Life, no matter how real the environment and costumes are, it is still not the real business activity that students conduct. In the situation of visiting and observing the virtual companies, students can only familiarize themselves with the business vocabularies they have learned. There is, however, no opportunity left for them to practice the conversation with the native speakers during the business conducts. One biggest advantage of second life is that it can overcome the physical distance and bring people of different countries to a virtual face-to-face communication. With the aim of making full use of this advantage, teachers can design activities to create interactions. Students can start with the most simple business transactions and move to more complex ones as they gain more knowledge about second life and more experiences in doing the businesses. For instance, teachers can give students some seed money and ask them to use the money to purchase clothing or accessories for their avatars or buy a piece of furniture or artwork. They must conduct the purchasing on an English-speaking island in Second Life. The chat logs should be saved for teacher's review. And students are also required to take snapshot of their avatar with the environment.

Benefits from Teaching Business English through Second Life

Compared with business course in the traditional classroom setting, Second Life may offer more benefits to the students. First, using virtual world games such as Second Life can arouse students' interest and motivate them in learning the course. The new generation of students is growing up on computer games, and this is changing their expectations of and demands on education. Therefore, as teachers, we need to engage the learners by catering to their interests and thus they will be more motivated in the learning activities. Second Life is a suitable tool to achieve this goal.

Second, with the highly immersive and interactive environment, learning can be very active through both individual and team activities. According to social constructivist and sociocultural theories, interaction itself is a key element of learning. In the learning activities on Second Life, students who are placed in a particular environment where they either need to communicate with the native-speaker strangers or cooperate with their classmates, or turn to teachers for help. All of the activities involve active interactions with the environments and people within them. Therefore, learning can take place under such conditions.

Third, Second Life can provide students with the opportunity to practice the language with native speakers. In the real classroom, students have limited access to the native speakers of English. Even though the languages in which the native speakers conduct business are introduced to the class, it is difficult for the students to practice the language with them. Second Life can provide an open platform that enables spontaneous meetings with native English speakers who are physically very far away.

Fourth, the 3D space offered by Second Life can give the language learners a sense of presence and authenticity. For example, a language exercise of introducing the city to the customer during a city tour can actually be placed in a 'real action' with the pre-created the scenario. This may give the students more sense of realness in the communication. Sanchez's (2009) interview with the students who took literature course suggests that when they were placed into the scenario with the costumes, they will feel more connected to the other roles in the activity, which cannot be achieved by classroom role-play activities.

Challenges in Applying Second Life in Business English Teaching

In the context of China, incorporating Second Life into Business English teaching may face the following challenges and barriers: First, financial issue may impede the application of Second Life in China. Second Life requires users to have high performance computer, high bandwidth both in school and at home. In the reality of China, very few universities can afford a large number of computers with advanced installation. Furthermore, if a university plans to establish a territory on Second Life, it must pay for the monthly service fee, which is not a small sum of money and subjected to change from time to time. Even for individual users, in order to perform certain tasks or conduct activities, they must have the virtual dollars. Therefore, the financial status of the universities and their willingness to devote into the project may greatly influence the application of Second Life in China.

Second, students' dropping rate might be high. As noted by Sanchez (2009), because of the high learning curve, Second Life loses 90% of new users" (Sanchez, 2009, p. 5). Contrary to students' expectation, the first few weeks of experience in Second Life may turn out to be very tough for them. Students need to devote a considerable amount of time and efforts to accomplish a seemingly easy task. For the students who are less skillful in computer operation, it may take even longer to familiarize themselves with Second Life.

Third, for some of the EFL learners in China, their relatively low English proficiency might pose difficulty for them to adjust to the settings of the whole website. They might feel puzzled and frustrated in the English-only environment on Second Life and thus withdraw from it. Besides, students' lack of cultural knowledge and conversational skills may also bring trouble to them. Therefore, teachers' intervention, guidance and encouragement will be essential to help students stay.

Fourth, time zone difference is another challenge for Chinese users. The default Second Life time is Pacific Time, however, most residents only consider their local time. In order to observe or conduct

business activities in Second Life, students might need to stay up late. Otherwise, there will be far less the opportunities to observe the business activities and establish communications with native speakers.

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Research on the Cultivation of University Students' Critical Thinking Skills in the Newly Founded Local Universities

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[Abstract] Inquiry-based learning is a new kind of teaching and learning method. This study was designed to discover whether inquiry-based learning could improve ethnic minority university students' critical thinking dispositions compared with traditional teaching approach. After one year experiment, the study reveals that inquiry-based learning can effectively promote college students' critical thinking dispositions, and the improvement can be found in all the seven subscales of critical thinking dispositions, especially, significant in self-confidence, inquisitiveness and systematicity.

[Keywords] newly-founded local universities; university students; critical thinking skills

Introduction

Critical Thinking (CT) plays an important role in the integrated development of college students. A large number of researchers and organizations have stressed the importance of CT at home and abroad. Educational systems in North America, the UK (Bailin, Case, Coombs, & Daniels, 1999) and in Asia Pacific countries, such as Singapore and Australia, have embarked on reforms in which critical thinking is placed as a key component of their educational objectives. On the other hand, inquiry-based learning is a new kind of teaching method to facilitate the students' subject learning and thinking ability.

Both inquiry-based learning and critical thinking have been attracted researchers' attention. Haury (1993) found that inquiry-based learning enhances students' learning achievement, especially in the aspects of problem solving skills, ability to explain data, critical thinking, and understanding of concepts. Some studies indicate that inquiry-based instruction in STEM courses improves critical thinking skill (Ernst, & Monroe, 2006; Quitadamo, & Kurtz, 2007). Ian J. Quitadamo, et al. (2008) found that community-based inquiry helps improve critical-thinking skill in general education biology...and essential learning outcomes like critical thinking.

Although critical thinking has drawn much attention in the field of medical training and science teaching at home and abroad, when it comes to the foreign language teaching, there are few studies presented in this field, especially the empirical research on the implement of inquiry-based learning to cultivate the critical thinking disposition in the context of college English teaching in China.

Therefore, it is necessary and significant to conduct this research. This study intends to answer the following questions:

1. Whether inquiry-based learning affect students' critical thinking disposition or not?
2. How does inquiry-based learning affect students' critical thinking disposition in the context of college English teaching?

Methodology

Research Design

The study was implemented in Jiu Jiang University in the College English teaching which lasted one academic year (from June. 2012 to June 2013). The participants were all freshmen majoring in civil engineering who were distributed into two groups (treatment group vs. control group), which would be conducted inquiry-based learning and traditional teaching model, respectively.

The study applied quantitative and qualitative methods to investigate the questions of this thesis. The changes of subjects' critical thinking dispositions in the two groups were explored by the quantitative study (Critical Thinking Inventory Disposition Test).

The participants' critical thinking disposition and their responses to the teaching approach were measured pre and after the experiment by quantitative and qualitative instruments. The variables of this experiment were controlled, showing no difference in critical thinking disposition and English proficiency in pretest between the treatment group and the control group. All the data has been analyzed by the statistical system (SPSS 13.0).

Subjects

A total of 76 freshmen, 46 males and 20 females, from a provincial university in Jiang Xi province were recruited as the participants. Participants were from two intact classes taking the College English course as a requirement. 38 of the 76 students were in the treatment group, while 38 were in the control group. The researcher instructed both the treatment group and the control group. What's more, the treatment group and control group showed no statistical differences in their English proficiency and critical thinking disposition prior to the experiment.

Instrument

CTDI-CV is adopted from the California Critical Thinking Disposition Inventory, which is the only instrument measuring a person's disposition towards or away from critical thinking. It has conceptual equivalence with the CCTDI, which is culturally sensitive to be applied in Chinese-speaking students (Peng, & Wang 2004). The CTDI-CV is a paper-pencil test consisting of 70 items to which students indicate their level of agreement or disagreement on a six-point Likert scale. The maximum score for each scale is 60, a score lower than 40 indicates that the individual is weak in that disposition whereas someone who scores higher than 50 is strong in that disposition (Facione, & Facione, 1992). The maximum total score possible on CCTDI-CV is 420. According to Facione (1992), an overall score of 350 or more indicates relative strength on each of the seven scales. A score below 280 indicates overall weak dispositions to critical thinking.

Teaching Procedures

The treatment group and control group would be conducted inquiry-based learning and traditional teaching model respectively. In the treatment group, The Grammar-Translation Method was conducted in the college English teaching. The focus of this method is on the grammar, words explanation and the language skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing. The research cycle method was applied in the control group. The teaching procedures are as follows:

QUESTIONING
PLANNING
GATHERING
SORTING & SIFTING

SYNTHESIZING
EVALUATING
---->REPORTING

(After several repetitions lead to INSIGHT).
(McKenzie, 1996)

All of these phases were described in more detail in a 6 part series of articles published by Technology Connection (McKenzie, 1995).

Data Collection

Critical Thinking Disposition Test and English Proficiency Tests were adopted to measure the impact of IBL on the development of their critical thinking dispositions and English proficiency. In the beginning of the year, in June 2012, both groups received a pre-test which consisted of English Proficiency Test and CTDI-CV test. Seventy-six (76) valid critical thinking disposition testing papers and 76 valid English proficiency testing papers were collected after the tests. At the end of the experiment in June 2013, both two groups were given the same CTDI-CV test and the same levels of difficulty of English proficiency test as the post-test. After the tests, 76 valid critical thinking disposition test papers and 76 valid English proficiency tests were collected.

Results and Discussion

Group Statistics of Overall Critical Thinking Disposition of the two groups in the pre-test and post-test are shown in the following table (Group1 = Control Group; Group 2 = Treatment Group):

Table 1. Group Statistics of Overall Scores of Critical Thinking Disposition

Group		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Number of Positive CT
Pre-test	1	38	197.21	26.17	4.24	1
	2	38	195.31	22.14	3.55	1
Post-test	1	38	201.56	30.28	4.73	6
	2	38	215.49	28.68	4.48	13

From Table 1, it could be found that there was little difference between the control group and treatment group on the critical thinking disposition in the pre-test. The mean score of the overall critical thinking disposition of the control group and treatment group was 197.21 and 195.31 respectively. The number of positive critical thinker whose score is above 280 was the same which is one in the both two groups. However, after one-year experiment in the post-test, the mean scores of overall critical thinking disposition of the two groups were changed greatly. The mean score of the control group was 201.56, and the treatment group went up to 215.49. When it comes to the positive critical thinker, the number of the two groups was also growing. The number of control group was from 1 in the pre-test to 6 in the post-test, while the treatment group was 1 to 13. To conclude, after one year teaching, the number of the subjects with positive critical thinking disposition of the two groups had been increased.

Table 2. Independent Samples T-Test of Overall Scores of Critical Thinking Disposition

Test	Sig.	t	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
Pre-test	.71	.34	.74	.15
Posttest	.71	-2.14	.04*	-13.93

Note: * $p < .05$

Table 2 is the illustration of independent samples t-test of the overall critical thinking disposition of the two groups in pretest and posttest. In the pretest, the treatment group and the control group made no significant difference in their critical thinking disposition ($t=0.34$, $p=0.74$); in the posttest, there were significant differences in their critical thinking disposition between two groups ($t=-2.14$, $p=0.04 < 0.05$). The statistics show that the IBL teaching enhances the students' critical thinking dispositions.

The CTDI-CV was adopted to measure seven subscales of the critical thinking dispositions: analyticity, self-confidence, inquisitiveness, maturity, open-mindedness, systematicity, and truth seeking.

Table 3. Descriptive Statistics of Subscale Scores of Critical Thinking Disposition

Variable	Test	Control Group			Treatment Group				
		N+	Mean	SD	N+	Mean	SD	t	p
Truth-Seeking	Pre-test	5	32.53	6.75	5	32.11	6.07	.286	.78
	Post-test	9	33.15	7.96	17	33.80	8.30	-.366	.72
Open-mindedness	Pre-test	1	28.08	5.72	1	28.05	5.33	.022	.98
	Post-test	4	29.07	6.03	7	29.46	6.93	-.272	.79
Analyticity	Pre-test	0	26.16	5.56	0	25.82	4.95	.281	.78
	Post-test	1	26.80	5.19	4	27.10	6.49	-.225	.82
Systematicity	Pre-test	3	31.55	6.60	2	30.10	7.20	.920	.36
	Post-test	5	31.37	7.06	15	34.75	5.63	-2.30	.02*
CT Self-confidence	Pre-test	1	27.92	5.69	3	30.64	6.75	-1.91	.06
	Post-test	7	30.54	7.48	26	37.37	9.94	-4.57	.00*
Inquisitiveness	Pre-test	0	22.82	6.40	1	22.67	6.11	.11	.92
	Post-test	0	22.73	4.92	3	28.24	5.82	-4.42	.00*
Cognitive Maturity	Pre-test	1	28.18	6.44	0	25.95	5.48	1.64	.11
	Post-test	2	28.15	5.94	5	29.83	6.61	-1.18	.24

Note: * $p < .05$; N+ = Number of positive critical thinking disposition

It can be seen from Table 3, after one year experiment in the posttest, the seven subscale mean scores of the treatment group were higher than the ones of control group. The number of students with positive critical thinking disposition (the score is above 40) was increased both in the two groups in analyticity, self-confidence, inquisitiveness, maturity, open-mindedness, systematicity, and truth seeking. But the increasing rate was different which the treatment group experienced a faster growth than that of the control group. The results showed that there were statistically significant differences on systematicity ($t=-2.30$, $p=0.02 < 0.05$), critical thinking self-confidence ($t=-4.57$, $p=0.00 < 0.05$) and inquisitiveness ($t=-4.42$, $p=0.00 < 0.05$). There was no significant differences between two groups in other four subscales of dispositions: analyticity, maturity, open-mindedness, and truth seeking.

According to the Table 3, in the pre-test the seven subscales of the critical thinking dispositions were nearly equal between two groups at the beginning in this study. There were no statistically significant differences between the treatment group and the control group in the seven subscales of critical thinking dispositions. In the posttest, the seven subscales mean scores of the treatment group were higher than the ones of control group and the treatment group experienced a faster growth than that of the control group in the number of the students with a positive critical thinking disposition. What's more, the difference between two groups' subscale scores of critical thinking disposition differed significantly in systematicity, critical thinking self-confidence and inquisitiveness. The above mentioned data indicated that the students in treatment group under IBL teaching outperformed the students in control group in traditional teaching method in every subscale of critical thinking dispositions, especially in systematicity, critical thinking self-confidence and inquisitiveness. That is to say, the IBL had a positive effect in the development of students' critical thinking dispositions.

Table 4. Summary of Typical Diaries

The approach can facilitate the students' active learning and the self-directed learning. I am favor of this approach, because I have to pre-view the text and find more information about English culture.
This approach greatly enhances my enthusiasm towards to English and utilize my enthusiasm for autonomous study
This teaching method asks all of us to be automatic learning instead of the passive learning.

From Table 4, it can be seen that students in the treatment group enjoyed the teaching method in the class. The IBL can facilitate the students' active learning and self-directed learning; change their learning style from passive learning to automatic learning; greatly enhance their enthusiasm to English learning and the self-confidence and interesting. Inquiry-based learning is fundamentally concerned with establishing the context, the space, and the environment within which enquiry may best be stimulated and students can take charge of their learning.

Table 5. Summary of Typical Answers of Interview

Inquiry-based learning and its influence to your English learning
Xia: I am favor of this teaching approach. My learning method was changed from passive to active. I will consciously recite the words and find the more information.
Mao: I like this method. I will be interested in the learning English more than that of the past. The learning method became more active.
Lv: The teaching method enhanced my self-directed learning, learning interest and I developed a new learning method.
The influence of IBL on the CT disposition
Lv: In the past English learning, the students just learnt what the teacher taught. However, the inquiry-based learning fostered the students' active learning. In the process of inquiry, the inquisitiveness was improved to find the truth.
Mao: Under the IBL teaching method, my self-confidence, systematization and open-mindedness were improved.
Xia: My inquisitiveness was improved. I will be more curious about the western culture. The cognitive maturity was promoted.

From Table 5, it can be seen that under the instruction of inquiry-based learning, the students changed their learning style from passive learning to active learning. Inquiry-based learning was a student-centered approach, and the students were eager to learn and find more information, which

interested them. In this process of searching, the students managed to find the truth and they were thirst for learning. When they made it, their self-confidence was advanced. On the other hand, the analytical capacity was developed through this truth-seeking procedure.

As mentioned above, the treatment group and the control group were at almost the same starting point at the very beginning of the research. However the statistical results showed that the treatment group outperformed the control group on the post-test in both in the overall score and subscales score of the critical thinking disposition.

During the experiment, college teaching in the treatment group was always student-centered and the atmosphere was always encouraging. The students were actively involved in and out of class activities. One aspect of the benefits of well designed IBL exercises is claimed to be in the motivation of students when they were engaged as learners, which teachers' accounts increased the satisfaction and motivation of staff as well (Khan, & O'Rourke, 2004).

The learning styles and activities were enriched in the inquiry-based learning classroom. The variety of activities that were entailed in IBL exercises, and the different forms of assessment that often come with them, are suggested to open up the overall curriculum to a wider range of learning styles (Healey 2005; Healey, et al., 2005).

Several researchers stated the types of instructional strategies that may be used to promote students' critical thinking skills. Teamwork is one of important factor in the inquiry-based learning approach. Weerts (2005) suggested that working in groups might reduce students' stress while trying to answer difficult questions. She pointed out that working together may result in better answers than working alone.

Promoting inquiry-based learning was about helping students acquire the confidence to know that they are able to approach any kind of problem given the right circumstances and the right tools.

Conclusion

Major Findings

With respect to the effects of IBL on college students' critical thinking disposition, inquiry-based learning can effectively promote their critical thinking dispositions, and the improvement can be found in all the seven subscales of critical thinking disposition, especially, significant in critical thinking self-confidence, inquisitiveness and systematicity. To sum up, inquiry-based learning is a learner-centered approach that facilitated the students' initiative to learning English, the students' motivation, self-directed learning and curiosity, which was beneficial to the development of the college students' critical thinking disposition and English learning.

Pedagogical Implications

First, active learning plays an important role for the college students to learn English. Traditional English teaching is teacher-centered teaching characterized by teachers' dominant lecturing and students' listening and note taking. Inquiry-based learning projects are driven by students. Instructors act more as coaches, guides, and facilitators who help learners arrive at their true questions – the things they really care about. When students choose the questions, they are motivated to learn and they develop a sense of ownership about the project.

Secondly, incitation of the interests and inquisitiveness of students is crucial in the beneficial to the English learning. It is a key characteristic of IBL that inquiry tasks facilitate exploration and investigation of issues or scenarios that are open-ended enough for different responses and solutions to be possible

(Khan, & O'Rourke, 2005). Therefore, the college English teaching should focus on the interests and inquisitiveness of students and foster the students' inner curiosity and motivation to learn.

Thirdly, college English teaching should combine the language teaching and cultivation of thinking skills. Inquiry-based learning can foster the critical thinking dispositions and skills, for example, analyzing, classifying, sorting, prioritizing, synthesizing, correlating data and information, and reaching sound, logical conclusions. In return, the student could better learn the language and culture. On the other hand, the students' self-confidence, systematization and open-mindedness were improved. Therefore, it would promote the learners' English learning.

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The Version Research of a *Japanese Textbook* in Junior Middle School in Japan: Content Changes of Classical Literature after WWII

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[Abstract] *The syllabus developed by Japanese Ministry of Education is the standard for teaching programs in schools. Based on this, textbook publishers wrote and produced textbooks. Taking all of the Japanese Textbooks of Middle School published after WWII (1955 edition to the 2006 edition), classical literature content appearance in the textbooks has changed a bit following the education policy during the post-war 60 years. But after examining the process of its change, we can say it largely maintained a relatively fixed pattern as follows: Chinese Classical: Grade 1 – Chinese idioms, Grade 2 – Ancient Chinese poems, and Grade 3 – The Analects of Confucius; Japanese Classical: Grade 1 – The Tale of the Bamboo Cutter, Grade 2 – Tale of the Heike, Essay in Idleness, The Pillow Book, and Grade 3 – Collection of Three Big Collections and The Narrow Road to the Deep North.*

[Keywords] *Japanese textbook; classical literature; Japan; junior middle school; after WWII*

Introduction

The syllabus developed by Japanese Ministry of Education is the standard for teaching programs in schools. After World War II, the revised edition of Middle and High School Syllabus (Trial) has been modified once every 10 years from 1951, thus, learning objectives and content were clearly established, each time for different subjects and different school years, respectively. Based on this, textbook publishers wrote and produced textbooks. It can be said that those textbooks are the vivid footage in reflecting the Syllabus, which is the standard of the teaching plan. Students come to understand the teaching content that is displayed on the Syllabus and achieve these objectives.

This paper is taking all the Japanese Textbooks of Middle School published after WWII (1955 edition to the 2006 edition) as the research object, and analyzing and investigating the related changes of classical literature content in the textbooks. In order to facilitate the research, the authors of the paper selected one of the most representative language textbook publishers, Mitsumura Tosho's Japanese Textbooks as the object of analysis. There are two main reasons: first, Mitsumura Tosho's language textbooks have the highest usage percentage in Japanese (e.g. up to 40% in 2005) of the five Junior Middle School language textbook publishers (Kyoiku Shuppan, Tokyo Shoseki, Mitsumura Tosho, Sanseido, and Gakko Tosho). Second, Standard Japanese of Sino-Japan Communication has the most Japanese learners in China's various language training institutions, which was edited and published by People's Education Press and Mitsumura Tosho Co. Ltd. Furthermore, Mitsumura Tosho is the earliest issued, "the textbook of electronic digital language teaching", active in the first line of education practice

in ICT (Information Communication Technology), so we can say Mitsumura Tosho is the representative in many fields.

Thus, it is believed that we can have an overall grasp on the changing progress of textbook's content (Classical Literature) in 60 years after WWII through the analysis of Mitsumura Tosho's textbook. In particular, we can have a systematic carding of the changing process of classical literary education. Besides, we will also make an investigation on the background of contemporary education policy, and re-examine the changes of the Japanese classical literature education from the perspective of its textbooks.

Junior Middle School Language Textbooks of Mitsumura Tosho Co. Ltd

First, we will analyze quantity changes on the relative content of classical literature that was published in the versions of Junior Middle School language textbooks by Mitsumura Tosho after WWII.

Grade 1

In the textbooks of 1955 edition and 1959 edition, classical literature was few; it is 1 and 0, respectively. The following editions had about 3 to 4 articles (except for the 2002 edition), where the number changed from 18 to 24, while the number of classical works that were included basically remained unchanged.

Grade 2

In the textbook of the 1955 edition, the number of classical content increased from 1 article in Grade 1 to 7 articles in Grade 2. Not only the number increased significantly, but the content choice was also very extensive, including Japanese classics, essays, stories, plays, comments, and other fields. Under the influence of the syllabus revision in 1958, the number of 1959 edition classics decreased to 4, then until 2006 edition it remained 3 or 4, almost unchanged. However, the total number of articles varied greatly, from 16 articles to 26 articles in one book.

Grade 3

The 1955 edition of the Grade 3 textbook held the increasing tendency in classics from Grade 1 to Grade 2 and the number was 8 articles, but from 1959 edition until the 2006 edition the number was 4 (except 2002 edition). However, from the change of the total number of articles, it had 17 articles at least and 30 articles at most. Grade 3 changed the most in the total 3 school years.

In the 1955 edition, the total number of classical works in junior middle school achieved a maximum of 16 articles; in the subsequent 1959 edition, it plummeted to 8, half of the maximum. There were almost no big changes on the number of classical articles in the following editions: the number was about 11 (except 2002 edition). The 2002 edition was special, because under the background of "A more relaxed education" policy, this version of the classical works reduced articles to 8, back to the number of 1959 version. Through comparing the articles between textbooks of 2002 edition and 1959 edition, we can find the former (47 articles) was only about half of the latter (87 articles), or we can say along with the post WWII's "education content cuts", the number of classical works included in Japanese textbooks continued to decline, but it was much luckier than the recent sharp decline in modern literature. In addition, except those two versions, if we take three years of junior middle school textbooks of 1978 edition as the boundary line, the previous versions are about 70 articles, while the later versions are about 60 articles. The main reason for this phenomenon can be seen as a new syllabus' amendments from 1977,

based on the slogan of “comfortable and repletion”, which leads the ongoing measures on the selection of educational content and teaching hours cut.

About the Grade 1 Junior Middle School Textbooks

Taking the academic year as a unit, first, we can analyze the changes of genre on the classical works of Japanese textbook for Grade 1. From the 1981 edition textbook, Chinese classical literature has become mandatory, but before this, relevant content was rarely selected. In addition, before the 1978 edition textbook, in Grade 1 or in Grade 2, textbooks must include content of traditional drama (such as: Noh comedy), after the 1978 edition, this kind of works disappeared. The supports seems to be found from the education reform which implemented in 1977’s taking “comfortable and repletion” as a slogan, because in this reform requirements of “reducing hours, selecting teaching content” was proposed. Apparently, tradition drama had been snubbed for it had little relationship with the real life, while Chinese classical literature got more attention which had a deep impact on Japanese culture.

From the 1966 edition to the 1981 edition textbooks, both had the contents selected from Konjaku Monogatari Shu, which was later replaced by the contents selected from *The Tale of the Bamboo Cutter*, and then they have been fixed. Referring to the other four publishers’ Junior Middle School language textbook, we can also find that each edition of textbooks in recent years had not included the content of Konjaku Monogatari Shu, which reflected the educational circles had the different positioning and awareness on *The Tale of the Bamboo Cutter* and Konjaku Monogatari Shu as the sources of traditional stories in the Junior Middle School language teaching.

About the Grade Two Junior Middle School Textbooks

Grade 2 did not have the content of Chinese classical literature in the 1966 and 1969 edition; instead, Grade 1 included the content. Thereafter until the 1978 edition, the case was completely different, that is, Grade 1 did not have the content, while Grade 2 included it. Then further, the related content appeared in both Grade 1 and Grade 2 textbooks, and it is becoming a fixed pattern that Grade 1 selected Chinese idioms, while Grade 2 selected Ancient Chinese Poems.

Although there were some changes on the excerpted paragraphs and contents, *Tale of the Heike* and *Essay in Idleness* had been the fixed content of Grade 2 after WWII until today (only the 1955 edition’s *Tale of the Heike* was selected to Grade 3 textbook).

About the Grade 3 Junior Middle School textbooks

Except for the 1978 edition, which was characterized by the Reform of “More Relaxed Education”, from the 1971 Textbook to the 1993 edition, *The Pillow Book* became the fixed content of Grade 3, and subsequently it was adjusted to Grade 2. From 1981 to the 2006 edition of textbooks, *The Analects of Confucius* became the fixed content in Chinese classical literature (except for the 2002 edition). Three Big Collections (Manyoshu tanka collection, Kokin Wakashu, and Shinkokin Wakashu) along with *The Narrow Road to the Deep North*, which all became the fixed content of Grade 3 from WWII. Only the 1972 edition and the 1975 edition did not include *The Narrow Road to the Deep North*, which fully demonstrates their stable position as classical textbooks.

Conclusion

In the 1955 edition textbook, Grade 1 had only one article of classical literature, but it increased to 7 and 8 articles after entering Grade 2 and Grade 3, so we can see the tendency was that it should be from Grade 2 to get in touch with classical literature. Compared with the total number of textbooks of each following version, the average was 10.6 articles, which included classical works during 3 year; it was eye-catching up to 16 articles of classical content in 1955 edition. Of course, this textbook version was the first textbook under the textbook examination and approval system after WWII, just as the 1st edition of Junior and Senior School Syllabus (Trial) (1951 version) noted, “prewar language education, especially, junior and higher school’s language education took masterpiece- reading in the classroom as the main content” (Ministry of Education, 1951, p. 1). Therefore, we can say that although 1955 edition textbook educational ideas had revised to a certain degree, it was still on the extension line of attaching great importance to the classical literature education.

The overall revision of the syllabus in 1958 had a certain effect on the content construction of the 1959 edition textbooks. Although this version of the textbooks continued to follow the guideline of “Grade 1 less contact with classics” in 1955 edition, in the Grade 2 and Grade 3 textbook arrangement, the number of classic works decreased from the previous 7 articles and 8 articles to 4 articles, and the content had changed a lot. The subsequent 1962 edition textbook, Grade 1 selected 3 classical works and this seemed to give students appropriate contact with classical period ahead of schedule for a year, setting it just after their entering Junior Middle School. The number of Grade 2 and Grade 3’s classical works’ was still 4 – the same as the previous versions of textbooks, and in subsequent editions of the textbook, the classical contents of Grade 3 were kept to 3 or 4 articles, and basically fixed.

Comparing the 2002 version with the previous version of the textbooks, the number of Grade 1’s classical works decreased from 3 to 2 articles, while Grade 3 decreased from 4 articles to 3 articles, and the total reduction number of Junior Middle School stage was 2 articles (20%). As the background of this phenomenon, we can see it was a year when the importance of “a more relaxed education” policy was emphasized and the teaching content was slashed. This made Japanese writers of literary giant level – Soseki Natsume and Ogai Mori’s works included in the previous textbooks had also been cut off. We can say those developments also had a certain effect on classical literary works’ involvement. However, there were many critical voices for the reform of reducing teaching content, therefore, the subsequent amended 2006 edition textbooks, the giant writers’ works were restored, the number of classical works of 3 academic years were roughly recovered to the original level (the total number was 11 articles, even much more than 10 articles in 1990 edition and since). Moreover, in the aspect of works’ content, Analects of Confucius was included again after it was cut off, and for Iroha-uta, it had a great meaning in learning and understanding ancient works which was first included, all those made the textbook of 2006 version get higher praise.

It can be said that though classical literature’s teaching content has been changed during postwar 60 years, it largely maintained a relatively fixed pattern as follows:

Chinese Classical: Grade 1 – Chinese idioms, Grade 2 – Ancient Chinese poems, and Grade 3 – The Analects of Confucius.

Japanese Classical: Grade 1 – *The Tale of the Bamboo Cutter*, Grade 2 – *Tale of the Heike*, *Essay in Idleness*, *The Pillow Book*, and Grade 3 – Collection of three big works, *The Narrow Road to the Deep North*.

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The Application of Cognitive Linguistics in English Language Teaching

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[Abstract] This article focuses on the application of cognitive linguistics in English language teaching; and based on the theories of the categorization and metaphors, it suggests two teaching methods for Chinese EPS teachers. Theories of both Western and Chinese cognitive linguists are employed to help analyze the effectiveness of the suggestions.

[Keywords] cognitive linguistics; English language teaching; Chinese students

Introduction

Cognitive linguistics (CL) refers to the branch of linguistics that interprets language in terms of the concepts. It emerged largely from dissatisfactions with the limitations of formal linguistics and generative linguistics. Cognitive linguistics is characterized by adherence to three central positions. First, it denies that there is an autonomous linguistic faculty in the mind; second, it understands grammar in terms of conceptualization; and third, it claims that knowledge of language arises out of language use (Croft & Cruse, 2004, p. 1). Concerning the relationship between cognitive linguistics and language teaching, John Taylor believes that language teachers should know the theory of linguistics. In order to teach more efficiently, teachers should not only ‘teach’ the language, but also ‘teach about’ the language. Cognitive linguistics, as John Taylor says, offers the teachers a theory to probe deeply into the language. It offers a new perspective on ‘grammar rules’ and places great emphasis on the lexicon, idioms, phraseologies, and constructions, rather than on ‘grammar’ as such. At the same time, John Taylor points out that how the insights of CL can be formatted to facilitate language learning is still a challenge (Gao, 2007a, pp. 27-32).

As the development of cognitive linguistics, Chinese scholars start to do relevant research, which include the application of CL in the English language teaching. Their specific research focuses mainly comprise ‘CL and English grammar’ (e.g. Sa & Dong, 2007) and ‘CL and English vocabulary’ (e.g. Liang, 2002). These academic efforts have offered new perspectives to English language pedagogy and are expected to further bring about a revolution for the teaching and learning of English language in China.

This article focuses on the application of cognitive linguistics in English language teaching and, based on the theories of the categorization and metaphors, suggests two teaching methods for Chinese EPS teachers.

Categorizations and the Learning of English Vocabulary

There is a stubborn misunderstanding for Chinese teachers and learners that English vocabulary is the key to the learning of English language. Making use of various skills and methods, the students are guided to recite a great amount of English words, including those infrequent ones. The result is that, they are really ‘expert’ when single words and phrases are needed, but when they need to express their intentions or opinions, either in oral or written forms, they would find it extremely difficult. It has been roughly counted by the language researchers that an average student could understand 80.5% of a piece of normative literature if he could master about 1000 basic vocabulary. Therefore, the concept of

categorization in CL theory has been drawn forth by the scholars to challenge the existing concept about the learning of English vocabulary.

The categories at the basic level have the most basic cognitive functions. It is at this level that the most common idealization of features of a category is found. In other words, the most relevant conceptual information relating to a category is stored at the basic level. In more naturalistic situations like normal everyday conversation, basic-level category names are also more frequently used. Rosch, et al. (1976) also point out that the basic level is the level first named and understood by children. Based on these viewpoints, it is suggested that English teachers put more emphasis on practice of basic level terms with the students.

Berlin, et al. (1973) divided the categories of plants into three levels: *the Life-form Level* (tree, grass, fish, bird, etc.), which can be roughly regarded as the basic level; *the Generic Level* (pine, oak, cedar, maple, etc.); and *the Specific Level* (Ponderosa Pine, White Pine, Jack Pine, etc.). For Chinese students who averagely start to learn English language at 8 years old, it can be said that the basic-level terms are no longer unfamiliar to them. The more critical problems exist, on the one hand, in the process when they are learning and generating English language, which is mostly related to the grammar learning and their thinking model, and on the other hand, in the memory and application of the generic-level terms¹. The word-building of the generic-level terms from different cultures are not symmetrical. Understanding the differences could show the students a clearer picture of the characteristics of the several levels, and furthermore help them comprehend the diversity and form the structure of the categories in mind.

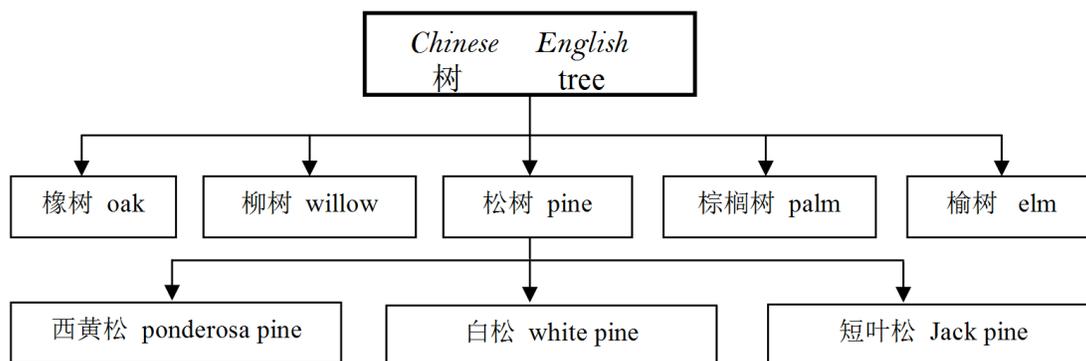


Figure 1. Three Levels of Categories based on Berlin’s Theory
(A Comparison between English and Chinese Counterparts)

According to Berlin’s research, the above figure shows the three levels respectively from the top down. It’s not hard to find that the generic-level terms in the Chinese Group (CG) in the figure are using the life-form level terms as kernel words (树), with attributive modifiers (橡, 柳, 松, 棕榈, 榆) in front of them. While in the English Group (EG), the generic-level terms are comparatively independent, with no apparent similar characteristics among each other; we can also find that the specific-level terms in the CG take the generic-level terms as kernel words (松), with additional attributive modifiers (西黄, 白, 短叶) in front of them, while specific-level terms in the EG have the same characteristic. Concerning the generic-level terms, influenced by the word-building of Chinese language, Chinese students, when seeing

¹ The former will be discussed in Part II: *Metaphor and the English Language Teaching*.

or thinking of the variety of trees in practice, tend to project the structure of “*modifier + kernel word*” in their minds, namely the structure of “*attributive + tree*”, therefore excluding those English generic-level terms subconsciously buried in their minds. On the contrary, it might be easier for them to remember and react to the English specific-level terms, for the terms get similar word-building compared with their Chinese counterparts. Therefore, it might be constructive for the teachers to lay stress on the learning and memorizing of the English generic-level terms, as the Chinese students are most likely to encounter memory confusion when dealing with terms of this level. The life-form level terms, similar to the case discussed above, also include nouns such as fish, trousers, etc. and verbs such as cry, laugh, etc. The Chinese kernel words like “场 (ground/court)”, “所 (place/house/station)”, “馆 (house/shop)”, “室 (room/office/house)”, which have no corresponding counterparts from English, are also included².

“Another way to help language learners explore categories is to produce texts that focus more upon the linkage of a given set of lexical items to a category. Thus zebras, horses and tigers are hyponyms of a ‘mammal’ category which is in turn a hyponym of ‘animal’. Teachers can use hyponym charts to explore category relationships and ask students to engage with a text structured by hyponymy” (Holme, 2011, p. 130).

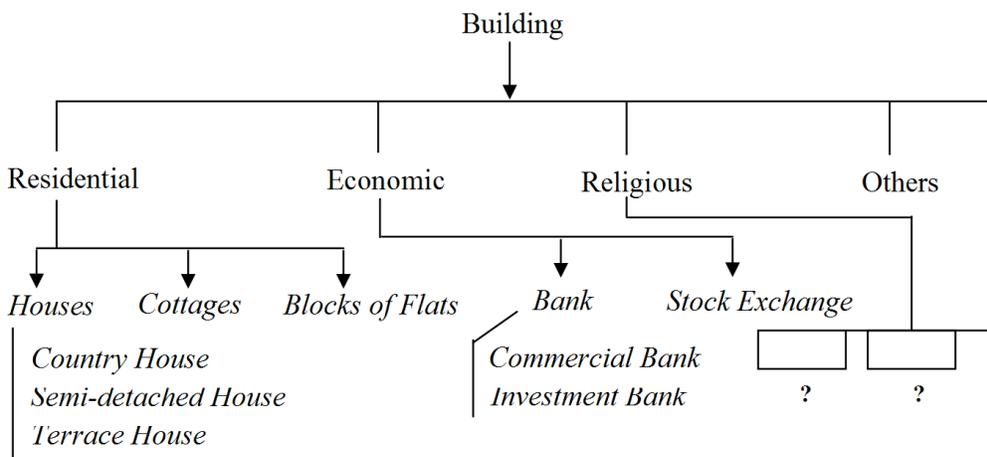


Figure 2. The Building: Using Hyponym Charts to Explore Categories

(Quoted from Holme’s Figure with Some Supplement)

“When students explore these frames further, dividing ‘building’ into a religious subcategory, of ‘temples, churches and mosques’, for example, the complexity of the word’s meaning and of its cultural association and associated contexts of use will start to become apparent ” (Holme, 2011, p. 132).

Metaphor and the English Language Teaching

Metaphors affect how we relate with the world. By shaping our conceptual system, metaphors shape our reality by affecting how we perceive the world and how we act on those perceptions. The applied interest in metaphor has broadly divided into four overlapping areas: *metaphor analysis* (Low, 1999); the differentiation of first language and target language content; to create analogues that help explore and

² Not all the Chinese terms are in accordance to this word-building rule, but these terms account for an influential rate. See Wang (2007, pp. 145-150).

explain target language content; to foster the cognitive organization, retention and correct production of second language grammar and lexis. The metaphoric competence model may predict metaphor-based activities that help students grasp the differences between their target language and their first language. Understanding such differences can help students towards a greater knowledge and hence control of the target language meanings themselves. In an ESP study, Boers (2000) helped students to explore how metaphors might shape an author's attitude towards a particular topic in economic texts. One text concerned state subsidies to private companies, and what the authors thought of the merits of these (Holme, 2011, pp. 134-139).

Metaphor in cognitive linguistics was first extensively explored by George Lakoff and Mark Johnson in their work *Metaphors We Live By*. According to Lakoff and Johnson's theory, metaphor is divided into *Structural Metaphors* (e.g. ARGUMENT IS WAR), *Oriental Metaphors* (e.g. HAPPY IS UP), and *Ontological Metaphors* which include Entity and Substance Metaphors (e.g. THE MIND IS A MACHINE), Container Metaphors (e.g. OUT OF sight) and Personification (e.g. Life has *cheated* me) (Wang, 2007, pp. 409-411).

Lakoff & Johnson's theory have stronger explanatory power compared with the traditional grammars. Its more important contribution is to build a new system based on cognition. It helps the ESP teachers to describe and explain the texts more logically and systematically. Based on the Lakoff & Johnson's theory of Structural Metaphors, Chinese scholar Wen (2009) suggested that the teachers classify and teach sentences with idioms supported by the same semantic motivation. For example, the sentences with idioms about "fire" can be concluded as follows:

ANGER IS FIRE

Smoke was coming out of his ears.

He is *smoldering* with anger.

She was *fuming*.

LOVE IS FIRE

I am *burning* with love.

She carried *torch* for him.

The *flames* are gone from our friendship.

CONFLICT IS FIRE

The *flames* of war spread quickly.

They extinguished the last *sparks* of the revolution.

According to Lakoff & Johnson's theory of Oriental Metaphors, the English expressions like "I'm feeling *up* today." can be explained by the fact that the concept HAPPY is oriented UP, which can be used to further explain sentences like "Thinking about her always gives me a *lift*", "That *boosted* me spirits.", and "My spirits *rose*." Likewise, based on "SAD IS DOWN", the students can better understand "He's really *low* these days", "My spirits *sank*.", and "I'm feeling *down*." To help the students master the rules more visually and thoroughly, the physical basis of the above examples can be further interpreted, which is, according to Lakoff & Johnson's theory, "*Drooping posture typically goes along with sadness and depression, erect posture with a positive emotional state.*" So our suggested teaching process is "Typical metaphors rules (e.g. HAPPY IS UP) → Illustrative sentences with given metaphors (e.g. My

spirits *rose*.) → *Physical basis*". It is worth mentioning that this hypothetical process is supposed to make an obvious difference in Chinese ESP classrooms. Let's look at the following example sentences:

- (1) That *boosted* me spirits. —HAPPY IS UP; SAD IS DOWN
- (2) She is an *upstanding* citizen. —VIRTUE IS UP; DEPRAVITY IS DOWN
- (3) He *dropped* off to sleep. —CONSCIOUS IS UP; UNCONSCIOUS IS DOWN
- (4) Things are looking *up*. —GOOD IS UP; BAD IS DOWN

For Chinese students, there is a sort of habitual psychology that they need to know every single word and phrase and the exact grammar in an English sentence in order to fully understand it. One of the reasons contributing to this phenomenon is the teachers' emphasis on the recite of English vocabularies and grammars. The result is that the structures of sentences are not pushed to be formed by concepts in mind, but are regulated by English grammars instead. Therefore, the students haven't formed a natural sense of transformation from concepts in mind to English sentence structures. Instead, they tend to turn to the structures of Chinese language after the concepts to be expressed have been generated, which is totally a disorderly language output process.

In Sentence (1) and (2), the word *boost* and *upstanding* might be strange words to the students, the fact of which would seriously effect their understanding of the two sentences, for they have no other ways to assist their comprehension but to regret their insufficient diligence in reciting English vocabulary. Even if they know the meaning of the words, normally, they would try to look for their corresponding Chinese counterparts in order to translate in mind the meanings of the whole sentences. Similarly, when trying to understand Sentence (3) and (4), Chinese students are more likely to linger over the recall of the meanings of the two phrases "*dropped* off" and "looking *up*", which is a very formalized and inflexible thinking path.

Here, we suggest that the cultivation of the students' perceptive and cognitive abilities toward English language under the guidance of cognitive linguistics be taken seriously in China's ESP classes. Since the lack of English language environment, it'll be constructive if we try to guide the students toward a more natural learning route. According to the suggested teaching process discussed above, if the teachers could show the *Typical metaphors rules* and their *physical bases* (for (3), the physical basis is "Humans and most other mammals sleep lying down and stand up when they awaken."; for (4), the physical basis for personal well-being is "Happiness, health, life, and control—the things that principally characterize what is good for a person—are all UP" (Lakoff & Johnson, 2003, p. 16), the students would be forced to break their old and accustomed thinking path and try to accept and acquire the more flexible and systematical method.

Meanwhile, we need to notice that, compared with the students, the ESP teachers might feel even more difficult to accept and actively apply the cognitive linguistics. The traditional grammars might be even more rooted in their mind and it takes time and energy to acquire another systematical linguistic knowledge.

Conclusion

This article focuses on the application of cognitive linguistics in English language teaching and, based on the theories of the categorization and metaphors, suggests two teaching methods for Chinese ESP teachers. Based on the theory of categorization, it is suggested that the teachers lay more stress on the learning and memorizing of the English generic-level terms, as the Chinese students are most likely to

encounter memory confusion when dealing with terms of this level. Based on Lakoff and Johnson's theory of metaphors, a hypothetical teaching process, which is "Typical metaphors rules (e.g. HAPPY IS UP) → Illustrative sentences with given metaphors (e.g. My spirits rose.) → Physical basis", is supposed to make an obvious difference in Chinese ESP classrooms. Theories of both Western and Chinese cognitive linguists are employed to help analyze the effectiveness of the suggestions.

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A Social-Cognitive Study of the Knowledge Sources and the Professional Development of Middle School English Teachers

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[Abstract] This paper reports a study of pre- and in-service English teachers' knowledge sources and professional development from a social-cognitive perspective. Through a statistical analysis of the survey questionnaires of 2140 English student teachers and secondary school English teachers in Northeast China, the study finds: 1) There are similarities and differences between the knowledge concepts of pre- and in-service teachers; the differences result in a gap blocking their continuous professional development. 2) Teacher knowledge development is influenced by both environment and teacher personal cognition, between which the latter plays a vital role. Based upon the findings, the study provides some implications for English teacher education and development in line with a socio-cognitivist oriented L2 learning theory.

[Keywords] socio-cognitive theory; middle school English teacher; teacher knowledge; professional development

Introduction

Teacher knowledge, as the most stable and fundamental part of teacher cognition, is a core issue of teacher education and development. During the past 20 years or so, foreign language teacher knowledge has developed into one of the most dynamic areas in the research of the foreign language teacher education (Han & Liu, 2011). At the beginning of the 21st century, the Second Language Acquisition (SLA) research area witnessed the shift of epistemic perspective - socio-cognitivism (Liu, 2010, 2011), with which teacher knowledge concept has been changed and its research content has been evolved and enlarged as well, ranging its scope from teacher knowledge basis to teacher practical knowledge (Han & Liu, 2013). English teacher education was not considered as the transmission of knowledge and skills from teachers to learners, but re-conceptualized as self-constructive learning under a specific environment (Roberts, 1998). Socio-cognitivists insist that thinking is developed from society to individual; knowledge reflects outer world and is influenced by the environment, as well (Lantolf, 2006; Liu, 2010). To be specific, language learning is a process of knowledge construction with the interaction between old and new knowledge; learner is an active knowledge constructor, playing a key role in learning process (Vygotsky, 1986; Liu, 2011). With the development of socio-cognitive L2 theories, foreign language teacher education begins to focus on individuality and sociality of language teacher knowledge construction (Han & Liu, 2013).

It urges us to identify the latest trends of the research in this field, in order to study the foreign language teacher learning from the perspective of knowledge formation, to examine the foreign language teacher education in our country from a socio-cognitivism oriented concept and viewpoint, and to support foreign language teachers to improve their teaching practice more effectively.

Methodology

The shift of epistemology inevitably changes the paradigms of research in teacher knowledge and professional development. To investigate knowledge sources and professional development of Chinese

middle school English teachers, the normal university English student teachers (the pre-service teachers) and the in-service middle school English teachers from Northeast of China were invited to take part in the present study. Both quantitative and qualitative methods were employed to analyze the knowledge formation and development of pre- and in-service middle school English teachers.

Scientific methodology was adopted to analyze the relationship between English teacher knowledge sources and professional development, from a social cognitive epistemic perspective. Through literature review, the study clarifies the general trends of the SLA theories, with which it puts forward that teacher professional development is a dynamic cycle of “learning - teaching - relearning”, with the help of the social cognitive theories. Under this premise, the empirical study reported in this dissertation is planned as follows:

Both qualitative and quantitative methods were adopted to collect data. Quantitative data were collected through three questionnaires, including English Class Learning Environment Evaluation Questionnaire (ECLLEEQ) (Fraser, McRobbie, etc., 1996; Fisher & Fraser, 1991), English Teacher Teaching Knowledge Sources Questionnaire (ETTKSQ) (Ma, Zhao, et al., 2008, 2010), English Teacher Teaching Belief Questionnaire (ETTBQ). Through exploratory factor analysis, the internal consistency and reliability of the questionnaires were proved satisfactory. Qualitative data were collected through semi-structured interviews and analyzed through thematic analysis.

Findings

The main findings are as follows: Firstly, there are a variety of knowledge sources for middle school foreign language teachers, and different sources will form different knowledge: mainly knowledge basis sources and practical knowledge sources. Through descriptive statistics, ETTKSQ was analysed, and through mean values of ETTKSQ and its two dimensions - knowledge basis and practical knowledge, overall knowledge concept of English teachers was analysed as well. It shows that, on one hand, generally pre-service and in-service middle school English teachers value both knowledge basis and practical knowledge, and tend to value the latter more. On the other hand, there are some obvious differences between their knowledge concept: pre-service teachers are ready to construct and develop their practical knowledge, and they tend to accept the knowledge from theorists, researchers and teachers equally; however, in-service teachers are prone to construct and develop the practical knowledge. The gap between the pre- and in-service teachers blocks their continuous professional development.

Secondly, through parameter estimate and significant factor of logistic regression analysis, the study examined how each knowledge source of ETTKSQ affects the specific professional knowledge development. The results show that, on the whole, pre- and in-service teacher knowledge mainly comes from their reflection in personal experience, not from large scaled teacher education and training. The evaluation of pre- and in-service English teachers toward teacher knowledge sources can be classified into three: the most important, the less important and the least important. They evaluated that “personal teaching experience and reflection” and “daily communication with colleagues” are the most important sources; “practice courses like teaching practice, class observation and investigation” is less important; “in-service academic education” and “teaching skill courses like microteaching” is the least important. To be specific, for pre-service teachers, not only “personal teaching experience and reflection” but also “personal learning English experience” are the most important; “some pre-service teacher education courses” and “in-service academic education” are the less or least important sources. For in-service teachers, “self-learning professional materials” are the most important besides “personal teaching

experience and reflection” and “daily communication with colleagues”. According to the above evaluation of knowledge sources by English teachers, “apprenticeship” observation and teaching practice in real teaching environment are the main sources of foreign language teacher personal theories, while pre- and in-service teacher education is evaluated as the less or the least important one. The above data show that there remain some problems in pre- and in-service teacher education and training, which hinders teacher professional development.

Thirdly, through correlation analysis and stepwise multiple regression with ECLEEQ and ETTBQ as independent variables and ETTKSQ as dependent one, and through interviews, the study comes to a conclusion that English teacher knowledge is developed under multiple influences both by objective environment and subjective cognition, between which internal factors are motives and external ones are catalysts. Compared with external factors, internal ones are generally identified as the main factors of teacher change and development by English teachers. The teacher development concept was the most predictive factor that can directly influence teacher knowledge development. Besides, internal factors such as professional concept and knowledge concept can push forward the whole teacher group, and teaching concept and teacher personal factors can promote teacher personal development.

Implications

The findings of the study could provide some theoretical and practical implications for English teacher knowledge and professional development. Theoretically, the study provides important implications for theory construction and research in English teacher knowledge and professional development. These findings also contribute to the development of teacher training programs. In practice, these findings could provide implications for English teacher professional development and teaching practice. According to these findings, some implications are given as follows:

First, we need to improve teachers’ personal understandings toward “teaching” and “learning” in specific teaching environment. Language teacher knowledge has no longer been defined as the objective being first acquired, accepted and internalized by teacher, and then transmitted to students, but being constructed through their language teaching practice. Ideal learning environment is the right place for teachers to accumulate knowledge, which is also the initiator of teacher reflection and the earth of teacher development, as well (Zou, 2013). Teacher profession will develop in the right direction under the circumstances of the cooperation between personal reflection and group communication.

Second, we need to enhance the integrated personal knowledge bridging the theory and practice. In language teaching, teachers tend to guide their teaching practice with their practical knowledge rather than theoretical knowledge (Interview 01, 03). However, the language teacher cannot teach effectively without understanding various theoretical positions to observe the phenomena of language learning and teaching (Dai & Ren, 2006). Thus we can come to a conclusion that language teaching is both practical and theoretical. Teacher development can neither be achieved by accumulating theoretical knowledge, nor through teachers’ personal reflection of teaching; it is a process of constructing and developing personal understanding toward teaching by teachers themselves (Zhang, 2011; Han & Liu, 2013).

Last, but not least, we need to enhance teachers’ professional qualification and autonomy to pursue professional development. Most of the interviewed teachers emphasized that they still need to improve their spoken English, such as their pronunciation, listening and speaking (Interview 01, 02, 04), which tells us middle school English teachers still concern about their language proficiency. Thus, English teachers’ professional qualification still has a long way to go. Walker (1985) thinks teachers will be

people who have first-hand experience of the problem and its context. Thus it's up to teachers themselves to solve those problems. The findings of the study show that English teacher knowledge is developed under multiple influences both by objective environment and subjective cognition, between which the internal ones are generally identified as the main factors of teacher change and development by English teachers (Zhang & Liu, 2011). Teacher development concept was the most predictive factor that can directly influence teacher knowledge development. With strong development concept, and the interaction with the environment, teachers can strive for their lifelong professional development.

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Influence Factors on Continued Professional Growth of EFL Teachers in Private Colleges

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[Abstract] Informed by teacher cognition research, this paper looks into the influence factors on private college teachers' professional growth, with a view to uncovering: 1) What makes them continue to grow as effective teachers; 2) How they have sorted the order of these influence factors. Eighteen effective EFL teachers from the College of Humanities and Sciences of Northeast Normal University take part in the study. This study adopts Prof. YiAn Wu's questionnaire instruments and compares its findings with Prof. Wu's. Based on the data, the foremost influence factors on private college teachers' professional growth are concluded into four dimensions: realization of personal values, adaptation to the development of subject knowledge, pursuit of equal social security welfare, and satisfaction of the working environment.

[Keywords] private colleges; teachers' professional development; comparative analysis

Introduction

Research on teachers' professional development began in the nineteen thirties. The western theories regarding teacher education generally experienced three stages of development: 1) teacher training, 2) teacher education, and 3) teacher development. As the idea of professionalization of the teaching occupation was widely accepted in the international education field, understanding of teacher education is continually deepening. Teachers' professional development can neither be done by isolated individual endeavor, nor by external training tasks. It can be achieved only from the inside out when the external and internal factors that teachers are facing integrate into one momentum.

Study on the development of the teacher education in China has just started. Although the majority of research is still in the theoretical verification and comparative literature study stage, our education scholars are gradually enriching their research fields and perspectives. Zhonghui San (2010), Naigui Lu (2009), Weidong Wang (2007), YiAn Wu (2005), Jimei Xia (2006), Xuehui Liu (2005) and Bimei Xu (2003) are representative scholars. Their research fields include the following: 1) comparative study on teachers' professional development; 2) the development and change of Chinese teachers; 3) teaching beliefs and teaching behaviors of teachers of foreign languages; and 4) foreign language teachers' knowledge and stages of career development.

With the rapid development of private colleges in China, teachers' professional development in these schools has also become a focal point of scholars' attention in recent years. Chunyan Lv (2010) roughly summarized the connotation and characteristics of private college teachers' professional development. Based on data survey, Zhiqiang Du (2012) found that private college teachers' professional development lagged behind their counterparts of regular universities in the following aspects: insufficient professional knowledge and skills, inadequate scientific research ability, and lack of professional affection. Haifeng Li (2012) claimed that the key problem of hindering the development of private college teachers is the lack of the sense of belonging. It is because teachers' legitimate rights and interests are not guaranteed such as social insurance, medical care, welfare packages which are far lower than that of the teachers from regular schools. Guiqin Liu (2012) emphasized the importance of upgrading the professional skills of private

college teachers via training “double-quality teachers” who grasped theoretical knowledge and rich practical experience as well.

Research Method

In order to understand what makes private college EFL teachers continue to grow as effective teachers and how they sort the order of the influence factors on their development, the study selected 18 EFL teachers from the College of Humanities and Sciences of Northeast Normal University (a private college abbreviated as CHSNENU below).

Design and Instruments

This study combined quantitative and qualitative research methods. Based mainly on Prof. YiAn Wu’s (2008) “Questionnaire on College English teachers’ Professional Development”, the survey instruments are questionnaire and semi-structured interviews. The questionnaire is divided into two parts: 1) A portion of the questionnaire consisted 26 items adopting a Likert scale as the response format. 2) The other portion has two open-ended questions. The first question is to ask participants to identify the factors that contribute to their continued professional development. The second question is to ask them order the sequence of the factors they have mentioned in terms of importance. Interviews and the two open-ended questions were supposed to help us understand why they have grown into effective teachers.

Participants

The participants are 18 English teachers from CHSNENU. The principles for selecting the participants set by the researchers, which satisfy the three criteria: 1) they must have taught EFL for more than eight years 2) they are liked by students 3) they have won prizes or awards for their outstanding teaching. The questionnaires were completed during a staff meeting within half an hour so all the questionnaires turned out to be valid. In-depth interviews were conducted during lunchtime and recesses. The length of the interviews arranged from 15 to 30 minutes. The language used was Chinese.

Findings

This study pays more attention to descriptive statistics, focusing on the mean and standard deviation of the data. Much to our expectation, the discrete-item portion of the questionnaire yields a rough professional profile which is almost the same as the profile yielded in Prof. YiAn Wu’s research: internal factors outweigh the external factors. What strikingly different is shown in the answers to the second open-ended question: the order of the contributing factors that participants sorted out which is varied from the results in Prof. Wu’s study.

The following table sums up the differences and similarities between teachers from CHSNEU and those from regular universities based on the sequence they sorted out. (Only the top three of each category are listed here according to their weight means from high to low.)

Table 1. Comparison of Sequenced Factors on Teachers' Continued Growth

Factors		Teachers from CHSNENU	Teachers from regular universities
Internal ones	1	Love for their teaching profession	Love for their teaching profession
	2	Constant pursuit of professional knowledge	Constant pursuit of professional knowledge
	3	Needs for the stable job and income	Personal traits
External ones	1	Peers' communication	Desirable working environment
	2	Credit given by students	Influence from seniors and family
	3	Pressure from doing scientific research	Opportunities for professional development

Discussion

The Motivation of Realizing One's Personal Values

As shown in the table above, for college teachers either from the private school or the regular universities, the essential driving force that supports their professional development is their love for their occupation. In our research the first item of the questionnaire is “Do you like your job – being a teacher?” One hundred percent of the participants from CHSNENU chose “Love very much”. The reasons counting for their passion for their jobs were shown in the first open question (“What are the initial reason for your preference of the teaching job?”). The following statements are very representative.

“I love it so I choose to do it. To be a teacher is my childhood dream. The job is full of challenges, and I am willing to try new teaching methods. When facing different students, I can never run out questions. Unlike other occupations, teaching is fun” (Interview 5). “I feel proud of becoming a university English teacher. The joy of teaching lies in the pleasure of witnessing my student’s attainment of progress and experiencing the mutual trust that I have been created in my classroom (Interview 8). “Teachers’ relatively steady income and regular holidays are two more important reasons that make me satisfied with my job” (Interview 16).

We can sum up the participants’ intrinsic motivation of their love for the teaching job into the following aspects: the pursuit of a childhood dreams, passion for the teaching job, sense of responsibility for the students and society. Based on the statements above we can feel the passion they have towards the teaching profession, out of which they keep perfecting their teaching and realizing their personal values.

Constant pursuit of professional knowledge is ranked as the second inner motivation to promote teachers’ professional development in our research, which is no difference from Mr. Wu’s findings. But through detailed analysis, we have gained a clearer picture about how teachers from the private school keep pace with the development of the professional knowledge.

Teachers’ teaching maxim dominates teachers’ teaching behaviors. In 2000, the National Ministry of Education promulgated the “Curriculum for English Majors” which calls for the quality-oriented education. Whether a teacher can understand and implement the requirements of the curriculum becomes vitally important. How would a teacher view the language they teach? What would be the relationship between a teacher and the textbook they use in classroom? What would be the appropriate teaching methods that will best facilitate students learning? Through the analysis of the study we have learned how well teachers from the private school practiced their beliefs of teaching in class.

Teachers’ understanding of the “Curriculum for English Majors” is of vital importance to the implementation of the curriculum. The results in the second, third, and seventh item in the Questionnaire

show that the participants all have a clear picture of the role of the course, which they teach, in the curriculum.

“No matter what level of students whom I teach, I know the position of my course in the curriculum” (Item 2). “I have clear teaching objectives in each class” (Item 3). “The activities that I design are aimed to achieve my goal of teaching” (Item 7). The average value is 4.8 each (the maximum value is 5).

With a better understanding of the curriculum, teachers’ role in the classroom is also changing. Traditionally in China teachers are viewed as knowledge transmitters who know everything. But with the development of modern technology and teaching maxims, teachers need to adjust their position in the classroom. This study found that teachers in the private school could keep pace with the development, which is shown in Items 5, 9, 10, 11, and 12. The average value is 4.7 each.

“When I teach, I usually take my students’ actual level into account and reflect my teaching based on students’ feedbacks” (Item 5). “Students’ overall development is the aim of my teaching” (Item 9). “To arouse my students’ leaning interests is an integral part of my teaching objectives” (Item 12). Based on the above findings, it is clear the idea that students are the center in the classroom has already integrated into the teaching maxims of these teachers.

Teachers’ view on teaching materials can also influence the efficiency of students’ learning and teachers’ teaching effect. Teachers’ views on teaching materials are best shown in Items 8, 14, and 20; the average value is 4.5 each. This reveals that most of the participants are the masters of the materials. They can use teaching materials in a flexible way.

Learning strategies, which are often ignored by teachers in college English classrooms, are important aspects according to “Curriculum for English Majors”. 80% of the participants can shift their attention from how they should teach to how students should learn. Items 4, 6, and 13 are about this dimension. It turns out the more experienced the teacher is the more heed he or she pays to students’ learning strategies.

Above all, participants from the private school are well-informed about the requirements set by Ministry of Education and capable of managing the three key factors in the classroom: students, teaching materials and teachers.

The Appeal for a Better Welfare Package

Unlike the teachers from regular universities who put “Personal traits” as the third internal factor, teachers from the private school perceived that their need for a stable job and income is one of the momentums that make them work hard. Although private colleges could not provide the welfare packages like the state-run universities, teachers were grateful for the working environment and satisfied with the stable income they earned. Items 22, and 23 focus on participants’ satisfaction on their working welfare policy. The average value is 4.3. This means that most teachers agreed that the college in which they worked could provide them with necessary welfare benefits. However, there are teachers who also expressed their appeal for better welfare benefits when they compared their welfare packages with their counterparts in regular universities (Interview 2).

Necessary welfare benefits and pleasant working environment are the premises for teachers’ professional development. Now the problems that private school teachers confront are the stability of the job and the unequal treatment of social welfare benefits. All these uncertainty can demotivate them. Teachers’ passion for their job will be sparked when they develop a sense of belonging to the organization and feel at ease with their working environment.

The Satisfaction of the Supportive Working Environment

Teachers' autonomy can't be developed without a desirable working environment. This paper focuses on the school-based environment such as leadership of the school, relationships among colleagues, students and the learning resources including the opportunities for further improvement, participation in research projects etc. Of all the external factors, participants ranked "peers' communication" at the first place. (Items 15, 16, and 17; the average value is 4.6) A teacher said in the interview, "To discuss teaching problems with colleagues can promote teaching effect more effectively than other means of trainings" (Interview 17). Some teachers contributed their improvement to the influence from leaders and senior colleagues. (Items 18, 19, and 21; the average value is 4.6) One teacher stated, "Our leaders are experienced seniors who are mentors to us. With their patient instructions, we become better and better in teaching" (Interview 7).

"Credit given by students" is placed as the second important external factor in the study. "Students' recognition is a great driving force which pushes me forward" (The average value of Item 24 is 4.5). The second open-ended question requires participants to write down the most unforgettable experiences in teaching. One typical statement is "Credit given by students is something I cherish most" (Interview 10).

Compared with regular university teachers, private college teachers pay more attention to the efficiency of teaching, which is in tune with the overall teaching aim of the school. The aim is to cultivate practice-oriented talents for our nation. Students in private colleges are less motivated in terms of academic learning so the tasks of teaching are much more difficult for their teachers. Gaining students' acknowledgement is a great honor and a huge achievement for a teacher's work in such a private school. That is why participants think so highly of students' acknowledgement to their work.

"Opportunities for further development" is viewed as the third external factors for regular school teachers, but participants in this study show more sympathy with "the pressure of scientific research and job title advancement". A teacher said, "I have been looking for the field of my research while teaching for years, but still feel confused" (Interview 15). Through the survey we find that many teachers can hardly keep a balance between their heavy working load and their scientific research tasks. (The average value for Items 25, and 26 is 4.2). Because opportunities for private college teachers' professional development are relatively scarce in contrary to that of their counterparts in regular schools, they face more difficulties in their further development.

Conclusion

Based on the analysis of the findings, this survey found that the influence factors on continued professional growth are similar to teachers both from regular universities and private colleges. The decisive factors that outweigh any other external ones are the internal driving forces like their love for the teaching profession, their constant pursuit of professional knowledge and their needs for the stable job and income. What makes private college teachers different from their counterparts is the order of these influence factors. In regard to the internal factors, private college teachers express a deeper concern for their welfare benefits due to their lack of regular school teachers' social status.

As to the external factors, they contribute their development more on the acknowledgements given by their students, which is confined to the academic level of the students and the objectives set by the college. The pressure from doing scientific research is another external factor that private college teachers are facing. Because they, unlike their counterparts who are given more opportunities for further improvement, have to explore their own field of research while under heavy teaching load.

To sum up, private college teachers' continued growth is the premises for the development of private institutes of higher education. Knowing the influence factors on their professional development and tending to their concerns can insure the creation of a pleasant, relaxing working environment for private college teachers.

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Teachers' Beliefs and Effective ELF Teaching

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[Abstract] Effective teaching is always what the teachers go to great lengths to achieve. It comes from both excellent teaching strategies and a sound principle. Most of them aim at developing new procedures of teaching and doing research into and designing new activities with meaningful outcomes. These, of course, cannot be neglected in the teaching practice; however as important as these strategies are the teachers' beliefs which are consciously or unconsciously taken as something to have nothing to do with effective teaching. This paper, with the detailed illustration of teachers' beliefs and their influences on effective teaching together with suggestions for teachers, leads them to be aware of their beliefs about learners in teaching practice. It will be much of help for teachers to advance more effective approaches to enrich their teaching experience.

[Keywords] teachers' beliefs; teaching strategies; teaching principles; effective ELF teaching

Introduction

In the book *The Essence of Good Teaching* Seymour Ericksen claimed that an outstanding teacher should be an inspiring instructor who is concerned about students, an active scholar who is respected by his discipline peers, and an efficient organized professional who is accessible to students and colleagues (Ericksen, 1984, p. 3). This tells us an effective teaching comes from a good teacher's commitments to his career and his findings in English Language Teaching. Therefore, to enhance the efficiency in language teaching, a teacher should not only attempt effective strategies taken by his peers. Not a model is always helpful to all the teachers seeking to improve their professional practice, partly because teachers come from different backgrounds and in the real world come in all shapes and sizes, with a wide range of different personalities, ways of working and especially beliefs. That is to say, teachers need to become more self-aware with regard to their beliefs and the ways in which they make sense of the world, particularly with regard to their views about teaching and how those views themselves come to be shaped. Simultaneously, they need to be aware also that their learners are construing themselves and that their words, their actions and their interactions form part of every individual learner's construction of knowledge. It is apparent, therefore, that an important component of an effective approach to teaching is for teachers to become aware of what their own beliefs are.

English Teachers' Belief System

As for English teachers' belief system, Borg (2001) proposes that it includes five aspects, namely, teachers' beliefs on teaching, studying, students, disciplines, and their roles as teachers. Similarly, Burns (1999) thinks that teachers' belief system involves the essence of the language, the relationship between oral expressions and written ones, the point of language learning and the strategies, learners and their learning abilities and the teachers' belief about their roles in the classroom. While Yi'an Wu (2005) and his colleagues did the investigation on 213 teachers aiming to find their concepts about English teaching, learners, the language itself, and ways of teachers' development. They finally found that excellent teachers shared the merits of thinking highly of occupational ethics. All of them enjoy teaching very much. Most teachers mentioned the qualities of being an excellent teacher when answering the open

questions. The qualities include honoring the job, taking it seriously, taking high responsibilities, and loving, caring and respecting students intrinsically. Excellent teachers are inclined to teach from the perspective of learners; they make learners centered, and highlight the importance of learners' interest. They will reorganize the classroom activities on the basis of the learners' responses simultaneously. They consider English as not only a code system, but also tools that entail the prominence of humanity and culture. It is the target language that conveys the essence of cross culture. The concept of teaching in their mind is translated as the understanding of the learners, the skills to handle the relationship of the teaching objectives and classroom activities, the insight into learning principles, the focus on the basic knowledge about language, and the combination of the teaching and research. Excellent English teachers take it as the impetus and critical elements for teachers' development, to enjoy teaching and make it the career they will devote all their lives to pursue (Wu, 2005). Their findings confirm that the research into teachers' beliefs involves not only the implication of belief system itself, but also the methods taken by teachers to cultivate lively classroom atmosphere and the effectiveness they aim originally to obtain.

Teachers' Beliefs about Learners

Teachers may hold any one or a combination of beliefs about those whom they teach. The sociologist Roland Meighan (1990) has suggested that there are at least seven different ways in which teachers can and do construe learners and such constructions reflect individual teachers' views of the world and also have a profound influence on their classroom practice.

Meighan suggests that learners may be construed metaphorically as:

- resisters,
- receptacles,
- raw material,
- clients, partners,
- individual explorers,
- democratic explorers.

The notion of learners as resisters sees learners as people who do not want to learn but only do so because they are made to. Such a view leads to a result that force or punishment is emphasized in classroom teaching. The second notion of learners is one in which they are seen as receptacles to be filled with knowledge. This is sometimes referred to as 'the jugs and mugs' theory. Teacher is seen as having a large jug of knowledge, which is poured into the learner 'mugs', or receptacles, which in turn can only accept a certain amount of that knowledge according to the size of the learner's IQ. The third one is the metaphor that conceives of learners as raw material, like clay to be molded into a fine work of art or building material to be constructed into a solid and well-designed building. In this notion teachers' wills are put in the first important place. The fourth conception of learners as clients places greater emphasis upon the identification of educational need and begins to alter the nature of the relationship between teachers and learners. The fifth notion is that of learners as partners, where the emphasis is shifted from consolation to negotiation and where it is possible in Freire's (1970) terms for the teacher to 'take on the role of student amongst students'. The assumption here is not one of equality but one of a sharing relationship within which teachers recognize that they are also learners.

The last two possible conceptions take learners as individual or democratic explorers. In the first of these, the role of the teacher becomes almost entirely one of facilitator working largely from a Piagetian perspective, i.e. the classroom is organized in such a way as to enable the learners to explore for

themselves and come to their own conclusions with a minimum of prompting from the teacher. Democratic exploration takes this process one step further and sees it as the function of any learning group to set its own agenda, decide upon its goals and preferred ways of working and how, if at all, it wishes to draw upon the particular knowledge and expertise of the teacher.

Individual teachers in some way or another may emphasize all the seven beliefs, even though it is obvious that the first three constructions are heavily teacher-dominated while the latter constructions involve increasingly active learner participation.

Various Methods Adopted By Teachers Holding Different Beliefs

There is a growing body of evidence to indicate that teachers are highly influenced by their beliefs, which in turn are closely linked to their values, to their views of the world, to their conceptions of their place within it and to their recognition of learners (Chen & Chen, 2008). Different beliefs held by teachers about anyone of the above-mentioned will inevitably determine what outcomes they can achieve in teaching that will be at a very wide range.

Teachers who see learners as resisters will maintain that instruction is the natural function of them, thus punishing those who cannot achieve what have been instructed. They may well employ methods involving compulsion rather than seeking ways of helping them to want to learn the language or to see the value in what they are doing. This belief of teachers about learners can never be found to be particularly useful in helping learners to master a language or to foster a lifelong love of languages.

The more common one is the conception of regarding learners as receptacles to be filled with any knowledge teachers provide. If language teachers view their learners as receptacles, with a specific amount of language aptitude that determines their capacity to absorb language they will be likely to adopt methods which involve transmission of language items to their learners, never taking learners' wills into consideration. At the same time, exploring interesting teaching procedures won't bother these teachers.

Another common belief about learners views them as raw material that needs to be constructed or shaped. Teachers holding this belief endeavor to manipulate learners and influence them according to their own wishes, hardly considering learners' backgrounds, interests and intentions. Therefore, not all learners can improve their English, living up to teachers' expectations.

Different from the previous three beliefs, the notion of learner as client focuses on the learners' educational need and becomes a turning-point from teacher-centered to learner-centered in teaching. Teachers maintaining this belief have been prevalent in teaching English for Specific Purposes (ESP) for some time. For the part of prospective learners who are likely to know what they want to learn and how much time and money they are prepared to invest in doing so, they expect teachers to be competent to meet those needs, while for school children; it is not taken as a helpful conception.

An alternative one is that of taking learner as partner. Keeping this belief in mind, teachers do not take it for granted that they are dominant in class, instead they decide together with learners to benefit from the negotiation. The underlying notions are of mutual trust and respect leading to growth and development for teachers and all their learners.

The other two possible conceptions take learners as explorers, while teachers as only facilitators. A learner as an individual explorer is enabled to explore for himself or herself and come to their own conclusions with a minimum of prompting from the teacher. This is a view that has tended to pervade approaches to language teaching based on input and acquisition, i.e. the teacher's role is to provide appropriate comprehensible input, which the learners act on in their own ways, leading to language

acquisition. As for democratic explorers, they can, in the teachers' eyes, be involved in the decision of the selection of materials and ways of learning. They won't be only listeners any more.

Approaches to Effective Teaching

It is accepted that teachers' beliefs can affect learning in a range of ways that go far beyond the transmission of knowledge (Pan, 2011). Some of these ways would be likely to include teaching learners how to learn, boosting their confidence, displaying a personal interest, enhancing self-esteem and organizing an appropriate learning environment. In a word, in ELT, teachers act as mediators to connect some key factors to learners, helping them to amount to much in learning.

To Clarify the Significance of Any Learning Task

This is based on the belief of taking learners as clients who intend to benefit from the learning process. With the awareness of the significance of the task they are going to deal with, learners can see the necessity of finishing it personally, thus concentrating their attentions on what they are going to do (Wang, 2010). Therefore, in presenting a task, teachers must demonstrate the value of it so clearly that it is understood and reciprocated by the learners. However, it is obviously ignored in University English Teaching to emphasize why a task is required to fulfill. Usually, teachers come to what they are going to transmit to learners with the concept that learners will be eager to accept anything about English (Wu, 2012). This results in the immediate lack of interest in finishing a task that is significant but a little difficult. That is to say, demonstrating the magnificence of a task in teaching English is an inevitable procedure.

To Encourage Learners to be Confident in the Process of Learning

Most learners are likely to accept the idea that they have not talent for language, trying to find excuses for themselves. These learners particularly need to be encouraged in one way or another (Cong, 2012). Thus, teachers have to take learners as partners and friends trying to understand them both in life and in study. It also needs teachers to be competent at spurring learners to believe they are capable of coping successfully with any particular task by presenting it with some more instructions. Whatever achievement learners make, they should be praised and told stories with messages to be motivated. By so doing teachers can help learners to fulfill all the tasks ranging from the easy ones to the difficult ones. Once learners build up confidence, they will be active to face any problem in their learning with persistence until they find solution to it and they will experience happiness of improvement.

To Instruct Learners to Study Regularly

As we know, most students have no habit of studying regularly, because they fail to discipline themselves. They have not any plan for their study. Usually, it is their wills, intentions and even moods that determine their actions (Li, 2012). Few of them are committed to their learning tasks, which should be taken seriously as what they have to finish to improve themselves. At the time it is better for teachers to instruct learners, for the part of instructors who take learners as raw material, to be aware that the most important task they have to complete is acquiring more knowledge. Still, they need to help learners to make a schedule for their study, and actually commit some time to finish learning tasks everyday. Usually it is hard for learners to get into this habit; therefore, teachers have to supervise them in their routine activities and to remind them of studying as scheduled on the appropriate occasions until they develop a good learning habit.

To Help Learners Set Goals Properly

In the process of learning, setting goals is also attached importance to. Learners need to have the habit of setting realistic goals and planning ways of achieving them (Borg, 2012). However, it is the worst to set long-term goals such as to be a translator, to pass Examination of Band-six and even to pass the IELTS to go abroad. These goals do little good to their study, because they are too difficult to be reached in a short time before they lose their confidence. That is, short-term goals are acceptable for any learner. For example, in class, teachers may set a goal of memorizing an instructive passage and learning a number of new words by heart. This is easy to reach for learners if only he can insist on learning for only a week, then he will notice the benefit from doing this. He will recognize his ability with a fresh look, and based on these achievements he will approach to more meaningful tasks.

To sum up, spotting learners' improvement, teachers will be clearer about their roles as mediators and aim at more other mediations they can provide for learners to become advanced. But we have to know that this recognition build on teachers' corresponding beliefs about learners. They should see learners as partners and individual explorers rather than just receptacles. Apart from this, teachers have to be clear with much broader social, cultural and educational knowledge. Furthermore, teachers themselves need to build up confidence to assure them of a positive perspective on anything they experienced or will experience.

Conclusion

Teachers' beliefs have to be taken into consideration when it comes to effective teaching. The identical model, if taken by different teachers, will lead to various achievements, because they are unconsciously influenced by their inherent views on learners. That is to say, they have different teaching principles derived from distinctive beliefs. Only by raising this awareness, can teachers organize class activities and set tasks for students as an organizer, controller, participant and facilitator; give instructions and offer useful information as a director and knowledge transmitter when students' feel confused and dismayed or eager for help; and finally evaluate students' work and give some advice and encouragement as a friend and guide students to achieve much in learning and gain confidence as well as competence.

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IRF Instructional Cycles and Learning Opportunities in Chinese EFL Pedagogy

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[Abstract] *This article draws upon the analytical techniques of conversation analysis methodology to demonstrate the ways in which a veteran teacher-practitioner uses interactional strategies to construct learning opportunities in a series of Initiation-Response-Feedback (IRF) instructional cycles. The transcribed discourse data from a Chinese secondary English classroom are carefully examined. It is found that the sampled teacher conducts the pedagogical work by using an array of instructional moves, such as requesting justification, elaboration and clarification from students, which have the potential to promote learning opportunities.*

[Keywords] *EFL pedagogy; classroom discourse; IRF; conversation analysis; China*

Introduction

China has embarked on a series of educational reforms at the national level. It is argued that educational change and reform should start with an understanding of what transpires in actual classrooms. A review of literature reveals that research on Chinese English pedagogy in secondary schools has been scarce at best. Subscribing to the sociocultural view of learning as changing learner participation (Young & Miller, 2004), this study attempts to document how a veteran Chinese English teacher-practitioner use interactional strategies to construct the opportunities for participation and, by extension, learning opportunities in a piece of classroom talk containing Initiation-Response-Feedback (IRF; Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975) instructional cycles.

IRF Instructional Cycles

Early studies on classroom discourse have shown that IRF is the default format for classroom interaction (e.g. Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975). The sequence consists of the teacher's turn of elicitations, the following student's answers, which occupy the responding slot, and the third turn, where the teacher gives feedback or follow-up to what students make publicly available in the response move. Not only the IRF sequence was extensively documented in the studies of first-language-classroom communication (e.g. Wells, 1999), but its presence in the second language context has been investigated and categorized by a number of applied linguistics researchers (e.g. Richards, 2006). In contrast to earlier negative views of the teacher-led three-part structure, more recent studies (e.g. Duff, 2000; Nassaji & Wells, 2000; Sullivan, 2000) have confirmed that learning potential can be greatly enhanced if teachers manage to follow up on learner contributions through strategies such as encouraging students' *clarification, justification and expansion* in third turn positions.

The Present Study

The classroom discourse data analyzed in this study comes from a larger research project on Chinese secondary English teaching undertaken at School of Foreign Languages, Northeast Normal University (Liu et al., 2010). The discourse data investigated here come from an English classroom from a

municipality-level key school. The teacher had over 20 years of in-service experience. I focus in this paper on the social organization of IRF sequences, whose ubiquity in Chinese English classrooms has been reported by some researchers (e.g. Wang & Liu, 2012). Working within the conversation analysis (CA) framework (e.g. Sacks, 1992), I analyze several rounds of IRF instructional cycles in teacher-student interactions. The CA analysis focuses on moment-by-moment unfolding of interaction and captures local contingencies thereof.

In the extract, classroom members are participating in what Walsh (2006) referred to as “skills and systems mode”: the teacher and students are working on vocabulary for describing human appearance. In this segment of discourse, the language teacher attempts to elicit from the individual students utterances containing words about height. The IRF instructional cycles prevail as the teacher and the taught go through each vocabulary item.

1	Female Teacher	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Yeah. Ok. So when we say a person's height, we usually use these adjectives. Ok. Fairly short means pretty short. Do you understand?
2	Class + Female Teacher	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 1: / Yes. / 2: / Yeah. /
3	Female Teacher	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Ok. Who is the : () tallest person in our class?
4	Class	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ()
5	Female Teacher + Male Student	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 1: Here. Come on, please. Come here. (..) All right. (..) Nice to meet you. What's your / name / ? 2: / () / My name is Jim.
6	Female Teacher	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Jim, stand here, please. All right. Now. Yeah. Stand here. Yeah. Ok. Jim is the tallest boy. Do you like to be tall?
7	Male Student	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Yes. =
8	Female Teacher	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> = Why?
9	Male Student	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Er, because (.) my mother is very tall.
1	Class + Female Teacher	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 1: / \$\$ / 2: / () / Ok. What can you do if you are very tall?
1	Male Student	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Er, I ca : n play basketball. =
1	Female Teacher	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> = Yeah. Er, do you want to be as tall as YaoMing?
1	Male Student	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ## No. =
1	Female Teacher + Male Student	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 1: = No. / Ok / . 2: / He / is very tall.
1	Female Teacher + Class	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 1: Very tall. / Too tall / . It's difficult to find a girlfriend. Do you think so? 2: / \$ /
1	Class + Female Teacher	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 1: / \$ \$ / 2: / Ok. All right. Now / . Yeah. Who i : s () a little shorter than him? A little shorter than him?
1	Class	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ##
1	Female Teacher	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Yes? Please come here. (..) Let me see. (..) What's your name? =
1	Male Student	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> = Ah, my name is () .
2	Female Teacher + Class	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 1: Hi, () .Yeah. (.) Stand there. (.) Yeah. So we say tall, / pretty tall / . 2: / Pretty tall / . =
2	Female Teacher	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> =Yea : h. Ok. Do you want to be taller?
2	Male Student	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Yes, I do. =
2	Female Teacher	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> = Yeah. What can you, how can you become taller?
2	Male Student	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Er, (..) jump and =
2	Female Teacher	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> = jump. Yeah.
2	Male Student	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> I swim. =

2	Female Teacher	• = Swim. Yeah. Ok. Very good. Who is medium height?
2	Class	• ##
2	Female Teacher	• You are medium height? Come here. Please. Come here. Medium height. And your name, please?
3	Male Student	• My name is Steve.
3	Female Teacher + Class	• 1: Steve. Hi, Steve. (..) All right. Medium height () . Tall, pretty tall, / medium height / . 2: / Medium height / . =
3	Female Teacher	• = Medium height. Ok. And who i : s (..) a li : ttle shorter tha : n him? Ok. Please come here. (..) All right. (.) Yeah. Stand here. (.) Ok. A : ll right. So you are pretty short. (.) O : k. (.) Do you want to be taller? =
3	Male Student	• = Yes. I do. =
3	Female Teacher	• = Yes, you do. Ok. All right. Because being tall, you ca : n (.) reach the apples in the tree. =
3	Male Student	• = Yes.

The excerpt begins with a talk exchange where the teacher provides a concluding account for vocabulary items about human appearance (Turn 1). In the first IRF sequence examined (Turn 6-8), after teacher initiation and student response, instead of refocusing the instructional attention, she stays with the same student in the third turn position to request *justification* by uttering the referential question “Why?” (Turn 8), which receives a learner response of full-sentence length (Turn 9). Accepting the learner contribution, the teacher raises another additional query in her follow-up move (Turn 10). What the male student contributes in the immediate next turn is another longer utterance (Turn 11). After acknowledging the student answer, the teacher provides a third follow-up question in her feedback move, which receives yet another full-sentence utterance (Turn 14). These three IRF instructional cycles involve teacher’s third turn positions which request from students *elaboration*, *justification* and *clarification*. This pedagogical performance has recently been extensively discussed by classroom discourse researchers (e.g. Nassaji & Wells, 2000). According to Nassaji & Wells (2000), for instance, this probing behavior is called “negotiation question” and it enhances learner participation. The third turn position in Turn 15 sees that the teacher repeats part of student response, expands it to “too tall” and comments on it. This is a case of teacher *elaborations* of student contributions (Sullivan, 2000), which has the potential to create the opportunities for learning. The second round of IRFs starts with the answering student responding in Turn 22 to the teacher elicitation (Turn 21). It has been followed by a request of *elaboration* from the teacher (Turn 23). She *affirms* (Sullivan, 2000) what the learner respondent contributes while prompting *expansion* from him (Turn 24). The male student reacts to the demand of further talk by offering an extra response (Turn 26). She ends the teacher-student exchange with another *affirmation* and expressions of explicit positive assessment (Turn 27). The interactional feature of repetition (e.g. Duff, 2000) also plays a positive role in the teacher follow-up turns (Turn 14, 15, 25 and 27). The teacher uses it to display the learner contributions to the whole class. After the standard question turn (Turn 32) and answer utterance (Turn 33), the third round of the three-part teacher-led sequences unfolds with another case of teacher *elaboration* (Turn 34) of student contributions. The teacher sequentially achieves this by confirming the student’s response utterance and commenting on the benefit of the learner’s choice. This follow-up technique has been mentioned above.

Note that although the language practitioner definitely has her pre-planned curricular object of focus, cases are abundant where teachers’ follow-up moves are sequentially contingent upon their previous

student moves. In other words, what the student has made available becomes the basis for the teacher's next turns. This analysis of the episode provides additional evidence for Lee's (2007) claim "... the third turn is an extraordinary place that brings into view a vast array of interpretive works and contingent methods of actions by the teacher as she acts on the students' second turns" (Lee, 2007, p. 1226). It is an example of "teacher actions that treated student responses as valuable and legitimate" (Hall & Walsh, 2002, p. 194). This interactional and instructional practice helps to "create a meaningful and motivating context for language use" (Hall & Walsh, 2002, p. 194).

Conclusion

In this article, I use the CA techniques to conduct an analysis of a discourse segment of teacher-student interaction. In the classroom data examined, the IRF instructional cycles prevail. The teacher-practitioner's use of these three-turn sequences, especially the second teacher moves, manages to construct the opportunities for learning. I summarize the traits that characterize the interactional techniques embedded in the examined IRF sequences: (a) the teacher requests the students to justify, extend and clarify their initial contributions; (b) the teacher elaborates on learner turns; (c) the teacher affirms student utterances; (d) the teacher talks to the whole class; (e) teacher turns recognize the role of learner contributions by reacting contingently.

The classroom discourse analysis in this study offers further insight into Chinese EFL pedagogy in secondary schools. Awareness-raising empirical evidence presented in the article can help pre-service and practicing teachers change their pedagogical practices for the better.

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Appendix: Transcription Key

##:	background noise that is inaudible
CHORUS:	multiple voices uttering in chorus
\$:	laughter
\$\$:	extended laughter
():	clearly audible talk but cannot decipher certain word or phrase
[Yes or no?]	overlap between speakers
[Yes.]:	
=	used when turn continues, or one turn follows another without any pause
(.)	pauses of approx < 2 seconds within an utterance
(..)	pauses of approx > 2 seconds within an utterance
:	used to tag prolongation of immediate prior sound

A Study on the Semantic Access of Third Language Learners¹

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[Abstract] *The present study aims to investigate whether third language's proficiency has any effect on the semantic access of the third language, employing a cross-language repetition priming method. Altogether 35 Chinese university students participated in the experiment. English was their second language (L2), and French was their third language (L3). The experiment was done on a computer equipped with the E-prime software. The less and more proficient French learners were asked to perform a man-made decision task in French, and then a lexical decision task in Chinese and English. The main findings of the present study are that more proficient French learners are likely to directly access conceptual representations, while less proficient French learners can not access conceptual representations directly and they need rely on much more English (L2) than Chinese (L1) in French's semantic access. Thus, language proficiency plays a crucial role in L3 semantic access. Findings of the present study can help instruct foreign language teaching in the Chinese context.*

[Keywords] *semantic access; cross-language repetition priming; language proficiency*

Introduction

Research concerning third language acquisition is a relatively new branch of language acquisition study but expanding substantially (Falk & Bardel, 2010). TLA studies have mainly focused on the acquisition of a third language from the perspectives of phonology, syntax and semantics. Among those semantic studies, how third language learners access the third language has been given greater prominence.

Semantic Access in TLA

Lexical studies on multilinguals have focused on the role of prior linguistic knowledge or the background languages (L1 and L2) in third language acquisition. Rast (2010) studied the use of prior linguistic knowledge in the early stages of L3 acquisition, and examined factors influencing third language acquisition, such as language typology, psychotypology and proficiency level. The results suggested an important role for both typology and psychotypology at lower levels of proficiency, and that even minimal knowledge of a background language could be the source of cross-linguistic influence of various types. Dewaele's (1998) research showed that words from background languages are mentally activated to various levels during the process of target language production, and that the order of acquisition played a role on multilingual lexical activation. His participants were Dutch (L1) speakers, some learned English (L2) before French (L3), and some learned French (L3) before English (L2). These learners' lexical inventions produced in French oral speech were identified as coming from French itself or transferred from Dutch and English. The findings suggested that both L1 and L2 were activated to different degrees during L3 speech production with the influence of the order of acquisition. Li et al. (2008) studied semantic access of less proficient L3 learners with proficient L2 (English). Sixty-four Chinese learners of English were divided into two groups according to their L3 (Japanese/French). The results suggested that

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less proficient L3 learners cannot access to concept directly and they had to access the conceptual representations of the third language through the first language. Wang et al. (2010) studied the role that L2 plays in L3 semantic access, using the same paradigm and experimental materials as those in the study of Li et al. (2008). Twenty-six students who were late Chinese-English bilinguals with Japanese as third language took part in experiment one. Another twenty-six students who were late Chinese-English bilinguals with French as third language took part in experiment two. The results of the two experiments indicated that less proficient Japanese multilinguals accessed the conceptual representations of Japanese (L3) via their first language Chinese, but less proficient French multilinguals accessed the conceptual representations of French (L3) via the second language English. Wang (2010) concluded that late proficient bilinguals access the conceptual representation of Japanese as third language via only first language (Chinese), but access the conceptual representation of French via both first and second (English) languages. They argued that language distance is also an important factor in semantic access of less proficient multilinguals.

Existing studies of multilinguals have suggested important factors in semantic access, such as prior knowledge of previous languages, order of acquisition, and the proficiency of L2 etc. However, more questions wait to be investigated. For instance, does L1 have any effect when L2 plays a role in L3 semantic access? Does L2 have any effect when L1 plays a role in L3 semantic access? Or does L3 proficiency have any impact on semantic access? The present study sets out to address the issue of whether L3 proficiency and language distance would influence access to word meanings represented in the L3 mental lexicon.

Research Design

Employing a primed man-made decision task and a lexical decision task, the study attempts to answer the following questions:

1. Does L3 proficiency have any effect on L3 semantic access? If the answer is yes, then what's the difference of the French's semantic access between the more and less proficient learners?
2. In the semantic access of French as a third language, what roles do the Chinese (L1) and the English (L2) play?

Participants

The participant pool consisted of 35 Chinese students from a language university in the northern part of China. French was their third language, while English was their second language. Thirteen of them were more proficient in French with an average age of 22 and the other twenty-two were less proficient in French with an average of 24.4 years old. All of them had advanced knowledge of English evidenced by their pass of TEM-8 (Test for English Majors-Band 8). All participants had normal or corrected-to-normal visual activity. All the participants received some reward after the experiment.

Instruments

The present experimental procedure was run on a private computer using software E-prime (the evaluation version) to present stimuli and to record reaction times (RTs). The experimental interface occupied the full computer screen with a size of 15.6 inches. Target stimulus was shown one by one in the center of computer screen with an opaque white background, in 18-point black Courier New font. All the

words were lowercase in order to provide participants a clear visual of each word. Screen resolution was 1366×768 and refresh rate was 60Hz.

Materials and Procedures

The experimental stimuli consisted of 48 Chinese-English-French translation equivalents. Twenty-four equivalents referred to man-made things (e.g.-car-voiture, 船-boat-bateau) and 24 equivalents referred to things not man-made (鸟-bird-oiseau, 花-flower-fleur). An additional set of 24 Chinese-English-French translation equivalents were served as fillers in the study phase. In the study phase French words were presented in a man-made decision task in a random order.

In the test phase words were presented in a lexical decision task in a random order. During the test phase words were presented in Chinese or English. Participants were asked to judge the orthography of the presented words (e.g., 车, 事往; car, stae) true or false. Twenty-four of the 48 critical words presented in the test phase were old (i.e., their French translation equivalent had been presented in the study phase). The other 24 words were new (i.e., their French translation equivalent had not been presented in the study phase). Twelve of the 24 old words and 12 of the 24 new words referred to man-made things and the other 12 old words and 12 new words referred to things not man-made. An additional set of 24 words (12 Chinese words and 12 English words) and 120 non-words (60 Chinese non-words and 60 English non-words) served as fillers in the test phase.

Participants made a man-made decision by pressing the J-key for ‘man-made’ response or the F-key for ‘not man-made’ response and made a lexical decision by pressing the J-key for ‘true’ response or the F-key for ‘false’ response. Each trial started with the presentation of a fixation mark (*****) in the middle for 500ms.

All the original data were dealt with before analyzing according to the three following standards. First, eliminate participant’ data whose accuracy rate was below 80%. Second, data of no response for target stimulus in provided time was also excluded. These data equaled 0.65% of the total data collected. Third, reaction times that were 2.5 standard deviations above or below the participant’s mean RT for each of the overall conditions in each group were excluded from the analysis and treated as outliers.

Results

The descriptive statistics for reaction time, accuracy and priming effect for the less and more French groups are presented in Table 1. Priming effect was calculated by subtracting the mean RTs for studied stimuli from those of the non-studied stimuli. This was done for both Chinese and English stimuli.

Table 1. Mean Reaction Time (RTs, in Milliseconds), Accuracy (Acc) and Priming Effect (PE)

	Less Proficient				More proficient			
	Chinese		English		Chinese		English	
	<i>RT</i>	<i>Acc</i>	<i>RT</i>	<i>Acc</i>	<i>RT</i>	<i>Acc</i>	<i>RT</i>	<i>Acc</i>
Studied	576	99.4	739	96.7	585	98.6	785	94.4
Non-studied	556	98.6	726	96.5	564	96.9	741	99.3
PE	-20*	+0.8	-15	+0.2	-21*	+1.7	-44*	-4.9

Note. Studied refers to the 24 experimental stimuli whose French equivalents were presented in the study phase, while non-studied refers to the rest 24 experimental stimuli whose French equivalents were not presented in the study phase.

From Table 1, we can see that no matter in which language condition, Chinese or English, negative priming effects of RT were found in both less and more French groups. For Chinese condition, less proficient French learners suffered almost as much priming effect (−20 ms) as the more proficient learners (−21 ms). However, for English condition, less proficient learners suffered less priming effect (−15 ms) than the more proficient learners (−44 ms).

Table 2. Results of the Two-Way ANOVAs

	Less Proficient		More Proficient	
	<i>F</i>	<i>Sig</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>Sig</i>
SS	4.776	.029*	6.701	.010**
LC	479.326	.000*	225.288	.000*
SS*LC	.179	.673	.802	.371

Note. SS=Study Status (Studied or Non-Studied), LC=Language Condition (Chinese and English)

Table 2 showed that for the less proficient French learners, main effect of study status was significant, $F=4.776$, $p<.05$, as well as language condition, $F=479$, $p<.05$. For the more proficient French learners, main effect of study status was significant, $F=6.701$, $p<.05$, as well as language condition, $F=225$, $p<.05$.

Table 3. Paired-Samples *t* Test on Study Status (Studied vs. Non-Studied)

	Less proficient		More proficient	
	<i>T</i>	<i>Sig</i>	<i>T</i>	<i>Sig</i>
Chinese	2.75	0.006**	2.12	0.035*
English	1.06	0.291	2.02	0.044*

Table 3 revealed that effect of study status was significant for both less and more proficient. For less proficient French group, response of studied targets were much slower than non-studied targets under Chinese condition, $t=2.75$, $p<.05$, while there was no significant difference between studied targets and non-studied targets under English condition, $t=1.06$, $p>.05$. For more proficient French group, response of studied targets were much slower than non-studied targets for both Chinese condition, $t=2.12$, $p<.05$, and English condition, $t=2.02$, $p<.05$.

Table 4. Paired-Samples *t* Test on Language Condition (Chinese vs. English)

	Less proficient		More proficient	
	<i>T</i>	<i>Sig</i>	<i>T</i>	<i>Sig</i>
Studied	-15.27	.000***	-12.16	.000***
Non-studied	-16.31	.000***	-11.64	.000***

Table 4 revealed that the effect of language condition was significant in each situation. For less proficient French group, response was much faster in Chinese condition than English condition, no matter for studied targets $t= -15.27$, $p<0.5$, or for non-studied targets, $t= -16.31$, $p<0.5$. For more proficient French group, response was much faster in Chinese condition than English condition, no matter for studied targets $t= -12.16$, $p<0.5$, or for non-studied targets, $t= -11.64$, $p<0.5$.

Discussion

Negative priming effect was also found in French group. Firstly, the response of studied targets was slower than non-studied targets for French learners. This phenomenon is the same as that in Japanese group. The interpretation is that studied targets in the form of French (L3) appearing in the study phase impeded the response of their translation equivalents in Chinese (L1) and English (L2). According to inhibitory control model (Green, 1998), a Chinese or English word is chosen in the test phase by suppressing lemmas from those in French in the study phase. Thus, greater costs, in the way of increased reaction time, were observed when switching into the more dominant L1 (Chinese) and less dominant L2 (English).

Secondly, less proficient French learners responded studied targets much slower than non-studied targets under Chinese condition, but there was no significant difference between studied and non-studied targets under English condition. French words at lemma level were highly activated in the study phase for both less and more proficient French learners. For less proficient French learners, when they were engaged in Chinese, a Chinese word was chosen by suppressing the highly activated French lemmas. In this process, greater costs occurred, in a way of costing more time to recognize Chinese. Thus, reaction time of studied targets was significantly slower than non-studied targets under Chinese condition.

However, situation in English condition is different from that in Chinese condition for less proficient French learners. There was no significant difference between reaction time of studied and non-studied targets under English condition. The more likely interpretation is that according to the TIA model (Dijkstra, 2003), a French word visual in the study phase activated English features due to the similar typological proximity in orthography, despite of their low proficiency in French. When engaged in English in the test phase, less proficient French learners chose English by suppressing highly activated French lemmas in a relative less cost. In other words, L3 (French) words helped prime L2 (English) regardless of study status. It is possible that such a language prime helped facilitate the activation flow to the L2 sublexicon (see also Potter et al., 1984, for a similar argument). Actually, sublexicon can be understood at the lemma level according to activation models. Thus, we can conclude that less proficient French learners are like to rely on English (L2) in French semantic access.

Less proficient French learners choose their second language English as a medium instead of their first language Chinese in French's semantic access, indicating that language distance also influences L3's semantic access.

Thirdly, more proficient French learners responded to studied targets significantly slower than non-studied targets. The more likely interpretation is that French words were so highly activated in the study phase that they activated few related Chinese or English features. According to the inhibitory control model, a Chinese or English word in the test phase was chosen by suppressing the highly activated French lemmas. Greater costs occurred in this process, in a way of increased reaction time. According to the economical principle, more proficient French learners are likely to directly access conceptual representations in the process of semantic access.

Conclusion

Major findings of the present study are that more proficient French learners are likely to directly access conceptual representations in the process of semantic access, while less proficient French learners can not access conceptual representations directly and they need rely on much more English (L2) than Chinese (L1) in French's semantic access. Chinese

Due to some practical reasons, the present study has certain limitations. Even though the data is still valuable for the present study, we have to admit the limitation of the small size of subjects.

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Research on Different Learning Styles between Arts and Science Students of English Majors

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[Abstract] Based on the survey among 68 seniors of English major in Qingdao Agricultural University, this paper studies the different learning styles between arts and science students of English majors. Statistical analysis indicates that the English majors employed a variety of learning styles in learning English with an obvious difference of frequency. Among them, the tactile learning and kinesthetic learning are frequently used, while the group learning style is least preferred. Moreover, there are really some differences between the students from arts and science: the arts students seem to have greater preference for auditory learning style than science students, whereas the science students are mostly characterized with tactile and individual learning strengths. There appears a distinctive difference between art and science students: science students like individual learning style much better than arts students.

[Keywords] learning styles; arts students; science students; English learning

Introduction

As an important educational system, the division of liberal arts and science from high schools in China leads to great difference in their learning styles and habits. In some English classrooms, we can often see that the students once majored in science in high schools perform differently from the arts ones, especially in the preferences of learning styles. However, researchers at home and abroad mainly cast their eyes on English majors' general situation of language learning styles, while the preferences of different disciplines of arts and science are so far much less studied. In fact, arts and science students' previous education experience should not be ignored in the process of English learning and teaching, and due attentions should be paid to their different ways of language learning in university.

The objective of the current study is to examine different perceptual learning styles between arts and science discipline students of English majors to help both teachers and students to get some Knowledge about their learning style preference. For the students, they can understand learning styles in general and identify their preferences of learning styles in order to make the best use of merits in the process of English learning. For the teachers, knowing their students' learning styles is helpful to meet the needs of diverse individuals, which will make their classes more attractive and effective.

Literature Review

Since Herbert Thelen put forward the concept of learning styles the first time in 1954, the research of learning styles can be divided into three periods (Sun, 2012): The first period started from 1950s to 1960s, whose focus is on the related theories. The second period, from 1970s to the mid of 1990s, during which the researchers are trying to use the scientific ways to show the elements which influence the learning style preferences. The third stage was from the end of 1980s. In this stage, the researches are mainly used to improve the language teaching and learning level practically. The fruits of learning style research were introduced into EFL and ESL classrooms to guide learning and teaching activities.

Compared with the study of learning styles abroad, domestically investigation is much later. Since 1980s, there have appeared literatures in China introducing the theory of learning styles. Wu (1993) and Yu (1997) have investigated Chinese students to study different preferences of learning styles of the students. Wang (1998) did the research on cognitive style and explored its influence on foreign language teaching, Ye (2000) stated the importance of finding out the students' learning style and trying to make the teaching meets the needs of students' preferences. Pei, Dou (2009) studied gender differences in language learning styles, Jiang (2012) explored the relationship between English learning styles and English achievements of students majoring in P.E., art and music.

But until now, no research has been found on different learning styles of arts and science students of English majors, so it is very necessary to investigate their learning styles so as to adopt the proper teaching and learning methods accordingly.

Definitions of Learning Styles

"Learning styles are different ways that a person can learn. It's commonly believed that most people favor some particular method of interacting with, taking in, and processing stimuli or information (Wikipedia, 2007)." The concept of learning style is put forward under the influence of general psychology at the beginning of 1950s. The systematic studies on learning styles started in 1970s. The scholars who present the concept of learning styles and different categories in the early years include: Dunn and price (1975), Gregore (1979), Reid (1987), Oxford (1992), Garduer (1993), (Kinsella, 2002) and so forth.

Garduer (1993) points out eight intelligences owned by learners, namely, introspective, social, logical, verbal, kinesthetic, visual and naturalist. Oxford (1992) believes that learning style is the general approaches which students use to learn a new language. Among these definitions, Reid's definition (1984) is considered as a widely favored one: learning style is a person's favorite ways of getting, and handling new information. The individual will insist the styles regardless of teaching ways or situations (Kinsella, 2002).

Although learning style's definition is given from different aspects in different ways, the main features of it still can be found. To begin with, learning style is regarded something unique. There is no doubt that learning style is influenced greatly by the prior education experience. Since every student has his or her unparalleled learning experience, each individual's condition is not the same as well. Secondly, learning style is considered something stable. It is formed in a long term instead of in one hour or a minute. And once it has been shaped, it will be a habitual behavior and persists regardless of the variation of the context. However, it does not mean that learning style can not be changed; Joy Reid (1987) believed that learning style might allow change and enables adaptive behavior while it is relative stable.

Reid's Perceptual Learning Style

Among all the studies of language learning styles, Reid's research is of particular importance. In his theory, six types of learners were classified in accordance with their style differences (Reid, 1987), they are: visual, auditory, kinesthetic, tactile, group and individual types.

Visual learners perform better by using the eyes. They prefer learning from seeing words in books, pictures, charts or films. Besides, they remember and understand information better than hearing oral explanations. Usually, they can learn alone with a book.

Auditory learners learn better through hearing oral explanation. When learning new materials, they may get more information by reading the materials loudly. It is beneficial for auditory learners to learn by listening via tapes, class discussion.

Tactile learners prefer learning through “hands on” experience like writing notes, doing lab experiments, or building models. That is to say, touching or working with materials provides them with the most successful learning situation.

Kinesthetic learners like learning through body experience by being involved physically in classroom experience through actively participate in activities such as field trips or role-playing they can learn better.

The group learners learn more effectively when they learn with others in a group. On the contrary, the individual learners enjoy learning through working alone and they prefer to study alone instead of learn with the group members.

Data Acquisition

The objectives of this research are to find out the general learning styles of English majors, especially the different learning style preferences of the arts students and science students. The survey was conducted to answer the following questions:

1. What types of language learning styles do English majors in university employ and with what frequencies?
2. Are there some statistically apparent differences of language learning styles between the liberal arts students and science students?

The questionnaire survey was conducted on 28th September 2012, which was finished by the senior students of English majors in Qingdao Agriculture University with the help of the teacher in class. There were altogether 80 questionnaires distributed and the same number returned, among which 68 turned out to be valid. According to their discipline division in high school, they are divided into two groups: of them 48 students are from liberal arts discipline and 20 are from the science discipline.

Reid's Perceptual Learning Style Questionnaire (Joy Reid, 1987) was used in this survey, which consists of 30 statements covering 6 learning styles: visual, kinesthetic, group, individual, tactile and auditory. The answer to each statement is evaluated through a five point scale in the order of 5, 4, 3, 2, 1 for “strongly agree”, “agree”, “undecided”, “disagree”, and “strongly disagree”. The scores are gained from the total scores of each of modality multiplied by two.

According to Reid (1984), if the score is within 38-50, then the related modality is the subject's major learning style. And if the score is within 25-37, it is the minor learning style. Moreover, if the score is within 0-24, then it is the negligible learning style. In this present study, only when the learning style modality's scores is among 38 to 50 will it be accounted as students' preferred learning style for figuring out the learning style preference percentage. As for the mean figures, if the mean figure is over 18, then the certain learning style is considered as the major learning style. And if the figure is within 17-17.99, it is students' minor learning style. Finally, if the mean score is less than 16.99, it is considered as students' un-favored learning style.

Results and Discussions

A General Distribution of All the Styles Tested

Reid's Perceptual Learning Style Questionnaire (Joy Reid, 1987) include six learning style modalities: *Visual* (question 6, 10, 12, 24, and 29), *Auditory* (1,7,9,17, and20), *Kinesthetic* (question 2, 8, 15, 19, and 26), *Tactile* (11, 14, 16, 22, and 25), *Individual* (13, 18, 27, 28, and 30), and *Group learning* (3, 4, 5, 21, and 23).

Table 1. General Distribution of Learning Styles

Preference	Visual	Auditory	Kinesthetic	Tactile	Individual	Group
Number	22/68	28/68	40/68	50/68	28/68	14/68
Percentage	32.35%	41.18%	58.82%	73.53%	41.18%	20.59%
Mean	17.51	17.62	18.32	18.91	17.62	16.74

According to the data shown in Table 1, the English majors employed a variety of learning styles. As is seen from the percentage of the six learning styles as well as their relative mean scores, the learning style preference are orderly tactile, kinesthetic, auditory and individual, visual, and group learning style. Moreover, tactile learning is the main modality used by English majors, accounting for 73.53%; while group learning is the least frequently used modality; only 20.59% students employed this style.

It seems that there is a tendency that students prefer tactile learning and kinesthetic learning most and prefer group learning style least. Most students prefer learning with their hands through manipulation of resources, such as writing, drawing, building a model or conducting a lab experiment, instead of merely “looking at” or “listening to” the materials presented. Learning English by taking a field trip, dramatizing, or interview are also favored ways.

This phenomenon of learning style preference may be influenced by the traditional system and teaching method. In middle schools, teachers usually adopt the grammar-translation method. And most students have the habit of note-taking, which make students favor “hands on” activities very much. As a result, after entering the university, the students still keep the previous learning habits in class.

Besides, kinesthetic learning style is also a key trend used by the students, which makes up 58.82%. In recent decades, the communicative approach is more and more popular in the world and it is the same in China. In order to develop students' communicative competence, especially university teachers begin to design all kinds of activities including role plays, games, drama acting and so on. Besides, participating in the activities is really interesting and meaningful for the students and more and more students begin to fall in love with it.

The mean scores and percentage of visual learning styles and auditory learning styles also show that they are the preferred learning styles by the students. With the traditional teaching style, namely the teacher-centered classroom teaching, the students usually get the new knowledge, by reading books, looking at the blackboard, listening to the explanations from the teachers or through the tapes and radio programs. As time passed, they gradually form the visual habit and auditory one.

Individual learning and group learning account for 41.18% and 20.59% respectively, which may be mainly influenced by the cultural background. The main cultural stream of China is Confucianism, which emphasizes personal modesty instead of “standing out”. As a result, Chinese students are reluctant to express personal views to others or to discuss with other students actively. And they favor finishing the task alone and thinking by themselves, avoiding losing face.

Comparison of Preference Difference with Reid's Investigations

Since Perceptual Learning Style Preference Questionnaire (Joy Reid, 1987) is the main research tool of the present survey, the author tries to make a comparison with Reid's results, which is shown in Table 2.

Table 2. Comparison with Reid's Investigation

Modality	Visual	Auditory	Kinesthetic	Tactile	Individual	Group
Reid's (1987)	13.55 (4)	14.09 (3)	14.62 (1)	14.52 (2)	11.15 (6)	12.41 (5)
Present survey	17.51 (5)	17.62 (3)	18.32 (2)	18.91 (1)	17.62 (3)	16.74 (6)

It can be seen from the table above that the results gained from the two studies have many similarities. For example, students showed multiple learning preferences, tactile and kinesthetic are greatly enjoyed by the Chinese students and individual style is least favored.

However, there is a little bit difference between the two studies: In Reid's study, individual style is not favored by the students, while in the present study, individual style is the major learning style of the Chinese students. Different sample source may be the key factors influencing the results. As we all know, Reid's samples are from different countries and are different in age with different English language levels, while the samples of the present study are all Chinese and are much the same in age and educational background.

Different Learning Style between Arts Students and Science Students

Table 3. Comparison of Different Learning Styles

Modality		Visual	Auditory	Kinesthetic	Tactile	Individual	Group
Liberal Arts	No.	16/48	22/48	28/48	32/48	12/48	11/48
	%	33.3%	45.8%	58.3%	66.7%	25.0%	22.9%
Science	No.	6/20	6/20	12/20	18/20	16/20	3/20
	%	30%	30%	60%	90%	80%	15%

From Table 3 above, it can be seen that those who are from arts discipline use tactile, kinesthetic and auditory learning styles most, while the students from science discipline use tactile, individual, kinesthetic most. Besides, the apparent difference is that the science students prefer the individual learning the most, with 80%, whereas only about 25% arts students prefer the individual learning style. Both arts and science students do not like group work very much.

It seems that students with similar learning background display some common learning characteristics. Those who had similar learning experience in high school employ some common preferences in learning. For the science students, besides taking notes, they have much more "hand on" experience by doing the experiments than the liberal arts students. While for the arts students, they usually absorb and memorize the new information by hearing and seeing. Therefore, we can see that learning style preference is greatly decided by the education experience.

As for the question, "Why do most students use least group learning style?" the explanation might be that they possess the Chinese people's traditional character of introversion and their learning channels in high school are mainly through listening to the teachers' speaking, taking notes and practicing after class. For them, Group work is considered a waste of time.

Conclusion

According to the data from the empirical research, English majors tend to have multiple learning styles, but some styles are preferred more than others. And tactile leaning style is most preferred, while group learning style is the least preferred. The arts students tend to show greater preference for visual, auditory and group learning style, whereas the science students are mostly characterized with kinesthetic, tactile, and individual learning strengths. A distinctive difference is individual learning style most preferred among the science students.

According to the difference between the arts students and the science students, teachers should adopt different strategies to help the students to be aware of the knowledge of learning styles and encourage them to adjust themselves to different learning needs, for some learning styles are more proper in relative learning situations. Generally speaking, excellent language learners are able to employ a combination of styles in learning process according to different necessities.

It is difficult for teachers to connect the teaching methods with students' learning style preference in our present language classroom, but it needs efforts to improve. Besides, with teachers' proper instructions, students can make full use of their personal learning style and study autonomously and purposefully, which will lead to high learning efficiency.

In fact, due to the limitations of the present investigations, deeper study is still needed. First, the broader sample should be chosen in the investigation. That is, the investigation should be conducted in different colleges and the number of the subjects can be expanded. Second, other affective factors influencing the learning style such as learning environment, and gender differences are also worth studding.

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Native-Speakerism: A Crucial Problematic Issue in ELT

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[Abstract] *Native-speakerism, a chauvinistic ideology derived from mainstream English speaking countries, has engendered pernicious effects on the worldwide ELT enterprise. Since English has developed into an international language, ELT based on this ideology must be reformed. Based on the previous research in this topical area, this article further explored the culturist nature and the concrete realizations of Native-speakerism. It also discussed the destitute situation of relevant research in China. Finally, it presented several questions for ELT researchers and practitioners to deal with before realizing a more equitable ELT world.*

[Keywords] *Native-speakerism; ELT; English as an international language, equality*

Introduction

Since early 1990s, many researchers and practitioners in the arena of English Language Teaching (ELT) have been exploring the complicated relations between or among social identity, culture and power, and how the interaction of these factors exerts influence on the philosophy and concrete practices of ELT (Phan, 2008). Their research indicates that the globalization of English language has not only facilitated the development of international communication and economy, but also consolidated the hegemony of English language and its embedded culture, and further strengthened the discourse that English language can represent civilization, modernization, technological progress and national unity (Phillipson, 2006).

Discourse is the product of power, while power can be formulated and enhanced by discourse. The hegemonic position of mainstream English-speaking countries has improved the sense of superiority on the part of native-English speakers, and rendered them the learning target for most English learners, resulting in Native-speakerism, a deeply entrenched ideology in ELT (Holliday, 2005). Due to the fact that English has developed into an international language and the demand for promoting equality in education, this article will draw on previous research to further explore the essence of this ideology and its representations in concrete ELT practices, with the intention to awaken and increase the critical awareness of Native-speakerism on the part of ELT teachers and learners.

The Essence of Native-Speakerism

The colonial expansion of mainstream English speaking countries in history produced both linguistic and cultural hierarchization between English colonizers and the colonized (Phillipson, 1992). The postcolonial discourse that English is a language of modernity, technological progress and national unity has further strengthened this inequality (Phillipson, 2006), resulting in the entrenchment of ethnocentric dichotomizations, such as ‘Self’ and ‘Other’ and therefore formulating ideological discrimination or prejudices against nonnative English speaker teachers (NNESTs) and learners in the arena of western ELT (Kumaravadivelu, 2003; Phillipson, 1992; Selvi, 2011; etc.).

This discriminatory ideology in ELT is criticized by Holliday as ‘Native-speakerism’, a belief that native-speaker teachers represent a ‘western culture’ from which spring the ideals both of the English language and of English language teaching methodology (2005, p. 6). The core tenets of this ideology

includes: 1) an ideal English teacher is a native English speaker; 2) teaching methods from mainstream English speaking countries are superb and applicable to the worldwide ELT; 3) teaching materials should be embedded in Anglo culture; 4) to learn English entails that one must learn the culture of mainstream English speaking countries and take the acculturation to those countries as the ultimate objective.

Via the lens of postmodernism, Holliday criticizes the nature of Native-speakerism in ELT, claiming that 'Native-speakerism' represents Cultural Chauvinism, an ethnocentric worldview that praises 'Self' as 'unproblematic' while denigrating 'Other' as 'deficient', with the intention for culture correction (Holliday, 2005). Such unfair 'Othering' of the peripheral people and their cultures can be regarded as the continuation of colonialism (Pennycook, 1994), the actualization of English linguistic imperialism, and the displacement of the local knowledge of peripheral countries (Canagarajah, 2002). In other words, it indicates that the 'Centre' arbitrarily imposes their own cultural values as universal or superior, ignores the social and historical differences (Holliday, 2005; Pennycook, 1994, etc.) and therefore tramples upon the political, cultural and linguistic heritage of millions of people across the globe (Kumaravadivelu, 2003).

The Realization and Side Effects of Native-Speakerism

The ideology of Native-speakerism can find its representations or realizations in different respects of western TESOL/ELT, ranging from educational documents (e.g. the five tenets of Makerere Report, Phillipson, (1992, p. 85), to concrete TESOL/ELT practices (Timmis, 2002; Phan, 2008, etc.). It also prevails in the world of English language research and teaching in the 'Periphery'. Out of 'pragmatic functionalism' (Pennycook, 1994), most professionals involved in ELT in peripheral countries seem to ignore the political aspect of English education, promoting actively Native-speakerism (Braine, 1999; Kim, 2011, etc.). The adoption of this ideology by both the 'Centre' and the 'Periphery' has produced serious negative effects on various aspects of the worldwide ELT profession.

In terms of employment, much research has explored the hidden institutional racism based on what Phillipson terms as 'native speaker fallacy' (1992). For example, Govardhan, Nayar & Sheorey (1999, as cited in Mackay, 2003) investigated the advertisements for teaching English abroad, finding that the main and perhaps the only common requirement for candidates was being a native or native-like speaker, or with western face and neutral accent. In the Periphery, cram schools and institutions offering English language programs often promote themselves as employing NESTs (Wu, 2009). As to linguistic norms, such as pronunciation, many professionals feel compelled to spend undue time repairing their pronunciation or even performing cosmetic changes to sound native, rather than improving their teaching skills (Canagarajah, 1999, as cited in Mackay, 2003). In classroom teaching, they demonstrate low self-esteem or confidence, compared with NESTs (Braine, 1999; Medgyes; 1994, etc.), partially because of their students' and parents' ideological stereotypes of an authentic English teacher (Brutt-Griffler & Samimy, 1999, as cited in Kim, 2011), and partially because the prevalent assumptive concept that the ideal English teacher is a native English speaker (Phillipson, 1992). Consequently, NNESTs often suffer the 'imposter Syndrome' (Bernat, 2009, as cited in Selvi, 2011), the result of which will not only prevent their academic development, but also affect their students negatively, as teachers' belief and attitude can strongly influence students' worldview and pertinent behaviors. About teaching method or methodology, many scholars (e.g. Phan, 2008; Kim, 2011, etc.) point out that teaching approaches, such as Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), Task-based Language Teaching (TBLT), or Learner-centered Teaching and Learning (LcTL) are promoted by many peripheral education administrations, though those

approaches or methods derive from the ‘Centre’ and have little relevance to the local culture and curricula of the ‘Periphery’ (Canagarajah, 2002; Holliday, 2005). Related to what culture to teach, the concept that learning English must take the acculturation to the culture of mainstream English speaking countries as the goal is overwhelmingly embodied in EFL textbooks. Those published by many prestigious international presses are embedded in Anglo-Saxon culture (Gray, 2010) and domestically published textbooks in the Periphery follow the same mode and implicitly or explicitly demonstrate discrimination toward the local culture (Lee, 2011). Even in Islamic world, “English as a Foreign Language (EFL) education does not often involve the culture of local students” (Fredriks, 2007:43, as cited in Hayati, 2010). The disproportional structure of culture in textbooks neglects the demand for reforming traditional ELT pedagogy on the grounds that English has developed into an international language (Mackay, 2003) and that the adherence to native-speaker norms violates the education principle and ignores the ‘alienation’ effect on non-native English learners (Prodromo, 1988, as cited in Gray, 2000).

Anti-Nativeness Discourse

Pro-discourse and anti-discourse often co-exist, and there is no exception with the discourse of Native-speakerism. The countering discourse originates from two main sources. One can be traced to the academic study on English as an international language (EIL), English as a lingua franca (ELF), and/or world Englishes (WE). These studies focus on the demographic change of English users and the setting where this language is used. Currently, Non-native English speakers (NNS) are estimated to outnumber their native speaker (NS) counterparts by three to one (Crystal, 2003, as cited in Matsuda, 2012). The increase of English users in number is related to the massive migration of Britons to the new worlds, the colonial expansion of British government to Asia and Africa (Crystal, 1997, as cited in Chen, 2009), and the ‘macroacquisition’, which has become a vogue since the end of World War II (Brutt-Griffler, 2002). The demographic change has resulted in the wide use of English in Outer and Expanding circles for both intra-national and international communication. According to Prodromo (1988, as cited in Ketabi & Shomossi, 2007), it is estimated that up to 80% of the communication in English takes place between or among NNS. Consequently, Mackay, (2003) argues that English has been denationalized or even renationalized and that the traditional mode of ELT teaching based on native-speaker norms has therefore failed in many respects.

The second source derives from the comparative study on the academic performance of NESTs and NNESTs (Medgyes, 1994; Braine, 1999, etc.). Compared with NESTs, Medgyes (1994) asserts that NNESTs have their own particular qualities, which involve possessing foreign language learning experience, tending to show more empathy with students, sharing the similar or even the same culture with students, and being able to provide better language learning models or strategies, etc. These are the qualities of which most NESTs are comparatively lack. Medgyes (1994) maintains that sufficient training in language teaching methodology is one of the prerequisites for future language teachers. Therefore, to be a NS cannot guarantee a capable language teacher, as ‘what you know’ weights more over ‘who you are’ (Rampton, 1999).

Despite the discourse countering native-speaker norms in ELT, Native-speakerism is still deeply entrenched in the mind of many NNESTs and English learners and the Periphery continues to surrender their voice and vision to the Centre by insisting on native-speaker norms (Kumaravadivelu, 2003, Holliday, 2005). By investigating the attitudes of students towards the native-speaker norms from 14 countries, Timmis (2002) finds that most subjects regard native varieties as the best starting point for ELT

pedagogy. In South Korea, although many teachers have developed the critical awareness of Native-speakerism, they cannot put this consciousness into full realization due to the pro-nativeness requirements by students, parents, school administrators, or government policies (Kim, 2011). This situation also exists in China, particularly because of the traditional attachment to native varieties firmly held by Chinese officials and administrators (He & Zhang, 2010).

Relevant ELT Teaching and Research in China

China has always been overemphasizing the instrumental function and the economic reproductive function of English education, and thereby its professionals engaged in English teaching and research tend to adhere to the native-speaker norms, without paying due attention to the political and cultural aspects of English education and the related negative effects on Chinese English teachers and learners (Cai, 2013). According to the literature recorded by China National Knowledge Infrastructure (CNKI) (the largest academic database in Mainland China) in the past 15 years, most of the relevant journal articles have been concentrating on the discussion of technical respects of English education, such as how to implement the teaching methods advocated by scholars from the 'Centre'.

Fortunately, a small number of journal articles exploring the inequitable power relations in ELT have been published in China. Among them, Zhu (2003) analyzes the theory of linguistic imperialism and linguistic ecology; Chen (2009) synthesizes the literature on the globalization of English language and discusses the future trend of English language teaching in China; Wang (2006) finds via quantitative research that Chinese English learners identify themselves more with Anglo-Saxon culture than with traditional Chinese culture; Cong (2000) indicates that Chinese English learners are unable to express Chinese culture in English, the phenomenon she terms as 'Chinese Culture Aphasia'; Liu & Wu (2005) analyzes the cultural component of English textbooks edited by Chinese scholars, concluding that text materials are mainly embedded in British or American cultural milieu.

Although China is not prolific in research on the cultural politics of English education, the small amount of relevant research conducted by Chinese scholars can be expected to arouse most Chinese ELT researchers and practitioners of their critical awareness about the culturist essence of Native-speakerism. In the light of the globalization of English language, the ethic principle of education, as well as the growing number of English learners and the substantially expanding body of English teachers in China (Graddol, 2006), ELT in this country must undergo a reform. To initiate the reformation, more research on Native-speakerism, particularly that within the context of China must be conducted.

Conclusion

If the adherence to Native-speakerism in ELT had been appropriate in the past, when the use of English was mainly confined to Britain, Australia and North America, it should be revised because 'macroacquisition' has changed the 'ownership of English' (Brutt-Griffler, 2002; McKay, 2003, etc.). Furthermore, a plethora of experimental studies have found that NESTs and NNESTs have both advantages and disadvantages in ETL (Braine, 1999; Medgyes, 1994, etc.). Besides, the widely accepted principle that education should help to create a more democratic society poses another serious challenge to Native-speakerism.

These challenges have constituted the basis for relevant future research, particularly within the context of China, as it is a powering house for the current worldwide ELT enterprise. Whether the glocalization (globalization plus localization) of English language has really caused any change in the

ownership of this language? Whether the discourse of English as an international language or English as a lingua franca has engendered change in ELT policy and pedagogy? Whether people involved in ELT, such as NNESTs or English learners, have adjusted their attitudes toward Native-speakerism? These are the questions that need further exploration for the sake of constructing a more equitable and ethic ELT world.

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A Tentative Approach to ESL Learning: An Introduction of Biblical Culture Teaching into College English Elective Course Systems

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[Abstract] There is a close relationship between language and culture, and it seems extremely important to learn about the western culture when learners start to learn English as a second language in the Chinese context. As a foundation of the western culture, the Bible and Biblical cultures possess an unshakable status in college English teaching and learning. This thesis aims at the practicability and feasibility of the introduction of Biblical Culture to the college English elective course systems and puts forward to some tentative suggestions on the implementation.

[Keywords] Biblical culture; college English; elective; feasibility

Introduction of Language and Culture

It has been axiomatic to all that language is an essential and organic component of a given culture. There are close relationships between language and culture, and the understanding of the latter contributes to the correct interpretation and accurate conveying of ideas and thoughts. According to Halliday (1978), language is a social semiotic system and instrument of social interaction and can't be separated from culture. "Words become meaningful only in its effective cultural background" (Nida, 2006, p. 139). Studying a language in the native speaking environment, a learner feels like a fish in the water owing to the fact of being submerged in his own culture. However, during the process of learning English as a second language, it seems a long way because of the differences in such aspects as culture, history, geography, economics, and politics and so on. Therefore, in order to learn English well as a second language in the Chinese context, it's vital that a learner be familiar with and understand the cultural background of English and its source languages. Ellis' Second Language Acquisition Theory (1999) pointed out that second language acquisition is just aspect of acculturation, and the degree to which learners get to adapt to the target language determines on a large scale how they are capable of acquiring the language. Throughout the history, the English language has experienced three phases in its process of development – Anglo-Saxon English, the Middle English, and the Modern English; during its development, under the influence of some other languages – Greek, French, and Latin, English has changed enormously in pronunciation, grammar and morphology.

Biblical Culture

As one of the two sources of the western civilization, the Christian culture, that is, the Biblical culture is embodied in the Holy Bible, the sacred book of Christianity and a great classical masterpiece of Western culture. The original texts of the Bible were written in Hebrew and Greek, in the Old Testament and New Testament, respectively. For ages, the Bible has been passed down on to generation after generation and has won great respect among countries all around the world; it has not only exerted the greatest influence in the religious field worldly, but also has had a great impact on other various aspects of the western civilization like politics, culture, philosophy, art, law, anthropology, ethic, archeology, and society, etc., thus contributing to the constitution and development of western civilization. Meanwhile, it is the key

component of British and American cultures, as well as the English language roots. The various versions of the Bible, especially the King James I Authorized Version of the Bible (1611) have been implementing great impact on the English language and literature.

Necessity of Introducing Biblical Culture to College English Teaching

For years with the efforts of many generations, linguists and educators have long reached an overall consensus that “the mere acquisition of information about a foreign country, without the psychological demand of integrated language and culture learning, is inadequate as a basis for education through foreign language teaching” (Byram, 1994, p. 5). Cultural learning should be taken as one integral part of language learning. In a sense, it has become common that culture is knowledge. College English teaching in Chinese context has by far experienced a long yet rewarding process of development and perfection, while it is still a long way before the efficacy of language teaching and learning becomes satisfactory. Too much attention is paid to the mere acquisition of linguistic system and the functional use of language, which are regarded as the ultimate goal of college English study. It has become vital that more emphasis be attached to the intercultural communicative competence of English learners. Still, it’s high time to implement cultural teaching into college English teaching and learning.

College English is not only a language course that provides basic knowledge about English, but also a capacity enhancement course that helps students to broaden their horizons and learn about different cultures in the world. It not only serves as an instrument, but also has humanistic values. When designing College English courses, therefore, it is necessary to take into full consideration the development of students’ cultural capacity and the teaching of knowledge about different cultures in the world.

According to College English Curriculum Requirements (2007), the requirements for undergraduate College English teaching are set at three levels, i.e. basic requirements, intermediate requirements, and higher requirements. Non-English majors are required to attain to one of the three levels of requirements after studying and practicing English at school. Institutions of higher learning should set their own objectives in the light of their specific circumstances, strive to create favorable conditions, and enable those students who have a relatively higher English proficiency and stronger capacity for learning to meet the intermediate or advanced requirements. In order to meet the requirements, and at the same time take into account their own circumstances, colleges and universities across the country have designed College English course systems that follow the guidelines of the requirements and the goals of their College English teaching. Meanwhile a series of elective courses are offered to meet the diverse interests and unique characteristics of learners at different levels, and clarify that undergraduates should achieve a certain amount of credits of elective courses in the duration of the four years college English learning. A course system, which is a combination of required and elective courses in comprehensive English, language skills, English for practical uses, language and culture, and English of specialty, are offered accordingly. Compared with the traditional English classes, elective courses are warmly welcomed by both the instructors and the learners for their laying emphasis on the enhancement of competence and flexibility in the design of courses, and consequently flourish for a time. More and more instructors commit themselves to elective courses and learners reap the benefits of them, with interest intensified, minds open, knowledge enriched and cultural literacy improved.

As is stated above, the Bible and Biblical culture have exerted great influence on the English language and Western civilization. It is critical to introduce the Biblical culture into college English

teaching to enhance students' intercultural communicative capacity. The Bible has been acknowledged as a classic not only with the narrow scope of religious value, but also with rich cultural influences.

Nevertheless, despite the fact that the Biblical culture is increasingly appreciated in setting up elective course system for English majors across the institutions nationwide, in which courses concerning the Bible have been incorporated into the systematic ones for both undergraduates and postgraduates as well, it is almost neglected for unknown reasons when designing elective course system for non-English majors. If any, most are concerned with the story-telling of the Bible as appreciation in the form of the presentation of mainly the instructors free of the participation of learners. While the perspectives such as its influence on the constitution and development of western civilization, its strong impact on the western literature, especially the British and American literature, its significant role in western art, politics, economics, and philosophy, etc. and the charming characteristics of Biblical language, are rarely involved in college English elective courses, regardless of the fertilization of the Bible in all aspects of social life in western countries.

The objective of College English is to develop students' ability to use English in a well-rounded way, especially in listening and speaking, so that in their future studies and careers as well as social interactions they will be able to communicate effectively, and at the same time enhance their ability to study independently and improve their general cultural awareness so as to meet the needs of China's social development and international exchanges. Taking into account that current required courses lay more stress on the cultivating of language skills, hence is more utilitarian and less humanistic-oriented, courses in elective phases should attach more emphasis to contents concerning language and culture as well as intercultural communication. Moreover, the majority of English learners constantly encounter brief and meaningful idioms and allusions when reading some western works of literature, in particular the British and American works or getting into contact with native English speakers, even in the textbooks of college English, which constitute an obstacle for them to overcome, even causing misunderstanding or even great embarrassment under some circumstances, for the reason that they are lacking in the knowledge of Biblical culture, from which such idioms and allusions come into being. In a word, the teaching of Biblical culture enhances our English competence, contributes to the understanding of the culture and ideology of western countries, with English learners benefiting in intercultural communicative capacity.

Concerning the reason and necessity of introducing Biblical culture to college English elective course system in Chinese context, the characteristics and influences of the Bible and Biblical culture can be summed up as follows:

First, the teaching of Biblical culture covers all aspects of the Western culture, which is beneficial to learners' assimilation of literature knowledge. Not only is the Bible an important religious sacred book, but it's also significant literary human civilization. It has been acknowledged as a classic throughout the history that has exerted a dramatic impact on human beings. The Bible recorded dicta from the "only one God", the great creator of the universe, covering the origin of the universe, the end of the world, the human nature, and the Christian teachings about sin, love and eternity, not only exerting great influence on the value system and ideological system of the western society, but also as the source of Western literature, especially the British-American literature. It embodies the positive thinking of peace, justice, democracy, charity, and integrity etc., which renders source of inspiration to the litterateurs throughout the history. One cannot comprehend the western civilization and culture without the knowledge of the Bible. Whether in the Middle Ages, or in modern society, or whether it works concerning classicism, romanticism, realism or modernism or postmodernism, the Bible shows its influence in this way or that,

and it would lose its charm without the influence of the Bible. Various forms of literature creation, such as poetry, novels, essays and dramas also trace down the employment and citing of the Bible. Prominent writers, poets, artists and philosophers seek inspiration and source material and endow it with original connotation. The world renowned masterpieces that appeal greatly to Chinese learners include *Hamlet* by William Shakespeare, *Paradise Lost*, *Paradise Regained* and *Samson Agonistes* by John Milton, *The Old Man and the Sea* by Ernest Miller Hemingway, *Jane Eyre* by Charlotte Bronte, and *The Scarlet Letter* by Nathaniel Hawthorne, such lists are endless. From diverse angles, the authors make explicit the doctrines of the Bible, their works reflect the ideological thinking of the Bible, and the images and language are also biblical. The authors either represent the allusions from the Holy Book literally, or adapt them to the novel with imagination, or even betray the morals conveyed by the Biblical allusions totally. It can be concluded that the Bible serves as a treasure-house for later creations of literature. Under such circumstances, the introduction of the Biblical culture teaching does well to better learners' comprehension and appreciation of literature classics. While appreciating the classic masterpieces through these outstanding writers, learners acquire more knowledge of the background information, thus having further understanding of the works and assimilating their literature knowledge.

Secondly, the teaching of Biblical culture helps to incorporate humanistic knowledge into language skills, improving the efficacy of language teaching and learning. With the development of the English language, the words, names and proper nouns representing the rich metaphorical language of the Bible have increasingly come into use both in the daily life and in the literature works. Idioms and allusions are ubiquitous throughout the literary writings and daily communication, enriching the English vocabulary enormously and endowing it with more charm and literary flavor. Such allusions and idioms listed below just serve as the tip of the iceberg (Chen, 2004; Wang, 2008):

1. The allusions about the characters in the Bible: good Samaritan; as patient as Job; Angel Gabriel; as wise as Solomon, raise Cain, etc.
2. The allusions about the animals in the Bible: lion in the way; wolf in sheep's clothes; fowls of the air; a fly in the ointment; wise as a serpent and harmless as a dove, etc.
3. The allusions about the vegetation: forbidden fruit; fig leaf; olive branch; broken reed, etc.
4. The allusions about the events: Noah's ark; Last supper; sell one's birthright for a mess of pottage, etc.
5. The allusions conveying doctrines: No man can serve two masters; Not let one's left hand know what one's right hand does, etc.

The Current Situation of and Tentative Research on the Introduction of Biblical Culture to College English Elective Course System

The author of this thesis conducted a questionnaire survey among students in Anshan Normal University with the purpose to learn about the familiarity of students with the Bible and the feasibility of the introduction of Biblical Culture to college English elective course system. With the kindly help of some of my colleagues, 181 sophomores of Grade 2011 from five different classes and faculties of non-English majors participated in the survey and gave answers to questions concerning their familiarity of the Bible and Biblical stories. Sadly, but not surprisingly, only 11% of the students surveyed reported holding one Bible or a book about Biblical stories, 90% of which was the Chinese version and the remaining as the bilingual edition; none of the students have read the English edition, such as the King James version. The reasons why so few students had the experience of reading the Bible, not to mention the English version,

lies in that various factors have constituted too great of an obstacle to overcome by the sole commitment of students. The factors are interpreted as follows: the first and most trying is the great number of names for characters and places, which are too difficult to remember; secondly, students do not have a firm grasp of information about world geography, culture and religious beliefs, Christianity in particular. Thirdly, students are not accustomed to the way of narrating and developing a story in English, or the employment of rhetorical and figurative speeches. Last, but not the least, a lack in grammar and an understanding of complicated sentences form a barrier that can't be neglected. According to the survey, most students have realized the importance of reading the Bible after a couple of years of learning, and do have a strong will to finish the reading at the beginning, while it's too difficult for them to carry on by themselves, so more than half regard Biblical culture electives as their first choice of learning about the Bible. Classroom teaching still holds the unshakeable status when it comes to the choice of methods of learning, students attach their hopes of improving Biblical awareness to teachers in normal class teaching, so the Biblical culture elective courses, regarded as a platform for extensive learning, play an important part in broadening students' horizon, widening their knowledge in various fields of natural and social science and developing their comprehensive ability. Still, students' interest and attention can be aroused and attracted through reasonable organization and high quality lectures. Teachers can enrich the teaching content by introducing some selected Bible texts to students, which will help practice students' reading ability and, meanwhile, it will be a good opportunity for students to sense and enjoy the original taste and flavor of this Western classic.

Tentative Suggestions on the Introduction of Biblical Culture Elective to the College English Course System

For most students of non-English majors, they have only two years' classroom English study under the instruction of their teachers. As for those who have a relatively higher English proficiency and stronger capacity for learning, they are capable of achieving the goal of passing CET 4, or even CET 6 in the first two or three semesters and it becomes a must to ensure they maintain their intense interest in English language and render an outlet for their enthusiasm for higher pursuit of English competence. Biblical culture electives serve as a good channel of arousing students' interest and guarantee their non-stop English learning during the four years duration of college study, thus helping develop students' language competence, improve their English learning efficacy and cultivate qualified graduates with intercultural communicative ability. By far, scholars and institutions, both domestic and abroad, have had some rewarding experiences of opening up Biblical culture electives for students of English majors. It's adoptable and practical to introduce Biblical culture course to college English teaching by means of the elective courses. As an elective, it's feasible to last for at least one semester as a total, and two class hours per week, in total. This elective course will take on a new look as being rich in content and colorful in forms with the Biblical culture covering many fields of social studies, such as poetry, prose, novel, fable, plays, parables and so on. The teaching of Biblical culture can be organized in several forms as below:

First, Biblical culture can be offered as an independent elective in College English course system. Bex (1994) once suggested "awareness of cultural diversity can be introduced into the classroom gradually, first by developing the pupils' perceptions of the grosser differences between their own culture and that of the target culture, and then by comparing linguistic variation with their own culture with linguistic variation within the target culture" (p. 60). It can't be denied that cultural infiltration plays an important part in the teaching and learning of a language. Background and text presentation are vital

when conducting the course, with the benefit of helping students understand cultural connotations beneath the superficial language. Meanwhile, the large amount input of vocabulary presents to the students the liveliest and most vigorous elements of the English language. In addition, some class hours can be taken to read selected materials of the Bible text. A large sum of reading is critical for the enhancement of the ability of a specific language, so it's a must for students to take time, both in and after class, to read selectively a certain amount of first-hand materials of the Bible under the guidance of teachers. During the process of reading, large quantities of idioms and allusions do attract students' attention and arouse their enthusiasm, taking into account of the fact that they are also frequently and widely used both orally and in written texts, so they are useful and practical in improving students' reading and communicative capabilities.

Second, Biblical culture can be combined with Chinese culture as an elective course aiming at making a comparison between the different cultures. The acquaintance of Biblical knowledge or the Western culture can be achieved through the comparative study between Biblical culture and Confucianism or Taoism in Chinese culture. Students are submerged in Chinese culture since birth, so they are quite familiar with it. Taking Chinese culture as a bridge to the understanding of the Western culture, students make greater progress in learning and have a more solid storage of information. Such an academic exchange platform widens students' vision, cultivates their taste in literature, and improves their ability to communicate between cultures.

Third, it is also a good way to incorporate the Biblical culture into some other language and culture electives of college English, such as *British and American Literature*, *the Comparison between Chinese and Western Cultures*, *Appreciation of English Movies*, and *Introduction of English-speaking Countries*, etc. To have an acquaintance with Biblical culture through such courses avoids the tendency of classes becoming dull and difficult. Biblical culture serves a subordinate status beneath, and students' focus is converted to other diverse "easy" subjects such as text analysis and features of the renowned *the Old Man and the Sea*, getting influenced by Biblical culture unconsciously and with less efforts.

Lastly, the teaching of Biblical culture can take other forms in second-class activities as an effective and organic component of the College English teaching and learning system. The institution can convey the Biblical culture through setting up exclusive columns in the campus broadcasting, or by holding a series of lectures or seminars to popularize the Bible and Biblical culture to combine learning with daily life, exerting the infiltration function of culture.

Conclusion

One cannot understand the Western civilization without understanding the Bible. Biblical culture, an important foundation of Western culture, exerts its impact in shaping the Western society, values and ideology and way of life, as well as the English language. Hence, there is a close relationship between Biblical culture and the English language. By now, educational reforms are being conducted to improve the learning efficacy of non-English majors, and the value and influence of Biblical culture on English teaching and learning are increasingly noticed and being given more weight. It becomes critical and feasible to introduce Biblical culture to College English elective course systems, and diverse forms can be taken to ensure the effective implementation of the introduction, which greatly helps to fulfill the teaching objectives put forward by the requirements, contributing to students' solid foundation of English language and communicative skills, and avoiding the phenomenon that a large proportion of English learners are becoming proficient in tests while doing poorly in communication.

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A Study of Engagement in English Crisis Coverage by Mass Media

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[Abstract] Analyzing data on ten crisis topics, such as earthquake, H1N1, and air crash, under the theoretical framework of engagement system in Appraisal Theory, the present study analyzes distribution of engagement resources in English crisis coverage, probes the feature of the occurrence and tells how the authors use engagement resources to release objective, authentic, and neutral reports.

[Keywords] Appraisal theory; engagement resources; English crisis coverage, mass media

Introduction

Crisis coverage has a great effect on the public. It may calm audiences down or let them become panic. As one of the main source to get information, crisis coverage by media plays an important role in the society, which has been studied by many scholars and experts. However, the former researches of crisis coverage mainly focus on reporting concept, function, model, policies, strategies and the problems. Sherry J. Holladay (2009) probed communication strategies of crisis reports. Perse (2001) and Lundy (2007) discussed the function of mass media in crisis. Ye (2009) studied the phenomenon and causes of media anomie, discussed how to keep harmony of the society for the media, and advocated the communication strategies in crisis events. Study on crisis coverage from the perspective of discourse analysis, especially under the theoretical framework of Appraisal Theory is limited. Ma (2007) made an analysis of the report about the earthquake in Pakistan with the view to figure out the attitude and viewpoints held by the news report. However, Ma's study is confined to the attitudinal analysis that just tells the author's attitude, but not figures out how the author expresses his stance.

Appraisal Theory, proposed by Martin in the early 1990s, is concerned with the linguistic resources by which texts/speakers come to explore, describe and explain the way language is used to evaluate, to adopt stances, to construct textual personas and to manage interpersonal positions and relationships. Now it is widely applied to the analysis of media discourse, including hard news, news stories and news comments, and a large part of the attention has been paid to the attitudinal analysis.

The study of crisis report from context meaning and evaluation is limited. In view of the state that no one has conducted the study of engagement resources of crisis news under the theoretical framework of Appraisal Theory, it is necessary to study the crisis coverage from the perspective of engagement, source how the reporters cover the crisis events.

Theoretical Framework

Appraisal theory is a particular approach to exploring, describing and explaining the way language is used to evaluate, to adopt stances, to construct textual personas and to manage interpersonal positions and relationships. The theory is concerned with the language of evaluation, attitude and emotion. Appraisal Theory is divided into three interaction domains: attitude, engagement and graduation. Attitude is concerned with our feelings, including

emotional reactions, judgments of behavior and evaluation of things. Engagement deals with sourcing attitudes and the play of voices around opinions in discourse. Graduation attends to grading phenomena whereby feelings are amplified and categories blurred (Martin, 2005, p. 35). Furthermore, these three subsystems have their own subsystems: affect, judgment and appreciation in Attitude, monogloss and heterogloss in Engagement, and force and focus in Graduation.

According to Martin and White (2005), “Engagement is concerned with the ways in which resources such as projection, modality, polarity, concession and various comment adverbials position the speaker/writer with respect to the value position being advanced and with respect to potential responses to that value position-by quoting or reporting, acknowledging a possibility, denying, countering, affirming and so on” (p. 36).

Dialogic Expansion

Expansion has two categories: entertain and attribute. Entertain refers to those wordings by which the authorial voice indicates that its position is but one of a number of possible positions and thereby, to greater or lesser degrees, makes dialogic space for those possibilities (Martin, 2005, p. 104). Entertain realized through modal auxiliaries, modal adjuncts, and modal attributes.

Attribute refers to the resources that disassociate the proposition from the text’s internal authorial voice by attributing it to some external source (Martin, 2005). Within attribution, there are two sub-categories: acknowledge and distance. Acknowledge is mainly about the attribution where ‘neutral’ frames are employed to simply report the words and viewpoints of external voices. It is mainly realized through the reporting verbs such as say, report, state, declare, announce, etc. Under distance, there is an overt distancing of the authorial voice from the attributed material. The speaker/writer can detach himself/herself the presented external views by using the reporting verbs such as claim.

Dialogic Contraction

Dialogic Contraction refers to the resources employed by writers to challenge, fend off or restrict the scope of the alternative voices internally or externally manifested in the written discourse. These contractive meanings fall into two broad categories naming disclaim and proclaim. Disclaim supplies meanings by which some prior utterance or some alternative position is invoked so as to be directly rejected, replaced or held to be unsustainable. Obviously to deny or reject a position is maximally contractive in that, while the alternative position has been recognized, it is held not to apply. Under disclaim, there are two subcategories: deny and counter. Proclaim refers to the resources that act to limit the scope of dialogistic alternatives in the ongoing colloquy rather than directly rejecting or overruling a contrary position. It includes three subcategories: concur, pronounce and endorse.

Research Methodology and Data Collection

The data to be analyzed in the thesis are the collected crisis news from English influential newspapers’ official websites such as The Los Angeles Times (<http://www.latimes.com/>), Washington Post (<http://www.washingtonpost.com>) and so on. Twenty English reports about crisis events were selected. These texts are chosen from ten crisis topics: Tsunami, drought, fire, traffic accident, financial crisis, air crash, typhoon, snow storm, H1N1 and earthquake. The collected crisis news is processed by the professional linguistic software- UAM CorpusTool

V.2.0 which helps count the frequencies of the engagement resources of the corpus. After the work of coding segments to the defined features and assign feature to the whole text, we got the frequencies of engagement resources in the collected news.

Results and Discussion

After defining the features to the text segments and statistic processing, we got the following results of engagement variables and their frequencies. The distributions of engagement of English crisis news are shown in global descriptive statistics and local descriptive statistics. Global means that the percentages in a system adds up to 100%, and it can tell what it is measuring the propensity to select this particular feature as opposed to the other features in the same system. Local means all features within each subsystem add up to 100%. Comparative statistics results of two languages are also supplied in the table, which is helpful to tell the differences and similarities between them.

Table 1. Global Statistics of Engagement Resources

Global Statistics of Engagement Resources		
Feature	Percent	N
ENGAGEMENT-TYPE		
monogloss	0.00%	0
heterogloss	100.00%	179
HETEROGLOSS-TYPE		
contract	25.14%	45
expansion	74.86%	134
CONTRACT-TYPE		
disclaim	21.23%	38
proclaim	3.91%	7
DISCLAIM-TYPE		
deny	8.94%	16
counter	12.29%	22
PROCLAIM-TYPE		
concur	0.00%	0
pronounce	0.56%	1
endorse	3.35%	6
EXPANSION-TYPE		
entertain	3.91%	7
attribute	70.95%	127
ATTRIBUTE-TYPE		
acknowledge	70.95%	127
distance	0.00%	0

Table 2. Local Statistics of Engagement Resources

Local Statistics of Engagement Resources		
Feature	Percent	N
ENGAGEMENT-TYPE		
monogloss	0.00%	0
heterogloss	100.00%	179
HETEROGLOSS-TYPE		
contract	25.14%	45
expansion	74.86%	134
CONTRACT-TYPE		
disclaim	84.44%	38
proclaim	15.56%	7
DISCLAIM-TYPE		
deny	42.11%	16
counter	57.89%	22
PROCLAIM-TYPE		
concur	0.00%	0
pronounce	14.29%	1
endorse	85.71%	6
EXPANSION-TYPE		
entertain	5.22%	7
attribute	94.78%	127
ATTRIBUTE-TYPE		
acknowledge	100.00%	127
distance	0.00%	0

It can be seen from Table 1: the total number of engagement resources in the English crisis news is 179. Among them expansion has more occurrences than contraction with the number of 134 versus 45, which accounts for 74.86% and 25.14% respectively. In the subcategory of contract, disclaim take 21.23% with the number of 38; while proclaim take 3.91% with the number of 7. In the subsystem of disclaim, deny is 16, and counter is 22, accounting for 8.94% and 12.92% respectively in the whole system. In the subcategory of proclaim, no concur occurs, while pronounce and endorse take 0.56% with the number of 1 and take 3.35% with the number of 6 respectively. Under the category of expansion, the number of attribute is 127 accounting for 70.95% taken the most part of whole system, while entertain accounts for 3.91% with number of 7. Acknowledge in attribute takes 70.95% with the number of 127 in the whole system and no distance occurs in the English crisis news.

Table 2 shows the local statistics which means the total percent of each subcategory is 100%. In the whole heterogloss system, expansion overcomes contract with the number of 134 and 45, which accounts for 74.86% and 25.14% respectively. Among the 45 contract, the occurrence of disclaim far exceeds that of proclaim with the number of 38 versus 7, which accounts for 84.44% and 15.56% respectively. As refers to subsystem disclaim, the number of deny is 16 which accounts for 42.11%, while the number of counter is 22 which accounts for 57.89%. Under the category of proclaim, no concur occurs and pronounce takes 14.29% with the occurrence frequency of 1, while endorse takes 85.71% with the occurrence number of 6. Within the subcategory of expansion, the number of entertain is 7 which accounts 5.22%, however the number of attribute is 127 which accounts up to 94.78%. In the attribute system, acknowledge take the whole percent that is 100%, and no distance occurs.

The results presented in global and local statistics indicate that: 1) compared with contract, in the crisis news reporters use more expand resources to open the space for speaking, with the percent of 25.14 versus 74.86; 2) in the subcategory of expansion, attribute resources almost take all the part of it, with the local statistic percent of 94.78; and the acknowledge occupies the whole part of attribute with 100%; 3) under the subcategory of contract, concur resource has not appeared in the study, only deny (8.94%), counter (12.29%), pronounce (0.56%), endorse (3.35%) take a small part of the whole engagement system.

Analysis of Dialogic Expansive Resources

Dialogic expand resources act to make allowances for heteroglossic negotiation and interaction with the alternative voices to extend the potential of construing heteroglossic diversity. It has two categories: entertain and attribute. Under entertain, the textual voice indicates the proposition is but one of a range of possible positions and thereby makes dialogic space for those possibilities, entertains or invokes these dialogic alternatives. In the English crisis news, entertain resources take 3.91% in the whole engagement system.

The following are some “entertain resources” examples from the English crisis news.

- 1) *Rescue teams who had dug out one car from chocolate brown slime were seen working inside it, possibly to recover more bodies.*
- 2) *The snow and rain was expected to end later Sunday.*

As shown, the entertain resources are realized by the expressions such as: *expected, possibly, could*. The author uses these entertain resources to predict or guess the develop direction of the

crisis event. These words just tell an uncertain possibility so they help the author open up a dialogical space for alternatives. The entertain resources indicate uncertainty and they may weaken the authors' authoritativeness, so the occurrence is low, which is just 3.91%. Under the category of attribute, the author strategically dissociates the position from the internal authorial voice of the text by attributing it to some external sources of voices. It is most typically achieved through the grammar of directly and indirectly reported speech and thought. Within attribution there are two sub-categories: acknowledge and distance.

Acknowledge is mainly about the attribution where 'neutral' frames are employed to simply report the words and viewpoints of external voices. Under acknowledge, there is no overt indication as to where the authorial voice stands with respect to the proposition. With those acknowledge resources, reporters present the authorial voices as engaging interactively with the textual voices and in this way achieve the purpose of objectivity and neutrality.

3) Waves of up to 1.5m (5ft) were reported to have hit the New Zealand coastline.

4) Rescuers had to cut open the roof of the mangled bus to pull out the students, according to local media reports.

Through direct or indirect speech, the authors cite other people or organization's saying into the news to show the factuality, authority, reliability and authenticity of the reporting. These above mentioned expressions are made by the people or organizations that are the authority in the related field. These news sources are from governors, experts, investigators, famous agencies and so on, which supply a strong back for the reporting. Acknowledge helps the author to be neutral, so it makes the report become authorial, reliable and authentic. By reading those reports, the readers get closer to the truth but not been influenced by the reporter's personal idea.

Crisis is an unexpected state. Therefore, it is reasonable to adopt acknowledge resource to leave space for the alternatives. For the above reasons, the resources of acknowledge have the highest frequency in English crisis news, which account 70.95% in the whole system.

Analysis of Contract Resources

Dialogic Contraction resources act to contract the dialogic space rather than to open it up. Disclaim supplies meanings by which some prior utterance or some alternative position is invoked so as to be directly rejected, replaced or held to be unsustainable. Under disclaim, there are two subcategories: deny and counter.

(5) There were no immediate reports of widespread damage, injuries or deaths in the US or in the Pacific islands.

(6) Three more quakes rattle southern NZ, no damage.

Using these deny resources not and no, the authors put forward an opposite position to the mostly accepted ones. In the public's eyes, the crises certainly bring ravage to the property or even take away somebody's life. DENY shut down other alternative, so as to correct some misunderstanding or misconception on the addressee's part, therefore they help to relive and give a hope to the public. Using those DENY, the authors present comment on the government or related agencies, which have not correctly taken action. Deny implicates the government or related agencies responsibility and how should they deal with the crisis event. For example: 1) Officials were not immediately sure what caused the crash. 2) There were no immediate reports of damage or casualties. The first sentence indicates that the official should certain the causes of

the crash. The second sentence raises the idea that there should be reports of damage or casualties. DENY leave a minimal dialogical space to the alternative positions. Therefore, these resources strengthen the author's position also make the report reliable and advisable.

Counter refers to the resources that represent the current proposition as replacing or supplanting, and thereby 'countering' a proposition, which would have been expected in its place. It is dialogistic in the same way as deny in that it invokes a contrary position, which is then said not to hold.

(7) *It records more than 14,000 earthquakes a year, though only about 150 can be felt by people and fewer than 10 a year do any damage.*

(8) *The weather was beginning to ease today but police warned against non-essential travel describing the road surfaces as like ice-rinks.*

Those counter resources such as: *in spite of, but, while, however, though*, represent the current proposition as replacing or supplanting with a proposition, which would have been expected in its place. The expectation is replaced by an alternative. Counter construes the reporter as sharing the same axiological paradigm with the readers. It is easy for the public to accept the reporter's proposition, thus achieve the aim of persuade.

Proclaim refers to the resources, which act to limit the scope of dialogistic alternatives in the ongoing colloquy rather than directly rejecting or overruling a contrary position. It includes three subcategories: concur, pronounce and endorse. Pronounce refers to the formulations, which involve authorial emphases or explicit authorial interventions or interpolations. Under pronounce, speakers interpolate themselves directly into the text, as they are responsible for the utterance. In order to avoid subjectivity, the reporters seldom use this resource, so we just got two examples from the collected data.

(9) *Virtually all cases of influenza that were tested have been caused by the H1N1 virus rather than by seasonal flu viruses.*

The formulation, *virtually*, constitutes an overt intervention into the text by the authorial voice, by which the author expresses his idea so as to assert or insist upon the value or warrantability of the proposition. Because the pronounce resource tells the author's proposition, the reporting is not so objective to some extent, therefore it is limited used in the data.

Endorse refers to the resources by which the authorial voice construe the position as correct, valid, undeniable or maximally warrantable through attribution to external sources.

(10) *H1N1 vaccine was unevenly distributed across L.A. County, figures show.*

The formulations *figures show* sourced to external sources are construed by the authorial voice as correct, valid, undeniable and maximally warrantable. Under endorse the internal voice takes over responsibility for the proposition, or at least shares responsibility for it with the cited source. It is the inner authorial voice. Endorse associates the proposition primarily with the subjectivity of the authorial voice, so it excludes any such alternatives from the ongoing colloquy and closes the dialogical space. In the proclaim category, endorse has far more occurrences than pronounce and concur, because endorse makes the crisis coverage more subjective, scientific and persuasive. Endorse resources help the reporter contract the space for alternative voices.

Conclusion

On facing a crisis, people only know what has happened around himself, but uncertain what happened on others and what will happen in the future. Everything is in mess, and it is difficult to get the exact information or truth, so crisis reports just supply the limited information they have got at hand. For the purpose of an earlier releasing of the report and a quick response, the reporter must compose the limited information they have known into a report. For the above reasons, the information supplied in the reports is just part of the truth.

Crisis coverage plays a very important role in the society. First, these reports supply information, explanations, and interpretations for the public. In order to convey professional information, the report should be objective, authentic and neutral. Second, these reports act as an important source for giving advices for the public and related agencies. Third, these crisis reports play a very important role in the cultivating of the public's knowing and pacifying tension, anxiety, and fear of the people. All these functions demand for objective, authentic, neutral authorial and reliable reports on crisis.

Because of the limitation of the information, the reporters choose to adapt more expand resources than contract resources and almost same rate of entertain to leave space for alternative information.

In order to give objective, authentic, neutral authorial and reliable reports, the authors use the acknowledge resources without using distance and concur resources. These acknowledge resources allow the writer to remain aloof from any relationships of either alignment or misalignment. They present the writer as some sort of "informational fair trader" who simply conveys the views of others. The information suppliers are someone who witness the crisis or are related to the crisis, whose words are reliable and authorial. Distance and concur resources express the author's disapproval or approval stance towards the external proposition, which is subjective. Therefore, in order to avoid being subjective, the author seldom uses these two kinds of resources. By neutrally quoting others statements, the reports can achieve the purpose of crisis coverage.

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An Empirical Research on Non-English Majors' Learning Burnout in Oral English

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[Abstract] *An empirical research is done among non-English majors in four universities and colleges in Sichuan Province to identify their learning burnout in oral English. It was found that some do feel burned out in oral English learning; fortunately, the degree is not very serious. In addition, freshmen are less burned out than sophomores, and in the dimension of dejection and reduced personal achievement, their differences are significant. Though boys are in a more serious status of learning burnout than girls, the differences between them are not significant. According to this phenomenon the paper analyzes its reasons and then gives some countermeasures.*

[Keywords] *empirical research; non-English majors; learning burnout; oral English; countermeasures*

Introduction

With the rapid development of globalization, international communication is becoming more and more frequent. During this course, it's of great importance for Chinese undergraduates to have a good command of English, of course, including non-English majors. As to the language of English, it's a universally-used tool of communication. However, to many learners, the purpose of learning English is to pass various kinds of tests and get many certificates. They seem indifferent to oral English. They seldom spend time on oral English learning, and even in oral English classes, they are always absent-minded. In other words, learning burnout has existed among them, of course, which is a barrier to their success in their English learning. Learning burnout is a state in which students have no interest in learning or have a lack enthusiasm about it, but they have no choice but to do it. Under this circumstance, they will get sick of learning, and feel tired in body and mind (Yang & Lian, 2005). The appearance of learning burnout in oral English may result in some bad effects on students. Thus, it's necessary to investigate the current level of non-English majors' burnout in oral English learning, analyze the reasons for it, and then figure out some reasonable countermeasures to it.

Research Design

Questions for Research

The existence of learning burnout will have a negative impact on learners' English learning results, and even affect the learning atmosphere of the entire class or university. So this research aims to testify the present situation of non-English majors' learning burnout in oral English learning, and the differences among students from different grades and between genders, and then on the basis of the results, this paper will give some appropriate measures to solve it.

Research Instruments

This research was done through questionnaires and face-to-face talks between researchers and participants. The questionnaire was designed by researchers based on some other researchers'

questionnaires in this field before, which turned out to be reliable (Yang, 2004; Zhang, 2011; Zhang, 2013). In order to make it more suitable to this research, some necessary changes were made, and then the new questionnaire was put into use. The aim of this questionnaire was to testify to the current situation of learners' learning burnout in oral English. It consists of 3 dimensions: dejection, improper behavior and reduced personal accomplishment. As to dejection, this refers to learners' indifference to study due to the lack of interest. In this questionnaire, there were 8 questions, for instance, *I feel bored with oral English practice*. Speaking of improper behavior, it's a phenomenon that learners are always late for school, or even absent from school, or don't hand in their homework on time; in this aspect, there were 6 items, for example, *I often refuse to participate in oral activities*. Reduced personal accomplishment means learners have low self-esteem in study due to their lack of confidence. There were 6 items in this questionnaire; for instance, *my oral English is very poor*. To each item there are 5 choices from *I completely agree with it to I don't agree with it at all*, and respectively stands for score from 5 to 1, but on some items, the score was graded reversely. The higher the score was, the more serious the learning burnout is.

After the questionnaire was finished, about 60 students are chosen in each university at random to attend a face-to-face talk with the researchers. The aim was to find out the reasons for their learning burnout in oral English. All of the questions here were open questions.

Participants

The research was carried out in 4 local universities in Sichuan province. Freshmen of Grade 2012 and sophomores of Grade 2011 participated in it. In total, 1248 students were involved. Among them, there were 666 girls, and 582 boys. Five hundred and forty-nine (549) students are freshmen; six hundreds and ninety-nine (699) are sophomores. They were required to finish the questionnaire within 20 minutes on their own. After careful analysis of the collected questionnaires, some were found invalid. Finally, 1146 collected questionnaires were valid; among them, 516 are freshmen, 630 are sophomores; 522 are boys, and 624 are girls. The data was put into the computer, and with the help of SPSS14.0, the results are shown below.

Results and Analysis

Total score.

There were 20 items in the questionnaire, and the highest score is 100. According to this, participants with a score of 60 or more are regarded as ones who are burned out; and those below 40 are regarded as learners without learning burnout; those between 41 and 59 are regarded as ones in uncertain status. The total scores are divided according to this criterion.

Table 1. Total Scores

Score	Below 40	41 - 59	Above 60
Number	204	492	450
Percentage (%)	17.8	42.9	39.3

It's revealed that learning burnout does exist among non-English majors nowadays. According to Table 1, 450 learners have been in a status of learning burnout, which occupies 39.3% of all the participants. The table shows that 17.8% of the participants are not burned out. Most of the participants are in an uncertain status, which means that the chances for them to graduate into either of the extremes

are equal. Therefore, teachers should care more about such learners in order to prevent learning burnout. Otherwise, the situation will become very serious.

Differences in means between freshmen and sophomores.

Table 2. Differences in Means Between Grade 1 and Grade 2

	Freshmen	Sophomores	F
Dejection	20.4651±0.48017	21.9333±0.55060	6.318*
Reduced personal accomplishment	16.6512±0.39274	18.5048±0.46561	2.852**
Improper behavior	14.5814±0.37335	14.9429±0.42102	1.783
Total score	76.8485±0.89825	84.6484±0.77943	4.833*

(*, **, and *** respectively stands for $p < 0.05$, $p < 0.01$, and $p < 0.001$)

It's obvious that the average total scores of both freshmen and sophomores are above 60, which tells us that learning burnout has appeared in both groups. What's more, sophomores get higher scores in every aspect of learning burnout. It means that sophomores are in a more serious status. In the dimension of dejection and reduced personal accomplishment the differences are significant ($p < 0.05$), while for improper behavior, the difference is not significant.

Freshmen are newcomers to the university. They show great enthusiasm to study. So their learning burnout is less serious than sophomores. On the other hand, as time goes on, learners need more time to deal with their professions, so they choose to sacrifice their English study. At the same time, some sophomores who passed CET-4 are so content that they give up English study to some extent. In addition, many students feel it's useless for them to practice oral English, because in their minds, they have few chances to communicate with others in English in the future. Therefore, it's understandable that in this research sophomores get higher burnout scores than freshmen.

Differences in means between genders.

Table 3. Differences in Means Between Genders

	Boys	Girls	F
Dejected	22.0000±0.52370	20.6635±0.52578	1.237
Reduced personal accomplishment	18.0115±0.43117	17.3846±0.40610	0.123
Improper behavior	15.3793±0.40685	14.2788±0.39424	0.908
Total score	55.2759±1.19717	52.3269±1.18661	1.083

As is shown in Table 3, boys get higher scores in every dimension of learning burnout. That means their learning burnout is more serious than girls. But these differences are not significant ($p > 0.05$).

Because of the physiological differences, boys perform worse than girls in self-control, and it's easier for them to become bored and tired, which may have something to do with their burnout in oral English. Besides, some schools prefer boys to girls, so it's much easier for boys to get a job, which is also an important factor to their differences.

Discussion

Based on the results above and the face-to-face talks with the participants, the reasons why learning burnout is so popular among non-English majors are figured out as follows:

The Effect of Tests

In China, examinations play a very important role in learning and teaching. Growing up in this situation, these university students are so accustomed to this system that they place top priority on these tests. When it comes to college English, CET-4 is the students' first concern. However, only such students who perform very well in CET-4 have the opportunity to take the oral English test. Due to their low self-esteem in English, they don't think they are lucky enough to take the oral English test, so some of them ignore oral English learning, and claim that they can put it off until they pass the CET-4. However, in fact, after they pass CET-4, their English drops to a lower status with little emphasis, and oral English is still not on the schedule. This is why sophomores' levels of learning burnout is more serious than freshmen.

The Effect of Teaching

Recently many educators have called on both teachers and learners to pay more attention to the learners' ability of applying English into their lives. Above all, English is just a tool of our communication. However, it's hard for non-English majors to accomplish this. It's mostly in the classroom that they practice oral English. But the number of students in college English classes is always greater than 50. In such a big class not everyone has the opportunity to speak English. And after class they have a lot to do with their majors, and they don't have an appropriate atmosphere to speak English. Under these circumstances, their improvement in oral English is very small, which also discourages them to some degree.

In addition, the content of college English is massive, but their time is so limited. In classes teachers are busy with finishing the teaching content and sometimes have to sacrifice the practice of oral English. Teachers' ignorance of oral English also has some negative effects on learners. Obviously, teachers' teaching principles are one factor resulting in learners' learning burnout in oral English.

The Factor of Students

Students themselves are the subjects of learning process. Their initiatives play an important role in their learning process. Only if the students themselves have a positive attitude for oral English learning can they do better. Unfortunately, according to the face-to-face talks, many participants don't regard it as necessary for them to practice oral English. On the one hand, they only focus on English tests; on the other hand, in their eyes they have little chance to communicate with others in English except for the classroom setting. Therefore, they show burnout for oral English learning.

What's more, the improper method of study also contributes to their learning burnout in oral English. Some learners complain that they often read English passages loudly in the morning, but no progress can be observed, which leads to a sense of frustration. This is caused by their methods of study. They just read and read, but seldom listen to the tape to get the correct input. As we all know, without the correct input, their mistakes will consolidate, rather than progress. So, English teachers should provide more guidance on how to practice oral English well. Only in this way can they find themselves progressing, and then become more confident and more interested in oral English learning.

Implications

Though this empirical research on non-English majors' learning burnout in oral English was carried out in four universities and colleges in Sichuan Province, the results are valuable to some extent when it comes

to improving learners' ability of applying English. In order to improve undergraduates' oral English and enhance their quality, some measures should be taken into consideration.

First, both a harmonious relationship between teachers and students in a relaxing classroom atmosphere is indispensable. The relationship between teachers and students is one of the most important relationships. It's based on four factors: the mutual understanding between teachers and students, their close contact, the respects between each other, and sincere communication between each other (Mo, 2007). As to oral English, many non-English majors are unconfident and anxious. Many a research has found that anxiety has negative effects on learners' study (Sun, 2009). So the first step to diminish learners' learning burnout in oral English is to lower their anxiety. In this case, a harmonious relationship between teachers and students and a relaxing classroom atmosphere are really necessary. In China, college English teachers usually teach many classes, so the pressure of the teaching work is very huge. On the other hand, they also suffer great pressure from their families and research, and so on. Under these circumstances, they really don't have much time to care for their students or communicate with them. Moreover, many teachers show burnout in their work, especially female teachers (Zhang & Ji, 2012). Due to all these factors, the relationship between teachers and students is not so close, which will directly affect the construction of a relaxing classroom atmosphere. Therefore, college English teachers should endeavor to spare more time with their students to learn their needs and build up a harmonious relationship.

Second, teachers should enrich the teaching content and add more teacher-student interactions. The teaching of language is a communicating process of information. Interactions are the core of language communications (Hu & Tan, 2010). Only through interactions can learners learn how to use English properly in their lives and enhance their ability of applying English. In order to achieve this goal, college English teachers must enrich the teaching content and improve the teaching methods to interest them, such as duty report, role play, debates, speech contests, English songs, and the like. As the old saying goes, interest is the best teacher. Only when learners are interested in the topics and methods, are they willing to take part in the oral English activities. Therefore, college English teachers should put more emphasis on teaching planning, and keep a lifelong learning attitude.

Third, teachers should give more guidance to non-English majors. As we all know, the classroom is the primary setting for non-English majors to contact English. Teachers' help is of great significance to them. In the first place, English teachers should help them build up a positive attitude towards English study and oral English. This opinion that oral English practice can be put off until they pass the CET-4 is completely wrong. In fact, a good command of oral English cannot be acquired easily. It's a long-term project, which needs enough time and energy. Besides, it's also closely related to listening. Thus, learners should have the idea that we should practice oral English as much as we can. What's more, teachers should give non-English majors more guidance as how to effectively improve their oral English. This is also very necessary. Learners' improvements in oral English can stimulate them to study harder. At the same time, teachers should focus more on those students who stay in an uncertain status. The number of such students is so large that their condition will have a direct impact on the whole learning atmosphere. In English classes, teachers can ask them to answer questions frequently or give them more praise. Only if they have a positive self-esteem, will they not feel burned out in oral English learning.

Conclusion

Speaking is one of the most important skills in English learning. With the rapid development of globalization, intercommunications are becoming more and more popular. In current society, having a good command of oral English is very useful. Based on the research among non-English majors in four universities and colleges in Sichuan Province, it's obvious that learning burnout in oral English does exist among them. To our relief, the degree of learning burnout is not very serious. But because most of the participants are in an uncertain condition, teachers must realize the potential threat under it and take some effective measures to prevent them from running into burnout. To those who are burned out, teachers and students should give them more courage, and help them build up their confidence. In order to achieve this goal, college English teachers, non-English majors and other relative parts should cooperate closely.

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Vocabulary Learning Strategies: A Case Study of Mongolian EFL Learners

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[Abstract] This paper reports an overall pattern of vocabulary learning beliefs and strategies adopted by students of English Major in Inner Mongolia, China, based on questionnaire survey, interviews and classroom observation. The main findings are: (1) Mongolian learners are more inclined to involve vocabulary learning in application in learning beliefs; (2) Cognitive strategy employment gains priority, followed by meta-cognitive and social/affective strategies respectively; (3) There are not significant differences in strategy employment by students of junior and senior grades.

[Keywords] vocabulary learning strategies; Mongolian learners; case study

Introduction

Learning strategies are among essential evaluation tools for learning competence. They reveal learners' initiatives and active interaction with the learning environment (Pavivic, 2008). Along with the learner-centered ideal in education, more researchers are interested in exploring effective learning strategies in ESL/EFL context (Wen, 1996). In language learning, words are basic elements of a language, so researches on vocabulary learning strategies have appeared abundantly, with focuses such as factors in affecting the choice of vocabulary learning strategies (Gu & Johnson, 1996), the relationship between vocabulary learning beliefs and strategies and retention of English knowledge and vocabulary (Wang, 1998), the relationship between vocabulary learning strategies and achievements in English learning (Pavivic, 2008).

Research Background

EFL learners of minority-nationality as a special group in China should gain more emphasis for fulfillment of goals in higher education. Take Inner Mongolian Autonomous Region as an example; 1/5 of the population belongs to ethnic groups, with people of Mongolian nationality accounting for 17% of the population. So their contribution to education of the whole area is of great importance. But compared with students of Han nationality, Mongolian learners are facing more difficulties in English, a compulsory course at university. Most of them come from remote areas with poor teaching conditions and lack good English training. The passing score for English majors is 60 or more, which is greatly lower than Han students. So they hold poor English level when they begin to learn English as their major. Moreover, they hold Mongolian as their mother tongue, Chinese the second learned from primary schools, and English their foreign language: Mongolian-Chinese-English transition accompanies them all the time, with their own customs, cultures, and beliefs being other factors that may result in complex learning process. They are badly in need of a large vocabulary to accomplish courses for English majors. Some attempts have been made to explore their vocabulary learning strategies. Wu & Tian (2010) investigated Mongolian students from two grades. Wang (2011) made an investigation with students of 11 different nationalities. This study aims to get a more comprehensive picture of vocabulary learning strategies employed by Mongolian EFL learners from 4 grades.

Methodology

Research Questions

1. What are the general beliefs of vocabulary learning by Mongolian EFL learners?
2. What is the overall pattern of their vocabulary learning strategies?
3. Are there any significant differences in employing vocabulary learning strategies among students of junior and senior grades?

Participants

Four intact classes of English majors of Mongolian nationality in a comprehensive university in Inner Mongolia were selected for convenience sampling. Altogether 103 students ranging from freshmen to seniors participated in the survey.

Instruments

Based on Gu & Johnson (1996) and Wen (1996), a questionnaire is rewritten in Chinese with 3 sections. A is personal data such as grade, age, college-entrance English score. B concerns beliefs about vocabulary learning with 10 items representing 3 dimensions: vocabulary should be memorized (item 1,4,7,10); vocabulary should be acquired in contexts (item 2,3,5); vocabulary should be applied (item 6,8,9). C is about vocabulary learning strategies with 80 items representing 3 categories: Meta-cognitive strategies (10 items), Cognitive strategies (65 items) and Social/affective strategies (5 items). There are 9 variables in this section, with each having 4 or more than 4 items for strategy interpretation, thus holding internal unity for statistics. Participants were asked to rate each statement on a 5-point Scale.

Data Collection and Analysis

After discussing with teachers in Mongolian classes, the questionnaire was adapted in wording. 103 questionnaires were distributed and collected before each class began. Two students came from Qinghai and Xinjiang Province, and had not studied English before and another one didn't finish the questionnaire, so 100 questionnaires were available to be processed by SPSS 13.0 for quantitative analysis. Interviews among 7 students of different grades and class observation were for qualitative analysis.

Findings and Discussion

A General View on Vocabulary Learning Beliefs

Table 1. Vocabulary Learning Beliefs of Mongolian English Majors

Beliefs	N	Mean	Std. D	Beliefs	N	Mean	Std. D
Item 1	100	2.76	1.05	Item 6	100	4.24	0.61
Item 2	100	3.78	0.87	Item 7	100	2.86	1.06
Item 3	100	4.15	0.67	Item 8	100	4.16	0.66
Item 4	100	2.48	0.90	Item 9	100	3.94	0.97
Item 5	100	3.55	0.90	Item 10	100	2.33	1.64

Mongolian learners preferred that vocabulary should be acquired in context (2, 3, 5, M=3.83) and application (6, 8, 9, M=4.11), rather than memorizing vocabulary (1, 4, 7, 10, M=2.61). The category "Vocabulary should be put to use" gained priority in their beliefs. They definitely agreed that set phrases

and collocations of a word should be paid more attention (item 6); and spelling, meaning and usage of a word as a whole results in acquisition (item 8). Actually, these beliefs dominate their English learning. As they speak Chinese, a compulsory course from primary schooling, for daily communication with students and teachers of Han nationality. So they have the experience of remembering Chinese in communication without having to memorize them one by one. So in learning English, they prefer to do in the same way. In the interview, some learners mentioned that because of poorer English level, they would meet a lot of new words in learning and memorizing so many words was a difficult task. They would try to acquire new words by employing strategies such as the combination of Chinese and English words rather than mechanical recalling. As for learning vocabulary in contexts, they believed that reading could enlarge one's vocabulary (M=4.15). Nevertheless, this belief contradicted their learning practice. The researcher found in that most of Mongolian students read less than expected. Some interviewees mentioned they spent too much time in confining themselves into dealing with textbooks written in Chinese and English. English-Chinese-Mongolian decoding process dominated their daily study. Meanwhile, due to the small vocabulary size, they lacked confidence in reading English books. Some junior and senior students may read more in accordance with their learning beliefs.

An Overall Pattern of Vocabulary Learning Strategies

According to Pavicic (2008), meta-cognitive strategies mean a self-conscious overview of the learning process, with decision-making on planning, monitoring, or evaluation. Cognitive strategies involve perceiving, inferring, and problem solving abilities. Social/affective strategies refer to cooperation approaches. In this study, cognitive strategies are those frequently adopted by Mongolian English majors, meta-cognitive strategies run the second place, with lowest frequently level of social/affective strategies, which is in accordance with Wu & Tian (2010), but differentiates in many aspects due to the characteristics of the participants.

Meta-Cognitive Strategies

Table 2. Frequency of Employing Meta-Cognitive Strategies

Strategies <i>Grade</i>	<i>N</i>	Selective Attention		Self-Initiation	
		<i>Mean</i>	<i>Std. D</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>Std. D</i>
1	28	3.28	1.22	2.86	0.91
2	27	2.95	0.83	2.89	0.75
3	22	2.79	1.06	2.81	1.15
4	23	2.99	0.95	2.75	0.97

Selective attention gained higher frequency than self-initiation. That meant that Mongolian students of freshmen were more positive in monitoring their learning process. When they were enrolled in the university as English majors with the required score 60 or beyond, they encounter a great burden of enlarging their vocabulary during a short time. So they knew the importance of word building and could decide on important points in learning process, with higher frequency in item 73 (I try to make clear those ambiguous language points that I meet.) (M=3.36) showing their initiative in solving problems. This tendency was more frequent in the first year.

Cognitive Strategies

Mongolian learners frequently employed guessing strategies (M=3.31), followed by dictionary strategies (M=3.27), note-taking strategies (M=3.26), application strategies (M=3.04), association strategies (M=2.91) and rehearsal strategies (M=2.83). The data showed that they frequently and flexibly employed various strategies in vocabulary learning. With successful Chinese learning experience, they tried many ways to learn English.

Table 3. Frequency of Employing Cognitive Strategies: The First Three Ones

Learners		Guessing		Dictionary Use		Note-Taking	
Grade	N	Mean	Std. D	Mean	Std. D	Mean	Std. D
1	28	3.28	0.84	3.22	1.19	3.50	1.02
2	27	3.24	0.64	3.63	0.77	3.40	0.92
3	22	3.53	0.56	2.94	1.19	3.18	1.04
4	23	3.17	0.77	3.28	0.94	2.96	0.72

Guessing strategies is based on two types of contexts: wider context (background information) and immediate context (linguistic clues) (Ur, 2000). Mongolian students performed more balanced in employing the two types, such as guessing word meaning through cause and effect relationship, definition or explanation around the new word. But they seldom made use of grammatical structures (item 4, M=2.82). This was once proved that Mongolian learners drew their attention to meaning prior to forms in dealing with language input and output (Li, 2012). Guessing strategies ran through the whole vocabulary learning process without significant differences among grades.

Dictionary strategies were also frequently employed strategies. Mongolian learners consulted dictionaries mainly for better comprehension (M=3.52~3.69), and they may seek more information such as usages and extended meaning from dictionaries on their own initiative (M=3.46~3.61). Comparatively, they were poor in employing looking-up strategies, such as to use various information (part of speech, collocation, stylistic meaning, etc.) to reduce multiple senses (item 64, M=2.96). A tendency showed that handy electronic dictionaries are replacing thick book ones. They cannot provide as much detailed information as provided in the book ones, which may be one of the possible reasons for the above data. From the interview the researcher also learned that the students were unaware of those looking-up strategies because of little reminding from the teachers, let alone using them consciously.

Note-taking strategies included meaning-oriented and usage-oriented. Mongolian learners were balanced in adoption, as was shown clearly through classroom observation. Most of them held a thick notebook with detailed notes. Students may clarify language points in terms of words, synonyms, figures of speech, etc. Compared with first years' study, they tended to have less frequency of the strategies in high grades. This may be explained by the fact that for Mongolian learners are required to have more intensive reading classes for consolidation of vocabulary and grammar in the first years and are required to accomplish the same courses with Han students in senior grades, elective courses such as translation, selected readings of literature put emphasis on ability training, so taking notes is not so systematic.

Table 4. Frequency of Employing Cognitive Strategies: The Last Three Ones

Learners		Application		Association		Rehearsal	
Grade	N	Mean	Std. D	Mean	Std. D	Mean	Std. D
1	28	3.13	0.87	3.10	1.04	2.96	0.83
2	27	3.10	0.80	2.97	1.07	2.90	0.54
3	22	2.85	1.19	2.70	0.90	2.80	0.66
4	23	3.07	0.99	2.85	0.87	2.67	0.77

As is shown in Table 4, Mongolian learners seldom used rehearsal strategies, which was in accordance with their beliefs mentioned above. Especially, they hardly memorized the word spelling letter by letter (item 33, M=2.06).

Association strategies such as “remembering the new word together with the context with the new word occurs” (item 18), “creating a mental image of the new word or a link to the known word help me remember it” (item 52, 69) were frequently used ones with Mean value over 3. But other strategies such as word-structure or synonym/antonym association were seldom adopted. Meanwhile, they performed well enough as their strong belief: application resulted in acquisition (Mean>3). The data indicated they engaged themselves abundantly in using newly words and phrases by making sentences. But as for two items (19, 58), they got comparatively lower frequency (M=2.97, 2.94), showing that they seldom read as much as possible to make use of newly words, neither did they practice spoken English with them. Mongolian learners held remarkably higher anxiety than that of Han students due to their background and special learning experience (Yang, 2008). But contrary to his study, this study showed the anxiety level became lower in senior grades. This was also shown in teaching practice: Most of them seldom read books of English versions. They said there were too many new words. In classroom activities, most of them kept silent when asked to answer questions in English. They seldom volunteered to say something in English. Some students mentioned in the interview that they were afraid of making mistakes in doing so. They lacked confidence of oral English. Some of the students mentioned that they felt embarrassed while they tried to clarify some language points with the teacher when misunderstanding occurred.

Social/Affective Strategies

Table 5. Frequency of Employing Social/Affective Strategies

Strategies		Social Strategies		Affective Strategies	
Grade	N	Mean	Std. D	Mean	Std. D
1	28	2.88	1.17	3.14	1.28
2	27	2.75	0.81	2.93	0.99
3	22	2.43	1.04	2.55	1.14
4	23	2.58	0.94	2.61	1.27

Social/affective strategies held the lowest use frequency in this study, which was different from the results in Wu & Tian (2010). In this study, most of students were poor at managing emotions in English learning environment. They seldom got feedback from other learners and exchanged learning experience with each other and the teachers. Item 79 (I always practice English with others) got the lowest frequency (M=2.56, SD=0.91). Students in the interview came to an agreement that English learning was an individual practice and they were of the same level, so asking others or cooperation would not improve their learning. There was a point worthy of attention that the use frequency of social/affective strategies

tended to be lower in senior grades. Probably, after two or three years of English learning experience, they have formed their own learning style and would prefer to learn in their own way.

Conclusion and Pedagogical Implications

From the analysis above, the major findings of the study are: (1) in terms of vocabulary learning belief, Mongolian learners are more inclined to involve vocabulary learning in application; (2) in terms of learning strategies, cognitive strategies gain priority, followed by meta-cognitive and social/affective strategies respectively; (3) as for differences in strategy use caused by grades, Mongolian learners tended to be more flexible in employing different strategies rather than rehearsal ones. Moreover, learners of higher grades tended to have less anxiety in English learning.

Vocabulary learning strategies are culture-specific and proved to be effective in achieving goals of language learning (Ur, 2000). Therefore, with regard to the above findings, there are some pedagogical implications for vocabulary teaching for Mongolian EFL learners: (1) to arouse their awareness in employing various vocabulary learning strategies throughout their English learning process by way of strategy training, especially for the meta-cognitive strategies, since most of the minority students in ethnic areas are poor at planning and evaluating their own learning (Wang, 2011); (2) to engage students in intentional teaching, that is, to draw their attention to skills of vocabulary learning by means of word-structure, association and collocation, thus motivating their self-consciousness in individual learning and strengthen cognitive strategies; (3) to adopt different teaching practice with regard to grades. During the first years of those Mongolian classes, teachers may reduce their anxiety caused by learning burden, such as to identify basic word stock from the less-frequently used words so as to help students with clear vocabulary learning goals. And with time going by, teachers may involve them in various vocabulary learning strategies such as guessing in contexts, association memory with images, reading, tasked-based cooperation and so on, with definite aim to cultivate their confidence as well as self-autonomy in language learning. And other measures such as teachers' encouragement, teacher-learner interaction or peer-interaction are also among those effective teaching strategies for their effective employment of social/affective strategies.

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Ontology and Its Implication for Course Design of Topic-Based Interpretation Training

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[Abstract] Inspired from applications of ontology in various fields, the paper aims at exploring the theoretical feasibility for incorporating ontology into course design of topic-based interpretation training. The functions that ontology can serve in the training have been discussed from different perspectives of cognitive psychology: information processing, short-term memory, long term memory, anticipation, emergency-response, etc.

[Keywords] Ontology; course design; topic-based interpretation training

Introduction

The traditional interpretation training consists of 3 modules: foundation building (preparation of glossary and subject knowledge), brainstorming (glossary exchange and delivery of impromptu speech), and interpreting practices. The difficulty lies in the fact that the practice module often involves knowledge fragments, and when the topic is unfamiliar, the newly obtained glossary and knowledge remains passive and may not be elicited efficiently through prior knowledge operation during the instantaneous bilingual transformation.

Ontology, with the development of cognitive science, has been widely used in computer science since 1990s. Its functions of knowledge management, inference of knowledge and facilitation of automation share great similarity with the language transformation process through instantaneous knowledge retrieval and information processing in interpretation, therefore, this paper tries to explore the theoretical feasibility of applying ontology to topic-based interpretation training (TBIT) and incorporating it into its course design (Feng, 2013).

Ontology More than a Knowledge Acquisition Tool

Different from the original philosophical ontology, the ontology in this paper is the scientific ontology, which is the fundamental being and basic knowledge framework of a specific field. Each scientific world has its own preferred ontology, defined by its own terminology and abstract inference rules and theories. Studer defined it as “the formal explicit specification of a shared conceptualization” (Hu, 2011). We deem it a system to represent knowledge as a set of concepts within a domain, which is modeled by definitions and categorized conceptualization.

Having been rigorously formalized, ontology can be used to integrate all knowledge into well-organized knowledge network. It largely serves in knowledge management, information search, long-distance learning, e-administration and e-commerce, etc.

Ontologies are often equated with taxonomic hierarchies of classes, with class definitions, and the subsumption relation. Ontologies also define the vocabulary with which queries and assertions are exchanged among agents (Gruber, 1993). Ontology, as the explicit specification to construct a conceptualized system, can integrate and convert the domain knowledge into well-organized knowledge network, therefore can be used as the basis of knowledge acquisition tools for gathering domain

knowledge or for generating databases or expert systems. It's an effective method to help interpreters to make a structured knowledge preparation and solidification, which plays a very important role in the interpretation training, so it can be incorporated for the course design of the pre-class, in-class and post-class modules for such purposes.

On the other hand, as ontologies can be found in different language versions, a question has been proposed: Can they serve more functions rather than a knowledge acquisition tool in the course of TBIT? This question is discussed in the following part from perspectives of cognitive psychology as cognitive psychology studies about information processing and decision making of a brain, which happens to be the area where ontology is used for artificial intelligence.

Applying Ontology to TBIT from Perspective of Cognitive Psychology

TBIT is given much weight in the overall training program of interpreters as it combines linguistic knowledge, subject knowledge and interpreting skills into exercise. To help interpreters acquire both language knowledge and subject knowledge more efficiently, this paper tries to identify the possibility of applying ontology to TBIT from the perspective of cognitive psychology, and calls for further empirical studies to prove its efficiency and effectiveness.

Ontology and Information Processing in Interpretation

Interpretation is a process of information processing. Once the interpreter receives verbal-contextual and non-verbal contextual stimuli, their background knowledge schema will be activated, the received information will get processed to form meaning which will be delivered in target language through the mechanism of background knowledge schema, thus a rendering is completed.

Dr. Liu Minghua mentioned in a lecture that “more-skilled interpreters differ from less-skilled interpreters in their information processing being more semantic-based, being more selective in what to interpret, being more efficient at lexical processing, having a better grasp of text structure, being more selective in listening, and having a more enhanced self-awareness of the task” (Liu, 2012). Natural language often contains redundancy, an interpreter trainee shall learn to utilize their knowledge structure to timely grasp and process the essential information with appropriate attention split. To understand the overall structure of an utterance instantaneously and construct a clear logic network between key concepts of a discourse is highly demanded, and the decoding and encoding of a complete discourse is far more superior to the decoding and encoding of fragments of information.

In terms of information processing, ontology on one hand can build up a solid background knowledge schema, providing more contextual information for the comprehension of language signs, thus back up the mental process of understanding. On the other hand, it presents a roadmap of concept knots linking different concepts. Therefore, ontology can be used not only for comprehension but also for mind-training for interpreters; for example, a discourse-making exercise with separate concepts extracted from an ontology is a good practice on logic and minds, which in return will enhance the information processing.

Ontology and Short Term Memory (STM)

Interpretation is an instantaneous activity with speaker's utterance fading away immediately after its spreading in air. A powerful STM or working memory can help interpreters identify, retain and retrieve information thus note-taking will be needed at minimum level to spare time for interpreter to comprehend and reproduce the source message quickly. According to German psychologist Ebbinghaus, STM

capacity is averaged as 7 ± 2 information items, no matter if the items are letters, figures, irrelevant words or chunks (An, 2004).

Information is stored in STM through 3 ways: acoustic coding, visual coding and semantic coding. The previous two coding methods are sensory registers based on external stimuli, whereas semantic coding is applying meaning to information with thinking activities involved, the information processing goes deeper with semantic coding based on internal stimuli of making sense (Liu, 2007). This is why high-level of semantic learning is better than a rote memorization. At the same time, a temporary storing of dispersed information points is far less effective than that of logically linked information points.

Ontology often takes the form of schemata and builds up a logical network of knowledge. It links together particular facts and gives data a particular interpretation. Therefore, it may provide triggers for the STM. If familiar with the ontological knowledge of a certain domain, an interpreter can easily use semantic coding with other senses. Possessing great advantages in information processing, ontology can be useful for STM training based on semantic coding. A comparison study is suggested here to compare the STM capacity between Group A only given separate terminologies and their translations within a domain and Group B provided with bilingual ontological domain terminologies.

Secondly, to expand the STM capacity, Wood (2002) proposed a model of speech fluency based on automatic processing and retrieval of prefabricated chunks. This model explained that formulaic language units are fundamental to fluent language production, as they allow language production to occur while bypassing controlled processing and the constraints of short-term memory capacity. Also multiword lexical units combine language form and functions, grammar and meanings and vocabulary together in a way that language points has been integrated and withdrawn when language is planned and produced, as a result, retrieval time to language points has been shortened. If interpreters can build up their own work sheets of ready-made chunks to represent the domain ontology in both languages, they can render a speech without thinking over how to put language points together by grammatical rules but sometimes simplify the process into one step. Therefore, their STM capacity and working efficiency will be augmented with the increased accessibility to and retrieval of those chunks.

Ontology and Long Term memory (LTM)

The interpreting involves operations of not only STM but also LTM. Tulving (1972) made the distinction between episodic and semantic memory for LTM. Episodic memory is the memory of events in our own personal past, to retrieve it, a kind of “mental time travel” to earlier experience shall be made and the information processed is bound to a particular context relevant to that experience. Whereas semantic memory is the general knowledge about things in the world and their meaning, which can be retrieved through semantic understanding instead of referring to a particular context as people do with the episodic memory. As long as semantic memory utilizes language to acquire meanings, relations, concepts and rules of subjects, why not combine both languages and subject knowledge together to reinforce LTM? Shall we set up a system made of formulaic chunks to represent the knowledge of the concerned field so that we fulfill the dual task of putting the foreign language knowledge and subject knowledge into LTM? As this method corresponds to the rule of semantic memory, it's quite possible that ontology can play a role.

There are various types of ontologies in computer science according to Professor FENG Zhiwei (2006): common ontology, domain ontology, language ontology and formal ontology. Among different types of ontology, domain ontology and terminology ontology are more relevant to TBIT. Domain

ontology is the abstraction of domain knowledge with explicit concepts easy to be formalized and shared, for example, domain-specific ontology of botany, domain-specific ontology of archeology, etc. Language ontology is a word list, describing conceptual relations between words and terminologies; for instance, WordNet. If concept nodes are terminologies, they are called terminology ontology.

During the preparation stage, interpreters can collect information and refer to specific domain ontology, both English and Chinese version, and convert them into their own bilingual knowledge network made up of concept-expressing chunks. This knowledge network represented by interconnected chunks is larger than the terminology ontology as formulaic chunks are larger than terminologies; it is not a domain ontology in the true sense neither because its loose interrelation between concepts does not follow exactly the logic link and categorization of a domain ontology but can adopt loose relations like comparison, imagination, description and other means to relate to different chunks or concepts. With the help of free mindmap software, we can even visualize the worksheet.

With the assistance of ontological knowledge of a specific topic, trainees can clarify relations between different concepts and acquired a relatively complete knowledge system as well as its corresponding language expressions. This multiple inter-relevance will reinforce the understanding and memory. The concise presentation of ontological knowledge can get full and enough attention of the learner, providing initiative for them to store what is essential in LTM, and makes easier to put large amount of language knowledge and subject knowledge into LTM. The conciseness also makes it convenient for interpreter trainees to continuously retrieve the knowledge, which is a very important exercise to keep what learnt locked in.

Ontology and Anticipation in Interpretation

Interpretation is a highly intensive mental activity. Daniel Gile (1995, chap. 7) proposed his Effort Models for interpreting and explained more processing capacity taken up in one task may influence the performance of another task as the cognitive processing capacity is limited. Anticipation is one of the coping strategies to balance multiple tasks; it can reduce the load of interpreter's STM, and lessen the difficulty in listening and comprehension by preparing in advance so that effort is spared to optimize the rendering.

Fred Van Besien (1999) found in his research that extra-linguistic information like general and situational knowledge, and information obtained in the course of translation, seems to play the most important part in the interpreter's hypothesizing of the speaker's utterances. Purely linguistic knowledge plays only a minor part. Ontological knowledge of an interpreter can help with the extra-lingual anticipation to a great extent. With the clear knowledge network of ontology, interpreter can easily build up concept knots between different concepts, thus facilitates the logical reasoning and inference along the extension of a concept. Therefore, it's suitable to incorporate ontology to the training of anticipation skills.

Ontology and Emergency-response tactics

Ontology can also help with emergency-response tactics as well. The interconnected relations between concepts demonstrated by ontology have covered many aspects such as synonyms, antonyms, hyperyms, hyponyms, and meronyms which may offer alternatives of similar expressions for interpreters to adapt to difficult situations flexibly as well. For example, if an interpreter didn't know the English for “藏经洞 (cang jing dong, sutra cave)”, at least an explanation can be given as “a cave that stored Buddhist literature or a library cave of monks”. Therefore, frequent retrieval to synonyms, antonyms, hyperyms,

hyponyms, and meronyms of a terminology can reinforce the LTM of it and help to supply flexible alternatives as emergency-response tactics (Feng, 2013).

Ontology and Automation of Interpretation

The interpreting activities fall into 2 categories: automatic processing and controlled processing. Compared to controlled processing, automatic processing possesses several advantages: automatic processing is fast and parallel, while controlled processing is slow and serial; automatic search requires little effort and can operate in high workload situations, whereas controlled processing requires substantial effort and interferes with other controlled processing tasks; automatic processing is rather robust to stressors (Schneider & Shiffrin, 1977, p. 38). Excellent interpreter may work very close to the status of automatic processing, the ideal target of the interpreting training (total automation is hardly to get). There're 3 factors that will influence the automation of interpretation: appropriateness of the source text (source message matches the language proficiency and intellectual level of an interpreter), enough input stimuli; frequent memory retrieval exercises and memory activation practices (Liu, 2007).

By referring to visualized worksheets of ready-made chunks to represent the domain ontology, the knowledge structure of interpreter can be optimized so the source message may become more appropriate for interpretation. Stimuli and activation of LTM can also be achieved through working with ontology. In addition, as different chunks are attached to particular contexts and positioned with a certain concept, it's easier for interpreter to retrieve these chunks with background knowledge, thus large amount of passive vocabulary can be changed to active vocabulary. As trainees prepare ontological knowledge in both languages, a semantic relation has been made at least at word level and phrase level so that a direct conversion is possible. All these create good conditions to achieve semi-automation or quasi-automation of interpretation.

Ontology and its Implications for the Course Design of TBIT

Course design is a systematic process to plan and structure a course to meet instructional goals effectively. It consists of many components: teaching objectives, course contents, teaching materials, teaching methods, class activities and assignments, evaluation, syllabus, class scheduling and etc. From the above discussions and proposed hypothesis on how the usage of ontology can help interpreters, a conclusion has been made that ontology can be used as a teaching tool and teaching method when doing the course design of TBIT, which can be incorporated into different training stages and different training modules such as the pre-class module, in-class module and post-class module and served for different teaching goals.

Pre-Class Module

During the preparation stage, trainees are asked to build up a knowledge network with formulaic chunks to represent the ontological knowledge of a given topic, by referring to existing domain ontologies or jotting down key concepts while marking out their inter-relations, better in both languages. Terminologies can be studied with the aid of terminology ontology and the acquisition of them can be reinforced with focus on their relations with other terminologies, concepts and domain facts. Concepts in this domain can be reached by learners to maximum extent and on a systematic basis.

Next, trainees can pick up any unfamiliar concept and search corpus to get relevant materials to do a listening comprehension exercise. At last, trainees shall be able to integrate others' terms and concepts to expand their worksheet through sharing and exchanging.

To test the acquisition of both professional language and subject language, impromptu speech is frequently used in both the pre-class and in-class module. Trainees are required to give a speech in either working language on any topic chosen from any student's worksheets by their instructor. In this way, how well they can express in a professional manner can be assessed.

In-Class Module

As discussed before, ontology can be used in the training of a single skill or comprehensive skills, such as information processing, logic training, anticipation and emergency-response exercise. Giving an impromptu speech with separate chunks given can strengthen the information processing and logic reasoning of an interpreter. Anticipation and emergency response exercise can be done following a practice of synonyms and antonyms, hyponyms and hypernyms for high-frequency words.

Targeting at strengthening weak parts of a topic, instructors can input the relevant high-frequency word/concept to obtain materials, so that the teaching content are easily adapted according to learner's different levels. With the accumulation of language knowledge and subject knowledge, both instructors and instructees can select more difficult materials for further training so as to improve the output quality of interpretation on specialized topics.

Post-Class Module

Learners are encouraged to exchange their worksheets made of assorted chunks to represent specific domain ontology through blog, BBS (bulletin board system) or other online interaction tools. Continued tape hours can be done based on the weak points in the mastering of an ontological knowledge. As for the different stages of TBIT, at the initial stage, ontology can be integrated into STM and LTM training, mind training, information processing exercise as aforementioned. In following stages, it can be integrated into the foundation building, professional language assessment, single interpreting skill training and comprehensive interpreting skills training, etc. (Feng, 2013).

Conclusion

By bridging links between ontology and interpretation training from perspectives of cognitive psychology, the theoretical foundation sounds built up to incorporate ontology into the course design of TBIT. However, this approach will encounter many challenges. On one hand, the accessibility and availability of specific ontology is limited and the referred ontologies shall be post edited for the interpreters' own usage, not to mention its questionability in quality and suitability for the training purpose. On the other, the bilingual ontological knowledge to be built by interpreter learners has to involve a team and can be time consuming. At last, the benefits of using ontologies and how to measure them still need further empirical studies.

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An Exploration in Class Presentation Approaches and Techniques in Australian EFL Classrooms

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[Abstract] In view of teaching English to speakers of other languages in the Australian context, this paper introduces methods and techniques employed by the native EFL teachers in their real class presentations. It then elaborates three main areas: teacher's metalanguage, teaching skills and strategies, and teaching materials and resources. The case study of one writing workshop provides us with the insights into the inspiring and flexible teaching approach adopted by the class instructor. The perspectives gained from EFL class observation deepen the comprehension of exploiting different teaching techniques to meet with learners' variable needs.

[Keywords] EFL classrooms; teacher's metalanguage; teaching techniques; materials and resources

Introduction

When pursuing further study in Australia, I got the opportunity to do a 50-hour classroom observation as a practicing teacher in the Language Training Center of the University of New England. It was arranged for me to observe classes of different levels, which included General English (two modules) and English for further study. Getting involved in EFL classes provided me with the chance to observe, analyze, interpret, reflect and absorb the approaches and techniques native professional teachers employed in their teaching English to speakers of other languages.

In the following, the paper will focus on the discussion of three main areas: teacher's metalanguage; teaching skills and strategies; and teaching materials and resources. Meanwhile, the way Australian EFL teachers present their lessons and the strategies and methods they employ in the teaching process may help to inspire Chinese English teachers to improve their teaching skills.

The Teacher's Metalanguage

The teacher's metalanguage is the language of managing the classroom, which includes a teacher's questions, instructions, feedback to students' answers and explanations, etc. As many teachers advocate that students should have more time to talk in class, the teacher's metalanguage seems extremely important in terms of organizing or allowing classroom activities to go smoothly and build up successful communication between students and teachers.

Actually, the teacher's metalanguage is a rich source of language learning because of its genuine and authentic characteristics. Meanwhile, some of the teacher's metalanguage can be seen as patterned behaviors such as the language for greeting the class, setting up group activities and giving instructions, etc. For example, prior to setting up group activities, class teachers often draw students' attention by saying "May I have your attention, please?" or "Is everybody with me?" etc. When class teachers talk about specific activities, they often use sequencing markers such as "first", "second", "next", "then" and "finally" to give students a clear idea about the steps and procedures of the activities.

One important aspect worth mentioning here is about teachers' feedback to students' answers, particular errors. Smith and King (2004) report that students' sensitivity to feedback and variations in the wording in feedback messages impacted public speaking performance. Most teachers are aware of the motivational value of positive answers in that positive feedback plays an important role in building up students' confidence. In these EFL classes, the teachers frequently say "good", "excellent" and "well-done" to praise students' good performance. Even if the answers to some questions are not correct, the class teachers' attitudes are still positive and they would encourage students by saying, "Well, not bad. But, can you think of a better answer?" Therefore, correct and effective use of the teacher's metalanguage is an important skill a language teacher needs to grasp.

Teaching Skills and Strategies

The effective use of teaching techniques at different stages of presentation can make a lesson go smoothly and successfully. Additionally, one significant area related to teaching skills and strategies is how language teachers present teaching materials and contents to the class. Wajnryb indicates that "even with the welcome increased focus on student talking time over teacher talking time, the skill of presenting remains a key one in the repertoire of a language teacher, as learners still often look to the teacher to perform this role" (Wajnryb, 1992, p. 78).

Orientation to the Field

Before starting a lesson, EFL class teachers in LTC usually review the previously covered work first. This helps students to recall what they have learned in the last lesson. Meanwhile this is also a good way of making a natural transition to another thematically or functionally connected lesson. In addition, in order to let students know what is going on in each lesson, teachers often write about the activities on the white board, to give students the chance to have a good preparation for each stage of a lesson.

Giving Instructions and Setting up Activities

Before setting up activities or giving out handouts, class teachers usually attract students' attention first, to make sure everyone is listening and watching. If an activity consists of a series of steps, the instructions will be broken down into segments. So, the students can follow each stage of a designed class activity. When setting up activities, besides giving clear instructions, it is also necessary to explain to students the goals of taking part in group work or pair work, and advantages they will get from attending these activities. Meanwhile, students are encouraged to talk more in these activities to practice the language.

Communication-Orientation

In communication-oriented class, a wide range of oral interaction is used, and this principle is established on the basis of these premises:

- The native language should not be used in the classroom;
- The students should make direct associations between the target language and meaning;
- Language is primarily speech, but reading and writing should also be taught from the beginning;
- The purpose of language learning is communication;
- Learning a language involves learning about the culture (Freeman, 1998).

When applied in the teaching practice, class activities are designed and organized around topics, such as Australia tourist attractions, cultural shock and overseas students' life in Australia. Students are motivated to work in groups and share their stories and opinions freely. Instead of emphasizing on the correct form of language use, the class instructors are more concerned about active communication in an anxiety-free environment.

Teaching Materials and Resources

Doing classroom observation in LTC is the time to build up the knowledge of choosing authentic materials for the students and using different resources to make lessons more interesting and inspiring. The following part will explore this area in more detail.

Using Authentic Materials

Anything a native speaker of English would hear or read or use can be described as authentic: TV programs, news broadcasts, magazines and newspapers, menus and songs, etc. EFL teachers in LTC endeavor to find authentic materials for the students, in order to provide them with the opportunity to acquire or 'pick up' the language.

For example, in listening activities some teachers would record the radio programs. The contents of these programs include the introduction of the history as well as current development of the university, guidance for exploring the whole city and suggestions for dining and shopping, etc. The learners' response to these authentic listening materials is very active because they are close to their real-life experiences. Other teachers record TV news program or weather reports for students to practice listening and note-taking.

In reading activities, some teachers would collect short stories from magazines and newspapers, or gathering brochures from travel agencies for students to read. Other teachers prefer to set up a reader trolley and loan novels, journals and reference books to the students every week. These methods are very effective because they cope with the following statement:

“For most students authentic materials, because they are ‘real’, are intrinsically more interesting and motivating and they give students confidence when they understand them” (Gower, Phillips & Walters, 1995, p. 83).

Managing Resources

Generally speaking, teaching resources refer to equipment and aid which assist teaching as well as learning in a more sufficient and effective way. For example, class teachers in LTC use a wide range of resources, such as white board, computer, video, posters, cards and photos, etc., to make their lessons more interesting and dynamic. Especially, computer-assisted learning mode is welcomed by many students not only in class but also after class for autonomous learning.

On the other hand, “Resources is a broader term, including ‘aids’ but also elements such as people in and out of class, the wider community, possibilities for excursions and visitors, and so on” (Nicholls, 1996, p. 119). For example, some postgraduate students are invited as guest speakers to give lectures, reports, or discussions to more advanced classes. In addition, students are also occasionally organized to have excursions and other social activities. These activities not only help students to gain more knowledge and enrich their life experiences, but also broaden their horizon. Rivers reinforces this point, writing: “Teaching a new language involves not just providing opportunities for acquisition of forms, but

also encourage active communication of ideas and expressions of individuality through these new forms” (Rivers, 1983, p. 126).

A Case Study of an EFL Writing Workshop

The team of LTC language instructors stress that students’ involvement in the classroom is an effective way to enhance learning. Student-centered approach is employed to foster communicative competence and cultivate students’ interest in language learning. The philosophy in the pedagogy is that learning should be fun, and a variety of class activities should be designed to meet the teaching objective.

Take writing workshop activities for example. Before eliciting the topics students are required to write, EFL teachers always design some small episodes or warm-up exercises first such as listening to an English song, reading a short story or looking at some pictures (e.g. cartoons), etc., aiming at giving students some indications and guidance in regard to their English proficiency. Then, specific explanations and requirements will be given concerning the topics.

For instance, in one of the writing classes students were assigned to write something about the color ‘red’. At first glance of the topic many students felt they had little to write about this seemingly abstract topic. Noticing this reaction, the class teacher said, *“When I see the color ‘red’, I think of ‘sun’, ‘fire’ and ‘roses’.* So, are there any other things coming to your minds when you see this color?” This question really intrigued the students’ imagination, and in a short time, ‘apple’, ‘tomato’, ‘love’, and ‘passion’, etc., came out one after another. The class teacher wrote all of them on the white board and requested the students to choose as many as they could to write the color ‘red’. By the end of the class, most of them had done very well on this topic. A Korean student, Heon, wrote the following sentence: *“I think red is passion. Passion is an important thing in your life. Without love and passion, success will be meaningless.”*

Obviously, this presentation style proves to be impressive because it can not only take students’ real needs into good consideration, but also produce active and effective learning outcomes. Moreover, a teacher’s voice, body language and movements in the classrooms are all important elements of a successful presentation.

Conclusion

Through participation as an observer in the LTC of the UNE, some useful insights into the training of English language to adults are obtained in an Australian context. Australian EFL teachers take different roles according to concrete situations and specific goals. In a certain teaching and learning context the teachers play important roles in transmitting knowledge, skills and theories. In other times, they will work as facilitators or resource persons. The teaching approaches and techniques employed by the class teachers of LTC cope with the following idea: “We cannot expect students to be comfortable in real language use if they have not had considerable opportunity to try this in class. However, part of our role is to help students cross the bridge from classroom confidence and competence to communication outside class” (Nicholls, 1996, p. 56).

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The Cognitive Effect of Deverbal Nominalizations on EFL Reading Comprehension

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[Abstract] Nominalizations are frequently used in English, which is noun-prominent language. The complicated lexical and syntactic nature of nominalization has drawn attention from different schools' scholars. The role of nominalization in reading comprehension, especially the second/foreign language comprehension is controversial. The present study aims at examining the cognitive effects of nominalization on EFL reading of Chinese learners through empirical research. A test experiment followed by interviews was conducted among English juniors. Results show that nominalizations do not impose more difficulties and cause no more extra effort in reading comprehension. Different from the congruent discourse, the nominalized discourse projects an objective, concise and formal style on EFL readers. Consequently, nominalizations promote the EFL reading efficiency.

[Keywords] nominalization; English as Foreign Language Reading (EFL reading); cognitive effects; grammatical metaphor

Introduction

Compared with Chinese, which is verb-prominent, English is a well-known noun-prominent language (Qu & Yang, 2011). Among a variety of nominal categories, nominalizations have drawn attention from many scholars. Nominalizations are widely used in English, especially in formal written English. The bold words in the following pairs of sentences are examples of nominalization.

(1a) The professor had praised his design pretty highly.

(1b) His design had won high **praise** from the professor.

(2a) He is clever and all friends of his know that.

(2b) His **cleverness** is known to all his friends.

The example (1a) is different from (1b) in that the verbal process in (1a) which is realized by the verbal group 'had praised', is metaphorically realized by the nominal group 'high praise' in example (1b). Similarly, example (2b) is different from (2a) in that the attribute or relational process in (2a) is transferred into a 'thing', namely the nominal form 'his cleverness'.

Halliday (1994) defined nominalization as any element or group of any elements, which is made to function as a nominal group in the clause. It includes clauses (finite or infinite), nominalized adjectives, nominalized verbs, and so on. Nominalizations are different from the normal nouns in both lexical and syntactic features. The distinctions make nominalizations a controversial role in reading comprehension. Scholars have done experiments on the effects of nominalizations in both English as native language reading and English as second language reading, but there is no consensus on it. The present study aims at examining the cognitive effects of nominalizations on EFL (English as foreign language) reading comprehension in Chinese learners. Specifically, the present study tries to answer the following two research questions: (a) Compared with the verbal forms, do nominalizations in EFL reading cause any

difference in reading efficiency? (b) If yes, in what ways do nominalizations block or promote EFL reading efficiency?

A Review

Nominalization has been a traditional topic in English study history, but the knowing of the nature of nominalization is a slow and gradual process. Many grammarians from different backgrounds have contributed to the description of English nominalizations.

Jespersen (1924) was the first linguist who studies nominalization in a formal way. He explained the types of nominalization and the consequence of nominalization in his *Analytic Grammar*. Jespersen points out nominalizations can bring rhetoric effects to the expressions. As formalists, Chomsky and Lees approach nominalizations from internal syntax, but have quite opposite opinions. Lee (1960) applies TG to the analysis of nominalization, and claims the nature and forming of nominalizations as transformation. Lee was challenged by Chomsky (1970), who himself put forward the theory of transformation. He (1970) argues that the idiosyncrasy of nominalizations is too tricky that TG rules have no way to deal with them. He proposes lexicalist hypothesis, according to which all nominalizations are treated as if they are regular words and lexemes.

Different from formal approach, Halliday puts nominalizations under the theoretical framework of Grammatical Metaphor (GM). Meanings can be realized by more than one form: the congruent form and the metaphorical form. GM is an incongruent realization of meanings involving transference of grammatical units from one domain to another. Halliday's treatment of GM can be regarded as the beginning of conscious study of nominalization from the functional perspective. Halliday (1994) treats nominalization as the single most powerful resource of GM. Thompson (1996) also points out that nominalization, the most important type of GM, plays a key role because it involves a realignment of all the other elements of the message. The domestic functionalists show strong interests in the nature of nominalizations includes Hu (2000), Fan (1996), Zhu (2000), Yan (2003), Huang (2000).

About the role of nominalizations in reading comprehension, there is no consensus. Halliday (1994) says metaphorical selection adds further semantic features to the original meaning and blurring the meanings of tense, aspects, circumstances and participants. And he points out that GM is a kind of adult language and there is no grammatical metaphor in child speech. He also believes that grammatical metaphor increasing lexical density of the expression. This idea is supported and developed by many linguists. Coleman (1964) suggests that changing nominalizations into verbs may improve comprehension and the recall of the content. In analyzing the factors that affect the difficulty of discourse, Fan (1996) proposes that grammatical metaphor is the dominant one. Other things being equal, the more grammatical metaphors exist in discourse, the more difficult the discourse is. Ravelli (1988) further develops the idea in foreign language acquisition. He finds that the complex natures of grammatical metaphor make foreign students who study English feel difficult in grammar study. Then in SLA, a very common, even dominant idea is that nominalization, as the single powerful resource of grammatical metaphor will increase the difficulty of discourse, slow down the reading speed, and hinder the comprehending process. Voices from the other side seem less loud. Rohrman (1970) indicate that the structural complexity of nominalization did not affect the recall, and Iannucci and Dold (1975) also comments that for native speakers, English nominalization causes no meaning change and does not influence the memory.

Methodology

There is one experiment followed by interviews. The objective of the experiment aims at making clear what the cognitive effects of nominalization in foreign language comprehension are. This goal was achieved by comparing the results of two groups in tests and responses to the interview questions. The two groups take the nominalized discourse and denominalized discourse respectively in the reading test.

Participants

The 63 participants, the third year students of English department of Northeast Normal University go into two groups randomly. All the participants have passed the TEM4 during the second year of the college.

Instruments

Two test papers. Each contains one text about 400 words, followed by five reading comprehensive questions. They are identical in every way except that in one text, nominalized words occur more than 30 times, while in another text congruent forms take the positions of nominalizations (the corresponding congruent form is transcribed by present writer, and proofed by two foreign teachers of NENU University). In the rest of the thesis, we call them nominalized discourse and congruent discourse respectively.

Results

The topic of reading is about the measures of food products. There is no cultural block in the understanding, which makes the results of the tests more objective in reflecting the effects of nominalization.

Proficiency Test before Test Experiment

The values of Levine’s Test of Variances in pre-test independent sample T-test show that both variance value of reading scores and time cost are equal (.538 and .641 > .05). So the Equal Variances assumed T values for reading score and time cost are chosen to compare. And 2-tailed significance values prove there’s no significant discrepancy between two groups in terms of reading proficiency and time spent (.713 and .635 > .05). See table one.

Table 1. One Pre-test Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test Of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		<i>F</i>	<i>Sig.</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>Sig. (2-tailed)</i>	<i>Mean Diff.</i>	<i>S.E. Diff.</i>	<i>95% Conf. Interval of Diff.</i>	
								Lower	Upper	
Reading Scores	Equal var.	.517	.538	.37	61	.713	.22	.315	-2.01	1.39
Time	Equal var.	.462	.614	.53	61	.635	.74	.328	-0.81	1.72

Results of Test Experiment

Because the significance value of Levine’s Test of Post-test Independent Samples T-test shows equal variances assumed of reading scores (.649 > .05) and equal variances not assumed (.027 < .05) should be observed. The two 2-tailed significance values of reading score (.032) is less than critical value 0.05. It means there is statistical significant difference between two groups in terms of reading scores. And the

corresponding T value (-2.46) indicates that experiment group with reading metaphorical expression (nominalized) gets a higher comprehension. While the concerning parameters (.068 > .05; t = .91) proves that though there's difference between two groups in terms of time spent, the discrepancy doesn't achieve statistical significance. See table two.

Table 2. Post-test Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test Of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		<i>F</i>	<i>Sig.</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>Sig. (2-tailed)</i>	<i>Mean Diff.</i>	<i>S.E. Diff.</i>	95% Conf. Interval of Diff.	
								Lower	Upper	
Reading Scores	Equal var.	.428	.649	-2.46	61	.032	4.12	-2.53	-6.01	-1.79
Time	Unequal var.	1.31	.027	0.91	61	.068	1.04	.156	-0.16	1.84

Discussion

Nominalization and EFL Reading Efficiency

The text with nominalizations is not more difficult than the text in congruent form. Nominalization did not cause the obstacles or difficulties in the process of understanding. In fact, they promote the understanding in certain aspects. In other words, nominalizations increase the degree of relevance of the input in the test papers of the experimental group and promote the EFL reading proficiency.

How Do Nominalizations Promote the EFL Reading Proficiency?

Based on the results of test experiment and interviews, the following points are considered to be relevant in nominalizations' effects on EFL reading comprehension.

A linguistic device for contextual cohesion.

In order to constitute a text, we need to do more than giving an appropriate internal structure to each clause in a sequence of clauses, or in a clause complex. It is necessary to make explicit the external relationship between one clause and clause complex and another. Nominalization as a powerful cohesive device tie is mainly a matter of lexical cohesion, since it operates primarily by replacing clauses with nominal groups. See the example from nominalized discourse. *The adoption of new food technologies depends on more than these technical and cultural considerations.* In nominalized discourse, the first paragraph is talking about the information that is significant to the support of food, and the verb form "adopt" is introduced as new information. At the very beginning of the second paragraph, clause (3) appears. The nominalized form *adoption* is the Theme of the sentence and the speaker has packed complex semantic information in the above paragraph into the word 'adoption', like who adopting what, when and where. Readers have already known it. Adoption is taken for granted and used as the point of departure for a further item of information. The contextual function of *adoption* helps readers to identify the coherence underling the two paragraphs.

More relevant in expressing the scientific world.

The discourses concerned in the test are about science. Science refers to accumulated and established knowledge, which has been systemized and formulated with reference to the discovery of general truths

or the operation of general laws. It is used as a base for justifying social behavior. They should not be questioned by the common man, because it is truth. One of the diagnostic features of science that distinguish it from other discipline is objectivity and impersonality. Scientists are only interested in natural phenomena and scientific laws. They are always defining, classifying, exemplifying, and proving and constructing things. All their observations and conclusions have to be based on hard facts. They have to assume an impersonal attitude and try to make objective statements.

Nominalization is one of the possible choices to achieve the objective effects in writing. Nominalization as a powerful device to achieve objectivity and impersonality is widespread in written English. There are two factors that contribute the function. The first factor is that nominalization allows processes to be expressed without human doer and indication of time and modality; secondly, nominalization enables the writer to encode the logical relation explicitly. See the example from the third paragraph in nominalized discourse. *The influence of the economic factors and governmental policies is also significant to the ultimate success of any innovation.* There are two nominalizations in the sentence. The *influence* and *innovation* are taken as an existed fact, and the readers have to accept such facts. In the process of nominalizing, there are complex changes not only in structure but also in the meaning expressed. One of them is the loss of negotiability. The finite, which carries the modality and mood in the verbal process, finds no place in the nominal group. The nominals are introduced into the text as having been mentioned before or as existing fact. A close observation of the “adoption” example reveals that one key loss is the Actor who participates in the process. With the employment of the nominalization, the process is objectified by removing any indication of time and modality, the human involvement and agency. In this way, the writer becomes a passionate scientific observer who presents the knowledge in an objective way. Moreover, the readers have no need, nor chance to negotiate the proposition.

Conclusion

The empirical study of nominalizations in EFL reading comprehension in Chinese EFL learners’ environments shows that nominalizations not only cause no extra cognitive effort in comprehension processing, but also promote the EFL reading efficiency by creating discourse cohesion and syntactic simplicity. Theoretically, the study shows a different perspective to perceive the effects of nominalizations in use. Nominalizations and the corresponding comparatively congruent forms brought different cognitive effects on readers in a complicated way. Pedagogically, the results of the study give new insight on how to deal with nominalizations in teaching and learning English as foreign language. Nominalizations are not the barriers in learning English, but an effective means often used by writers to evoke or achieve distinguished stylistic effects in readers. This enlightens the teachers to reasonably introduce into nominalizations in syllabus design and teaching materials arrangements.

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Research and Practice of Cultivating College Students Communicative Competence in English

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[Abstract] *An experiment was designed and conducted to study the effectiveness of measures in improving college students' communicative competence in English, and its purpose is to solve the problems that students only attached importance to the accumulation of knowledge, while they ignored the cultivation of communicative competence which is needed when a person wants to truly master and use a language. 16 natural classes (449 students) in four universities are chosen randomly to participate in the two-year experiment, among which 8 experimental classes (225 students) were cultivated communicative competence with the measures while the other 8 control classes (224 students) with traditional teaching method. The achievements of the experimental students were significantly higher than those of the control in each of the four terms. The results indicate that the experimental students' communicative competence and comprehensive ability have been improved.*

[Keywords] *communicative competence; comprehensive ability; cultivating; college student*

Introduction

The 21st century is the era of the comprehensive development of knowledge economy, and science and education will become the era's significant feature. With the deepening of WTO's entry and open policy, China's foreign exchanges and cooperation will be more frequent. English has widely been used in the foreign exchanges. In order to meet the needs of the times, it is imperative to improve college students' communicative competence in English.

The purpose of learning English is to use the language, strengthen the communication and exchange with the outside world, and acquire much more new information and knowledge. Although the cultivation of speaking ability currently attracts a certain attention, practicing oral English is actually very difficult in teaching college English, which is mainly due to the less teaching hours and learning only for examinations; in addition, students fling their little energies into practicing English speaking. As a result, most of the students can't speak English very well even if they have mastered a certain number of words, sentence patterns and grammar. Although some students can speak a little English, they stumble over every sentence, and their language belongs to word list or Chinese English fragments, and nobody knows what they have said.

Therefore, the key questions of our research is what measures we take that can improve students' ability to speak English, and whether the improved ability to communicate in English can promote students' comprehensive ability.

Theoretical Basis

Language is a system which is used to express meaning. The main function of language is for interaction and communication. The structure of language reflects its functional and communicative uses (Littlewood, 1981). English teaching whose purpose is to improve students' ability of using English is a multilateral interactive communication between teachers and students and between students and students.

These activities are interdependent and interactive. Both teachers and students have their own understanding of the object in teaching. Students' progress in understanding English cannot do without teachers' understanding of the laws of teaching; teachers' understanding of the teaching rules cannot do without the objective effect of students' learning. Both teachers and students provide relevant information for one another. Both teaching and learning are to promote this communication process. So the whole process of English teaching and each link virtually repeat the cycle of communicative activities between teachers and students and between students and students.

Communicative Language Theory

Language is a system for the expression of meaning. The primary function of language is for interaction and communication. The situation of language reflects its functional and communicative uses. The primary units of language are not merely its grammatical and structural features, but categories of functional and communicative meaning as exemplified in discourse (Hymes, 1972, 1985; Liu, 2002).

Learning Theory

There are three principles in learning theory. The first is the communicative principle, that is, activities that involve real communication promote learning. The second is the task principle, that is, activities in which languages are used for carrying out meaningful tasks promote learning. And the third is the meaningful principle, that is, language that is meaningful to the learner supports the learning process. Learning activities are consequently selected according to how well they engage the learner in meaningful and authentic language use rather than merely mechanical practice of language patterns (Hymes, 1972, 1985; Yalden, 1987; Huang, 1993).

Procedure and Method

Aim

Under the background of college English teaching reform, we explore how to effectively improve students' communicative competence by means of a series of measures applied to in-class study and after-class study. We also want to explore whether the measures are equally effective to the improvement of students' English comprehensive ability.

Subjects

Students of 16 natural classes of the Grade 2008 in four universities are chosen randomly. Four classes, among which two classes are as experimental classes and the other two are as control classes, in each university have been chosen. There are eight experimental classes and eight control classes, and the total number of the students is 449, among which Jilin University has 113 students, Jilin Agricultural University has 119 students, Changchun Teachers' University has 111 students and Changchun University of Science and Technology has 106 students.

Investigations

Before the experiment, we investigate students' English achievement in their College Entrance Examination, calculate the percentage of students coming from town or countryside, and give students' a diagnostic examination to determine their English comprehensive ability and their English vocabulary. We use Shanghai Fudan University freshman English placement test paper as the English comprehensive ability test paper, but we add spoken English test which accounts for 10%. We use the method of Zhu and

Chen (1985) to measure students' vocabulary. In this way, we can determine whether the students in the experimental and control classes are comparable, that is, how the experimental reliability is (Liu & Hu, 2000).

Specific Measures

The students in the eight experimental classes are implemented with the cultivation of communicative competence. Specific schemes are as follows:

Changing teaching mode. It's important to change the mode of language input into the mode of communicative competence cultivation (Zhao, 2007).

Establishing a harmonious relationship between teachers and students, and protecting student's self-esteem. The interpersonal relationship between teachers and students is the main factor that influences students' emotional learning. If students have a good impression on a teacher, it is probably they will like the subject that the teacher teaches. Good impression comes from close and harmonious relations between teachers and students. For example, some teachers have a preference for top students and they often criticize and blame students with poor achievements, which can cause inharmonious relations between teachers and students. Therefore, English teachers should treat each student with their enthusiasm, patience and determination and let students know that teachers love, respect and trust them. In doing so, students will have a sense of intimacy and trust to their teachers; as a result, harmonious and cooperative relationship between teachers and students is established, and their enthusiasm in learning a foreign language will also gradually switch from dislike to love.

The teacher's providing a good service and acting as a good "audience". Classroom is a stage, on which students are both main roles and actors, and the teacher must act as a good director and audience. The teacher's preparation for his lesson is to set the stage, make props ready even if he thinks that he has the reason to take part in the screenwriting, he'd better pay attention to the development of the play with interest. But the teacher is not a negative "audience"; instead, he is always ready to help his students and solve their problems. Only when a teacher creates such environment can students' desire for knowledge be aroused.

Eliminating students' psychological fear. Teachers need to study students' mind in order to eliminate their fear and inferiority complex. They also need to enhance their confidence and stimulate their interest for the purpose of promoting their desire and motivation to speak and learn English. As long as they give them more encouragement and praise, teachers can establish a mutual promoting relationship between teachers and students.

Creating a learning atmosphere. Teachers need to create a classroom environment and atmosphere for their students, and use all kinds of communication strategies to strengthen the training of listening, speaking, reading, writing and translating. As a result, students' communicative competence can be cultivated.

Teaching in English and letting students speak English more. In order to teach well, a teacher must carefully design classroom language. At the beginning, the teacher may speak English slower properly with the context, gesture and picture in order to make students understood, and he uses as little Chinese as he can. At first, students may not be accustomed to it, but after the teacher repeats many times, they naturally improve their listening ability. At the same time, the teacher lets students speak English as much as possible in order to cultivate their English speaking ability. Students have different learning ability and their English speaking ability is not the same. The students who comparatively speak better are

given some complicated topics while the students who comparatively speak poorer are asked some simple questions. During their speaking, the teacher shouldn't interrupt them because it is inevitable for them to make a few mistakes in their speaking. When it is difficult for some students to continue their speaking, the teacher can use some English words to inspire them or let other students help them. After they finish speaking English, the teacher is supposed to praise and encourage them. The teacher can't be too critical of student's speaking, which will frustrate their initiative; they will feel that they lose their faces and are unwilling to speak English afterwards.

Teachers need to combine listening with speaking, drive speaking with listening, and promote speaking with listening in order to improve their students' listening and speaking ability. At the same time, teachers need to create a second classroom language environment, set up college English extracurricular activity system, and broaden the channels of communication in English. Teachers also cultivate the habit of students' reading and reciting extensively, enhance their sense of language, and increase their positive transfer and reduce their negative transfer.

Using a variety of means to promote communications. (1) Asking questions: The teacher and students can ask each other questions and then answer the questions. (2) Daily reporting: At the beginning of each class, the teacher can let their students make a five-to-fifteen-minute report. (3) Group discussion: Students in each group discuss and analyze some topics related to the text. (4) Free discussion: The teacher gives students a topic and lets students talk over it with their knowledge. (5) Debating: The teacher chooses a topic, divides students into affirmative and negative groups with different opinions, and then let students in each group discuss the topic in the given time. (6) Making sentences: Students are required to make sentences with their learned words, phrases and sentence patterns. (7) Completing dialogues: The teacher lets students design a dialogue according to what they have learnt in class. (8) Telling stories: The teacher can require his students to prepare a story before their class. (9) Talking about pictures: The teacher lets his students describe some pictures chosen from magazines, newspapers or internet. (10) Playing roles: The teacher can let students make a performance acting as different roles in a text story. (11) Communicating in English in students' daily life: The teacher can encourage students to use English in their daily life. (12) Planning speech contests: The speech contest can be conducted once a term. (13) Organizing an English corner: English corners can be organized in a fixed time and place. Each time the teacher determines a different topic. (14) Strengthening the input of communicative culture background: Having been input the knowledge of communicative culture background, students will know what can be said to a certain person in a fixed time and place, which can be effectively avoid the cultural interruption in the communication and improve students' social culture ability (Yan, 2007).

Utilizing modern technology. Teachers need to make full use of modern educational technology such as radio, film, television, recording, projection, video, computer, multimedia, and network.

Balancing input and output. Teachers should deal with the relationship between the input and output well, and pay attention to the balance development of their students' English language.

While teaching mode of the control classes is mainly traditional, that is, primary language input rather than deliberately cultivating students according to the above measures. Teachers give students lessons in a systematic way and finish their teaching tasks.

Examination and Evaluation

At the end of each term, students' spoken English and comprehensive ability are examined and evaluated in the experimental and control classes respectively, and they are also examined by model CET4.

Statistical Analysis

The examination and evaluation achievements are compared between the students in the experimental classes and the students in the control classes, and a comparative analysis is made according to Zhou's (1989) and Zhang's (2002) methods.

Result and Discussion

We'll discuss the results of our experiment from two aspects:

Investigation

Students' English foundation plays a very important role in their latter study. In general, students with a good English foundation when they enroll will make faster progress in their latter English study, while students with poor English foundation when they enroll will make slower progress in their latter English study (Yan and Song, 2011). If their English foundations between the students in the experimental class and the students in the control class have significant difference, there will be no comparability between students in the experimental class and the students in the control class, and the reliability of this experiment will be unable to be guaranteed. To solve the problem, we have investigated their English achievements of College Entrance Examination and the proportion of urban and rural students, and we have also given them English proficiency test and vocabulary test when they enroll. The collected data are analyzed (See Table 1).

Table 1 indicates that there is no significant difference between students in the experimental class and the students in the control class within each university about their achievements of CEE, EPT and vocabulary, and the proportion of urban and rural students. This shows that the basic conditions of the students in the experimental class and the students in the control class have no significant differences. Therefore, there is comparability between students in the experimental class and the students in the control class, and the reliability of this experiment is guaranteed.

Table 1. Comparison of Basic Conditions of the Students in the Experimental Classes and the Control Classes

University and Class	Number of Students	CEE Scores	EPT Scores	Vocabulary	Proportion of students	
					Urban (%)	Rural (%)
<i>Jilin Agricultural University</i>						
Experimental class	60	81.45 a	52.36 a	1885 a	33.59 a	66.41 a
Control class	59	82.15 a	51.98 a	1888 a	32.97 a	67.03 a
<i>Changchun University of Science and Technology</i>						
Experimental class	54	77.37 b	46.37 b	1456 b	24.46 b	75.54 b
Control class	52	76.86 b	45.99 b	1452 b	25.17 b	74.83 b
<i>Jilin University</i>						
Experimental class	56	91.85 c	60.87 c	2201 c	72.27 c	29.73 c
Control class	57	92.19 c	61.32 c	2199 c	69.98 c	30.02 c
<i>Changchun Teachers' University</i>						
Experimental class	55	82.18 a	51.43 a	1887 a	30.16 a	69.84 a
Control class	56	81.74 a	50.89 a	1879 a	30.67 a	69.33 a

Note: The same small letters within the same column indicate no significant differences at the level of 0.05 (between the experimental class and the control class in the same university); CEE: College Entrance Examination; EPT: English Proficiency Test.

English Achievement

Table 2 indicates that the scores of students in the experimental classes are significantly higher than those of students in the control classes. For example, in Jilin Agricultural University, the 4th term oral test score of students in the experimental class is 11 marks higher than that of students in the control class, the 2nd term final exam score of students in the experimental class is 7 marks higher than that of students in the control class, the 3rd term model CET4 score of students in the experimental class is 11.8 marks higher than that of students in the control class; in Jilin University, the 4th term oral test score of students in the experimental class is 9 marks higher than that of students in the control class, the 1st term final exam score of students in the experimental class is 6 marks higher than that of students in the control class, the 4th term model CET4 score of students in the experimental class is 8 marks higher than that of students in the control class; in Changchun Teachers' University, the 1st term oral test score of students in the experimental class is 11 marks higher than that of students in the control class, the 2nd term final exam score of students in the experimental class is 6 marks higher than that of students in the control class, the 3rd term model CET4 score of students in the experimental class is 6 marks higher than that of students in the control class; in Changchun University of Science and Technology, the 4th term oral test score of students in the experimental class is 9 marks higher than that of students in the control class, the 3rd term final exam score of students in the experimental class is 7 marks higher than that of students in the control class, the 3rd term model CET4 score of students in the experimental class is 6 marks higher than that of students in the control class. From the achievements of students' model CET4 and final exam, we can conclude that the measures to improve students' spoken English ability promote their English comprehensive ability.

Table 2. Comparison of Average English Achievements of the Experimental Classes and the Control Classes – Four Terms

University and Class	Number of Students	Scores of oral tests				Scores of Final Exams				Scores of Model CET4			
		Term1	Term2	Term3	Term4	Term1	Term2	Term3	Term4	Term1	Term2	Term3	Term4
<i>Jilin Agricultural University</i>													
Exp. class	60	60 a	62 a	65 a	68 a	60 a	67 a	69 a	70 a	35 a	39 a	42 a	45 a
Control class	59	52 b	53 b	54 b	57 b	56 b	60 b	62 b	64 b	30 b	33 b	34 b	37 b
<i>Jilin University</i>													
Exp. class	56	67 a	70 a	71 a	75 a	67 a	69 a	74 a	76 a	46 a	50 a	55 a	59 a
Control class	57	61 b	63 b	65 b	66 b	62 b	63 b	66 b	70 b	40 b	44 b	48 b	51 b
<i>Changchun Teachers' University</i>													
Exp. class	55	59 a	61 a	64 a	69 a	61 a	65 a	68 a	71 a	33 a	37 a	41 a	44 a
Control class	56	53 b	54 b	55 b	58 b	55 b	59 b	63 b	66 b	28 b	31 b	35 b	38 b
<i>Changchun University of Science and Technology</i>													
Exp. class	54	56 a	59 a	60 a	65 a	59 a	64 a	68 a	69 a	31 a	35 a	38 a	41 a
Control class	52	50 b	53 b	54 b	56 b	55 b	59 b	61 b	65 b	27 b	30 b	32 b	35 b

Note: Different small letters within the same column indicate significant differences at level of 0.05 (between the experimental class and the control class in the same university).

The above results show clearly that even in the colleges and universities of different types, as long as effective measures are taken, college students' English communication ability will be significantly improved, in addition, the improved students' spoken English ability will promote their English comprehensive ability.

Conclusion

Improving college students' English communication ability can be achieved through changing traditional teaching methods and modes, teaching for everybody, enhancing their confidence, stimulating their interest and enhancing their desire and motivation to speak and learn English, combining classroom teaching with extracurricular activities, broadening the channels of English learning, establishing a good, harmonious and mutual respect relationship between teachers and students, dealing with the relationship between the input and output well, paying attention to the balance development of source, transportation and sink. In addition, cultivating students' English communication ability can also promote their English comprehensive ability.

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A Study of Request Strategies of Mandarin Chinese Speakers

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[Abstract] *This study investigates the pragmatic features of requests by Mandarin Chinese speakers in Xinjiang Autonomous Region. It uses Discourse Completion Tests (DCT) adapted by Blum-Kulka, et al (1989). The final results showed similarities as well as differences to the previous studies of request strategies of Mandarin Chinese speakers. To be specific, Mandarin Chinese speakers showed a preference for conventional indirect requests, realized by preparatory forms which enquired requesters' ability, willingness, possibility or permission for a request. Mood derivable requests were also frequently used together with understaters and politeness markers. The findings in the present study provide further evidences that pragmatic features of request strategies of Mandarin Chinese speakers are complex and show for Han Chinese speakers of Mandarin in Xinjiang Uygur Autonomous Region, conventional indirect strategies were the most widely used type.*

[Keywords] *requests; request strategies; Mandarin Chinese speakers*

Introduction

The ability to perform appropriate speech acts is part of pragmatic competence, which is essential for verbal communication (Hymes 1972). However, there exist great differences in the understanding and the use of speech acts not only among different cultures, but also within the same culture. To be specific, pragmatic variation exists for the same speech acts within the same language.

In order to investigate such differences in language use in Mandarin Chinese, a considerable number of empirical studies of request strategies have been conducted using the CCSARP developed by Blum-Kulka, et al (1989). A number of studies have examined the request strategies of Mandarin Chinese speakers (Lee-Wong 1994, 1996; Li 2001; Zhang & Wang, 1997). However, these studies of Chinese Mandarin speakers have reported different results for the types and forms of the preferences of Chinese speakers due to the different data collection in different parts of the Chinese-speaking world. Therefore, we need further studies of Chinese speakers in order to understand the variability existed in Chinese language use by different parts of Chinese speakers.

This paper will concentrate on request strategies of Mandarin Chinese speakers of Han origin in Xinjiang Uygur Autonomous Region to contribute to the description of the pragmatic features of request strategies of Mandarin Chinese speakers. The specific research questions the study address are the following:

1. What are the features of the request strategies of these Mandarin Chinese speakers for request strategy type and strategy form?
2. What are the frequency and distribution of request strategies of these Mandarin Chinese speakers for request strategy types and strategy forms?

Studies of Requests in Mandarin Chinese

A request is a speech act that gets the requestee to do something and is classified as a 'directive' speech act by (Searle 1969). Requests appear to be inherently face-threatening because they intrude on the

addressees' territory, their freedom of action and freedom from imposition (Brown and Levinson 1978). Therefore, various politeness strategies are used by speakers in order to mitigate the possible threats to face.

Research on the request strategies of Mandarin Chinese speakers has shown a great deal of complexity. Lee-Wong (1994) studied requests of speakers from the People's Republic of China (PRC) and found that Chinese speakers consistently display a preference for what she calls "impositive" speech acts as well as indirect speech acts; however she did not examine the sub-categories of conventionally indirect strategies. Lee-Wong's category of impositive strategies does not clearly relate to a division between direct and indirect request speech acts. In Lee-Wong's (1996) comparative study of PRC and non-PRC Chinese speakers, it found that both groups used more impositives than other speech act forms, although the non-PRC speakers used a higher proportion of indirect speech acts than did the PRC speakers. The results, however, are difficult to compare as different data is presented for each group.

Within the same framework and instrument, Dong's (2008) and Li's (2001) studies showed similarities and differences. Dong's (2008) study showed a preference for conventionally indirect strategies in the forms of possibility of performing the request in the requests of Chinese speakers rather than using direct requests. In Li's (2001) study, it showed that Chinese speakers display an equal preference for direct strategies and conventionally indirect strategies. There is therefore a need for further studies into the request strategies used by Chinese speakers so as to address some of these issues.

Research Design

Participants

The participants, who were all randomly selected, comprised 60 Mandarin Chinese speakers, and were full-time university students, mainly coming from the different departments at universities in the Xinjiang minority area.

Research Instruments

The study used a Discourse Completion Tests (DCT) to collect the data based on a selection of situations employed by Blum-Kulka, et al (1989) in the CCSARP project. Despite some criticisms from scholars in the field regarding the authenticity of responses, evidences show DCT is a useful and valid instrument and is frequently employed form speech act research (e.g., Byon 2006).

The DCT in the present study consisted of 18 situations which were considered to be familiar to Chinese native speakers in their daily life. The coding scheme for the present study was a version of the CCSARP scheme adapted from Blum-Kulka, et al. (1989). Requests were examined on strategy type and strategy form.

Findings and Discussion

The participants produced a number of different head act types and forms. The features, the frequency and distribution of the request strategies are presented as the followings.

Features of Request Strategies

Nine different head act forms were found in the DCT data. The first five sub-strategies are direct strategies, the next two sub-strategies are conventionally indirect and the last two sub-strategies are

non-conventional indirect strategies (Blum-Kulka et al, 1989). The definitions of strategies forms are based on Blum-Kulka et al (1989, pp. 278-280).

Mood derivable.

This is the prototypical form is the imperative structures, which express the illocutionary of speech acts explicitly. Basic action verbs in the data include “借 *jie* ‘borrow/lend’, 给 *gei* ‘give’, 看 *kan* ‘look/see’, 送 *song* ‘send’”. For example:

- (1) 送两条毛巾到102房间。

Song liang tiao mao jing dao 102 fang jian.

Send me two towels to Room 102.

Explicit performative.

These are requests in which the illocutionary intent is explicitly named by using a relevant illocutionary verb. The illocutionary verbs includes “要求 *yaoqiu* ‘ask or require’, 请求 *qingqiu* ‘request’, 恳求 *kenqiu* ‘sincerely ask’, 让 *rang* ‘ask’, 叫 *jiao* ‘tell’, 命令 *mingling* ‘order or command’”. For example:

- (2) 我请求你再给我几天时间完成数学作业。

Wo qing qiu ni zai gei wo ji tian shi jian wan chen shu xue zuo ye.

I am asking you to give me additional days to finish the math paper.

Hedged performative.

These are requests in which the intent is modified by modal verbs or verbs expressing intention. Illocutionary verbs used include “求求 *qiuru* ‘ask or beg’, 要求 *yaoqiu* ‘ask or command’, 恳求 *kenqiu* ‘beg’, 叫 *jiao* ‘ask’”, which are modified by model verbs, such as “想 *xiang* ‘want to / I’d like to’”. For example:

- (3) 我想请求你允许我缓考。

Wo xiang qing qiu ni yong xu wo huan kao.

I would like to have a test on another day.

Locution derivable.

These are requests in which the illocutionary intent is directly derivable from the semantic meaning of the locution. It contains model verbs, “应该 *yinggai* ‘must’, 该 *gai* ‘must or should’, 不得不 *bu de bu* ‘have to’, 得 *de* / 该 *gai* / 要 *yao* ‘ought to’, 必须 *bixu* ‘should’”. For example:

- (4) 你得提前一周把报告交给我看看。

Ni de ti qian yi zhou ba bao gao jiao gei wo kan kan.

You *should* hand in your report to me one week earlier so I can have a look.

Want statement.

These are requests which express the speaker’s desire that the event denoted in the proposition come about. The typical desired verb includes “想 *xiang* ‘want’, 要 *yao* ‘I’d like to’, 需要 *xuyao* ‘need’ ”. For example:

- (5) 我想借用一会你的笔记本。

Wo xiang jie yong yi hui er ni de bi ji ben.

I’d like to borrow your notebooks for a while.

Suggestory formula.

These are requests in which the illocutionary intent is phrased as a suggestion by means of formula, such as “要不 *yaobu* / 不如 *buru* / 最好 *suihao* ‘You’d better’, 如何 *ruhe* / 怎么样 *zenmoyang* / 不妨 *bufang* ‘How about?’, 为什么不 *wei shenmo bu* / 干嘛不 *ganma bu* ‘why not?’ ”. For example:

(6) 要不你提前一周把报告交给我看看。

Yao bu ni ti qian yi zhou ba bao gao jiao gei wo kan kan.

You’d better hand in your report to me one week earlier so I can have a look.

Preparatory.

These are requests in which contain reference to a preparatory condition, such as ability, willingness, or possibility of the act being performed. It contains model verbs, such as “可不可以---? *Ke bu keyi* ‘May/Might I’, 能不能---? *Neng bu neng* ‘Can/Could I /you or Will you’, 能否---? *Nengfou* ‘Can / Could I’, 是否---? *Shifou* ‘Can/could I / you’, 可否---? *Kefou* ‘Can / Could I / you or Will you / Would you’, 是否可以---? *Shifou keyi* ‘Can / Could I / you’, 能---吗? *Neng---ma?* ‘Can/Could I or May / Might you or Will/ Would you’ ”. For example:

(7) 我能借用您的参考书吗?

Wo neng jie yong nin de can kao shu ma ?

Could I borrow your reference book?

(8) 可不可以增加工资?

ke bu ke yi zeng jia gong zi?

Could you please review my pay?

Sentences (7) and (8) show two different types of preparatory requests with different positions for the model verbs. The model verb “能---吗? *neng---ma?* ‘Can / Could I---?’ in sentence (7) is usually inserted between subject and main verb while the model verb “可不可以---? *Ke bu keyi---?* ‘Could you---?’ in sentence (8) is usually located at the beginning of sentences.

Strong hint.

These are requests in which the illocutionary intent is not immediately derivable from the locution; however, the locution refers to relevant elements of the intended illocutionary and propositional act. For example:

(9) 我要做饭，可是厨房太脏了。

Wo yao zuo fan, ke shi chu fang tai zhang le.

I want to do some cooking now, but the kitchen is too dirty.

In sentence (9), the requester refers indirectly to the requestee’s responsibility to clean the kitchen by partially mentioning reference to the requests instead of direct naming the request acts.

Mild hint.

These are requests that contain no elements which are of immediate relevance to the intended illocution or proposition. For example:

(10) 很抱歉，我今晚应邀参加一个重要晚宴。

Hen bao qian, wo jing wan ying yao can jia yi ge zhong yao wan yan.

I am sorry, but I have been invited to an important dinner tonight.

Frequency and Distribution of Request Strategies

To answer the second research question, the frequencies and distributions of request strategies for different dimensions, strategy type and strategy form, were presented in the following.

Strategy type of requests. The total number and percentage of three strategy types used by Xinjiang Mandarin Chinese speakers is shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Frequency and Distribution of Strategy Type of Requests

Strategy Type	Number	Percentage
Conventional Indirect Strategy	528	50.6%
Direct Strategy	367	33.2%
Non-conventional Indirect Strategy	149	14.3%
Total number	1044	100%

The study showed that speakers preferred conventionally indirect strategies across all request types. Overall, the total number of strategies across the 18 situations is 1044, of which 528 or 50.6% were conventional indirect strategies; while 149 and 14.3% were non-conventional indirect strategies. The number of direct strategies was mid way between these two possibilities with 367 instances or 33.2%. These findings were similar to the results of Zhang & Wang (1997), who claimed that conventionally indirect strategies were commonly accepted and used among three strategy types.

Strategy form of requests. The three types of request strategies are further divided into the nine strategy forms discussed above. The frequency and distribution of these nine request strategy forms are shown in Table 2.

Table 2. Frequency and Distribution of Strategy Form of Requests

Strategy Form	Number	Percentage
Preparatory	477	45.7%
Mood derivable	281	27.0%
Strong hint	101	9.7%
Want statement	72	6.9%
Suggestory formula	51	4.9%
Mild hint	48	4.6%
Hedged performative	7	0.7%
Locution derivable	4	0.4%
Explicit performative	3	0.19%
Total number	1044	100%

As indicated in Table 2, the most widely used request strategy form for Mandarin Chinese speakers is preparatory, with 477 instances or 45.7% of the total number of requests. This result was in agreement with the findings of other researchers (Zhang & Wang, 1997; Dong, 2008), who found that the main indirect strategies utilized to make requests were conventionally indirect preparatory forms. The frequently model verbs used in preparatory requests were “能---吗? *neng ma---*? ‘Can I /you or could I /

you---?', 能不能---? *neng bu neng*---? 'Can I / you or Could I / you or May I / we---?', 可不可以---? *ke bu keyi*---? 'Can I / you or Could I / you or May we---?', 能否---? *neng fou*---? 'Can I / you or Could I / you or May I / we---?', 可否---? *ke fou*---? 'Can I / you or Could I / you---?', 是否可以---? *shi fou ke yi*---? 'Can I / you or Could I / you or May I / we---?' ", which were usually used at the beginning of sentence or inserted between the subject and the main verb. The use of these model verbs was to enquire about the requestees' ability, willingness, possibility or permission in relation to the request. Such constructions can be seen as less forceful requests.

Mood derivable requests were employed frequently by Mandarin Chinese speakers too. It was noticed that mood derivable was usually used together with an embedded understaters (一点 *yi dian* 'a bit', 一会儿 *yi hui er* 'for a while', 一下 *yi xia* 'a bit') and with lexical modification in the form of politeness markers ("请 *qing* 'please', 麻烦 *mafan* 'please', 劳驾 *laojiao* 'please', 拜托 *baituo* 'please'). The results are in line with those of by Lee-Wong (1994), who claimed that the use of such modification with mood derivable requests may be an indication of Chinese speakers' willingness to communicate intention explicitly and efficiently, but also orient to a need for politeness.

Strong hint was the third most common category. This may be because, owing to the vertical of social structure of Chinese culture, requesters would expect a vague expression to leave hearer freedom to respond or not to respond to requests so as to achieve face-saving of both sides.

In brief, preparatory was the preferred strategy form for Mandarin Chinese speakers, with mood derivable being also frequently used together with understaters and politeness markers. This provides further evidenced that conventionally indirect strategies were mostly preferred in Chinese.

Conclusion

This study aimed to identify the features of request strategies of Mandarin Chinese speakers in Xinjiang, exploring frequencies and distributions of request strategies. The final results showed a preference for conventional indirectness, which was usually realized by preparatory forms which enquired requesters' ability, willingness, possibility or permission for a request. Mood derivable requests were also frequently used together with understaters and politeness markers. The findings in this study provide further evidences that pragmatic features of request strategies of Mandarin Chinese speakers are complex. These results are similar to the findings of some studies and differ from those of others and show that for Han Chinese speakers of Mandarin in Xinjiang Uygur Autonomous Region, conventionally indirect strategies were the most widely used type.

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On the Strategies to Introduce Chinese Culture into English Teaching, From the Perspective of Intercultural Communications

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[Abstract] This paper attempts to highlight, from the perspective of intercultural communications, the significance and necessity of bringing education of Chinese culture into English teaching in China. It also suggests strategies to integrate the teaching syllabus, curriculum, textbooks, cultural sensitiveness and knowledge of the teachers, teaching concepts, teaching evaluation and so on into this important pilot.

[Keywords] Chinese culture; college English teaching; intercultural communication

Introduction

Widdowson (1983) pointed out that the main purpose of language learning is to make successful communications, especially intercultural communications. Communication itself is a two-way, rather than one-way process, which involves the cultures of both the target language and the native language. *The Requirements for Curriculum Teaching of College Teaching* (2007) stipulates that the intercultural communications be one of the essential parts of English teaching. However, “culture” in most English teaching in China primarily refers to the cultures of English-speaking, or Western, countries. As an international language, English should take Chinese and other Asian countries’ cultures into consideration (Zhang, 2003, p. 84). The empirical researches by Chinese scholars on non-English majors indicate that most interviewees express the Chinese culture rather poorly, and when communicating with native English speakers, they suffer from “Chinese cultural aphasia” (Cong, 2000). In addition, the input of Chinese culture into the teaching of College English is rather ignored. This paper attempts, from the perspective of intercultural communications, to make an exploration on the strategies to tackle the problems, so as to draw the attention of experts and scholars concerned, as well as English teachers and learners, and to promote English teaching in China and enhance learners’ intercultural communicative competence.

The Significance of Chinese Culture in the Intercultural Communications

To Promote Chinese Culture

English is an important tool for the dissemination of Chinese culture. Empowered by English, Chinese culture will be spread more effectively and accurately, and China’s influence on the international communities will be exerted powerfully. Otherwise China’s voice will be greatly weakened in this multicultural world. Crystal (1997) also emphasized that English should express the users’ own cultures and air their own points of view.

To Meet the Needs of Cross-Cultural Communications

The relationship between culture and language determines the purpose of English teaching: to cultivate learners’ intercultural communicative competence. Therefore, learning a different culture and promoting one’s own culture are equally important. Communication is a two-way interchange so neither cultural

absorption, nor its dissemination can ever be ignored. In L. Smith's opinion (1976), the basic function of English language is to let all users exchange each other's ideas and cultures. Additionally, one of the goals of English teaching is to improve learners' own cultural accomplishment and their abilities in intercultural communications.

To Keep Learners' Cultural Identities

The learners and speakers of English in China who have a good command of Chinese culture may be in a better position to acquire a voice in international exchanges. Learning one's own culture also strengthens their awareness of national culture, maintains their ethnicity and increases their sense of national identity and belonging.

To Meet the Needs of Learning English

The mother tongue is the starting point and the foundation of foreign language learning. Our understanding of the English language is based on the pre-existing thinking mode of our own native culture. If the native culture is neglected, the basis for understanding the target language is lost. What's more, we may take advantage of the positive transference of mother tongue and native cultures to help with learning foreign languages. By comparing the similarities and differences between two languages and two cultures, we may be able to learn the cultures and languages better.

Empirical Researches on Chinese Cultural Learning and Teaching

Indian American linguist Braj B. Kachru (1993) argued that it is of practical value only if each stage of English teaching is closely related to the specific situations of a society. According to Sun Taiqun and Huang Yuanzhen's (2009, p. 135) study, there are two kinds of undesirable tendencies in English teaching in China: one overemphasizes the "standard English" teaching; the other gives less emphasis or whatsoever on the Chinese culture. Chinese scholar Li Peilong (2013), Du Xiulian (2012), Xu Liangfeng (2011), (Xu Hui 2010), Han Cuiping (2008), and Zhang Weimin & Zhu Hongmei (2002), etc. have done empirical researches on non-English majors from different colleges and universities, focusing on the students' abilities to interpret and express, in English, the Chinese culture, and the learning and teaching conditions of the Chinese culture. The studies have the following conclusions:

1. The students' abilities to express Chinese cultures in English are generally low. Their competence in this area is described as "low", "lack of", "to be improved" or "understanding improperly" etc.
2. There is a lack of Chinese cultural education.
3. There is a lack of intercultural awareness and comparison of cultural differences.
4. There is a lack of Chinese cultural identities.

Strategies to Tackle the Problems

It is only through appropriate and effective exchanges of information that the intercultural communications can be successfully carried out. First of all, intercultural communications require awareness and knowledge of at least two cultures. However, in practice, most English teaching mistakenly focuses only on the understanding, absorption, or command of the culture of the target language, while the culture of the source language is more or less unfortunately neglected. As a consequence, this author suggests the following strategies to cope with these problems.

Teaching Syllabus

The teaching syllabus, the teaching guideline, is of great significance. It should cover both teaching objectives for the target languages and the source languages, and should combine languages organically with cultures. Israeli linguist Bernard Spolsky thinks that Asian countries should lay down their own teaching objectives and policies based on their own actual situations. Naturally, our teaching objectives and policies must be formed in light of China's conditions and needs. Although the current teaching syllabus mentions cultures to a certain degree, it is the culture of the target language, instead of that of the source language that enjoys such attention. The differences between the Chinese culture and Western ones, and their interaction and integration, are mostly ignored. The comparison between the two cultures in English teaching is covered even less. In addition, specific requirements or suggestions on intercultural communication teaching are given little attention (Zhang, 2012, p. 5), let alone the teaching standard, teaching materials, teaching methods, tests and teaching evaluations (Zhang, 2007.). As a result, cultural education does not obtain the same position as that of language teaching and learning. It is pressing that Chinese culture, as an indispensable part of English teaching in China, should be brought into every English Teaching Plan in China.

Curriculum

The curriculum for English teaching is far from satisfactory, or from the learners' needs. As D. Nunan, (1988) pointed out in his *Learner-Centered Curriculum*, student-centered ideas are closely related to the curriculum arrangement. His main point is that students should not learn every part of a language, but just the actual needs for real life. The main objective of the student-centered curriculum is to help them carry out communications smoothly outside the classrooms. According to the research by Li Peilong (2013), Li Yalin (2011), and Du Xiulian (2012), 75.3%, 98%, and 82.2% of the respondents respectively think that Chinese culture should be put into the current English curriculum. Among the teachers (Xu, 2011), 80% believe that students should always talk in English about the Chinese culture, in and outside their classrooms. Obviously, both students and teachers argue that the curriculum should contain the Chinese culture so as to satisfy the learners' requirements. Therefore, it is greatly meaningful to add, into the English-teaching curriculum, Chinese philosophy, history, religion, literature and art. In some bilingual selective courses, such as an introduction to Chinese culture, the comparison between the Chinese culture and western ones, and intercultural communications, can be good choices.

Textbooks

Textbooks are the general basis upon which teachers arrange their classroom teaching, and also the primary materials about which students learn. Satisfactory textbooks should meet the requirements of the teaching syllabus and implement teaching objectives. A famous American linguist Charles C. Fries says in his book entitled *Teaching and Learning English as a Foreign Language* that the most effective textbooks should focus on the scientific description of the foreign languages, and the corresponding description of the native language, and the comparison between the two. However, the currently popular English-textbooks mainly introduce original English teaching materials, and primarily western cultures. Three versions of the most popular college English textbooks in China rarely involve the Chinese culture. Chen Yang (2011, pp. 134-135) made the following statistics on the proportion of Chinese culture in the three mentioned above:

Table 1. Statistics on the Proportion of Chinese Culture in 3 Textbooks

Textbooks	Total Chapters	Pieces Concerning Chinese Culture	%	Average %
<i>New College English</i> (2nd edition) (Book 1-4)	80	2	2.5%	3.1%
<i>College English</i> (Zhejiang University Version) (Book1-4)	120	5	2.9%	
<i>New Horizons College English</i> (Book1-4)	120	3	2.5%	

The chart shows that the proportion of Chinese culture in all textbooks is surprisingly low. It not only narrows the students’ cultural horizons, but also hinders the enhancement of their intercultural communicative competence. In view of this situation, it is high time that the textbook compilers adopt English pieces and some listening and oral topics under the context of Chinese culture into textbooks.

Teachers’ Cultural Accomplishment

Teaching faculty plays a very important role in introducing Chinese culture into English teaching. As teachers are the students’ instructors and helpers, their sufficient cultural accomplishment and equal culture knowledge are prerequisites to help students with the abilities to interpret the Chinese culture in English, to increase the awareness of intercultural communications and the intercultural communicative competence. It is a fact that teachers of English are personally lacking in initiatives to teach Chinese culture because they do not fully recognize its importance, or that they do not have a thorough solid understanding of their own culture. In addition, as they have not received systematic training in relevant fields and suffer from insufficient recognition or support from their supervisors, they are one-sided, superficial, and they lack enthusiasm for cross-cultural communication teaching. According to Xu Liangfeng (2011), 76.7% of the teachers surveyed admitted to their limited knowledge of the Chinese culture. And it is their unshakable duties to help the students enhance the national sense of pride.

Teaching Concepts

In English teaching, traditional teaching is a teacher-centered grammar-translation mode, giving emphasis on the basic language skills, such as listening, speaking, reading, writing, and translation. Such a teaching approach puts stress on the texts, arrangement of ideas, sentence structure, interpretation of the words, question-and-answer and even recitation assignments for students. From the students’ perspective, rich vocabularies and good command of grammar are vital for satisfying results in various tests. To teachers, satisfactory test scores reflect good teaching effects. Under such circumstances, the curriculum rarely involves cultures, or cultural communications in the classrooms. And culture is one-sidedly referred to as that of Western or English-speaking countries. In addition, the negative transfer of mother tongue culture is overstressed. Curriculum arrangement, teaching information, classroom activities and test modes all point to Western cultures. Cultural input is regarded as an accessory to language teaching, and is only given consideration if time and conditions permit. As a consequence, cultural teaching is never systematic enough and learners grasp only fragmentary cultural information” (Zhang, 2012, p. 5).

To handle the problem, equal culture consciousness should be established to strengthen the students’ sense of cultural identity and sense of pride for their own culture. The teachers should instill in their students the correct attitudes towards cultures: they should not feel superior, or arrogant for their own culture, nor should they feel inferior to others’; they should feel confident about their own and treat other

cultures with respect. In the multi-cultural world, if we only stick to the Chinese cultural identities, we may have a say in intercultural communications and avoid the aphasia for Chinese culture. Next, we need to orientate the students towards positive interpretations of their own culture. At last, notation, combination and comparison on cultures should be introduced into classroom teaching so as to enhance students' sensitivity to cultures.

Teaching Evaluation

Evaluation is an indispensable part of language teaching. It is necessary for a teacher to get feedback for good teaching results to ensure effective, and efficient, teaching. It is also a means by which the students can adjust their learning strategies, improve their learning methods and increase learning efficiency. Since teaching evaluation is sure to determine the teaching guidelines and objectives, tests are the most useful ways for evaluation. It is inevitable that teaching activities be carried out around the tests. As the teaching "baton", tests exert a great influence on learning and teaching. The English tests of various levels are held to evaluate learners' basic language skills, which gives teachers and students an illusion that English learning is about its basic skills, and that the culture that languages bear, is less important, particularly that of the native or source language. According to Xu Liangfeng's (2011) survey, both CET-4 and CET-6 are such important tests that they have become the greatest driving force for learning English. And the two tests are mainly aimed at learners' abilities to use the language itself, lacking sufficient cultural information. What is more, the test types concerning cultures tend to be around those of English-speaking countries.

More cultural information should be added to the tests, and essays on culture should be required for submittal regularly or irregularly as a form of evaluation modes. In addition, adding more Chinese culture may stimulate teachers to spread and teach Chinese culture, and students to express it actively.

Conclusion

The relationship between culture and language determines that the essence of English teaching is to cultivate intercultural communicative competence. In many ways, language teaching is cultural teaching. However, a lack of Chinese culture in English teaching leads to students' low abilities to promote their own cultures and to carry out successful intercultural communications. The integration of the Chinese culture into English teaching is conducive to maintaining learners' cultural identity, safeguarding the independence and dignity of national culture, and improving the learner's competence of intercultural communications and cultural accomplishment.

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On Application of Discourse Analysis to the Teaching of English Reading for Non-English-Major Postgraduates

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[Abstract] Influenced by the traditional English teaching methods and the uneven English competence of our non-English-Major postgraduates, the teaching of postgraduate English reading has been focusing on the syntactic analysis, that is, the texts are grammatically translated sentence by sentence. However, the value of a language is manifested in its discourse rather than in sentences arrangement, therefore, discourse analysis is expected to be applied to our English teaching practice to realize the purpose of improving students' comprehensive language competence. This paper generally analyzes the problems existing in our non-English-major postgraduates' English reading, the definitions of discourse and discourse analysis and elaborates the application of the theories of discourse analysis to the teaching of the postgraduate English reading to improve their English reading competence.

[Keywords] teaching of non-English-major postgraduate English reading; discourse; discourse analysis; English reading competence

Introduction

In the *Syllabus of Non-English-Major Postgraduate English (as the First Foreign Language)*(1993), written by our Ministry of Education, it is clearly pointed out that our postgraduate English teaching is to cultivate students with good ability of reading, writing, and translation, as well as some basic listening and speaking ability; that is to say, our postgraduates are supposed to use English as a tool for their professional study and research. Among those five language skills, reading is a very fundamental part in our English teaching. What's more, it is specifically stated that our postgraduates are required to master and skillfully use a variety of reading techniques (such as the ability of generalizing the main ideas of English materials, guessing the meanings of unfamiliar words, predicting and reasoning, etc.), as well as the ability to analyze English materials on the discourse level. Therefore, our English teachers are shouldering the arduous mission of teaching them discourse theories and improving their English reading competence.

Problems Existing in the Teaching of Postgraduate English Reading

With the continuous expansion of enrollment of postgraduates and the further reforms of our CET 4 and CET 6, the problems existing in the teaching of our postgraduate English reading are also increasingly prominent. On one hand, our postgraduates' English levels are uneven – some have passed the CET 4 or CET 6 and have a good command of English reading skills, while others may just reach the Fetching fraction line and are weak at their vocabulary, grammar and reading ability so that they are unable to adapt to their English classroom teaching. On the other hand, influenced by their traditional teaching methods and the examination-oriented education, the teaching of our current postgraduate English reading is still sentence-oriented, namely, the teaching is centered on grammar and sentences, which means that syntactic structure, as a traditional unit, has been paid too much emphasis on, while discourse analysis,

along with the overall understanding of a discourse by means of textual cohesion and coherence, has been ignored. As a result, students may not understand a text as a whole but only by a single sentence.

In addition, some of the English reading materials selected for our postgraduates are original, which requires that they have a good command of discourse comprehension and communication skills to deeply understand the contents of the articles. Therefore, it is expected that the teaching focus has to be transferred from the syntactic level to the discourse level and much more emphasis has to be laid on the training of discourse ability of our postgraduates.

Discourse Theories

Discourse and Discourse Analysis

Discourse generally refers to language in use – both written language and spoken language. It usually means a series of successive utterances or language units made up of sentences, including monologue, dialogue, multi-person interchanges, verbal signs, poetry, novels, speeches or articles, and so on. No matter what kind of form it takes, it has to be correct grammatically and coherent semantically and pragmatically (Huang, 1988). Discourse analysis is concerned with the study of the relationship between language and the contexts in which it is used (Michael, 1991). In general, discourse analysis focuses on describing the language structure, cultural features, communicative mode and contextual features by analyzing a text and its context.

Microstructural Theories of Discourse Analysis

For Halliday and Hasan, the organization of text (which they term texture) is made up (in large part) of relationships among items in the text, some semantic, some grammatical, which they refer to as cohesive ties. They are various in kind and are divided into five broad classes according to a heterogeneous group of criteria – they are conjunction, reference, substitution, ellipsis, and lexical cohesion (Michael, H., 2000).

Reference items in English include pronouns, demonstratives, the article, and so on. Signals of comparison and contrast also contribute to cohesion and coherence in discourse. Comparative reference is either endophoric (e.g. anaphoric or cataphoric) or exophoric. Anaphoric reference means looking backward, while cataphoric reference refers to looking forward. What's more, exophoric reference is looking outward, which will often be to a world shared by sender and receiver of the linguistic message, regardless of cultural background (Michael, 1991).

Substitutes can be understood to “replace” a repeated occurrence of the antecedent and make the context cohesive (Huang, 1988). An ellipsis is the omission of elements normally required by the grammar that the speaker/writer assumes is obvious from the context and therefore need not be raised. Conjunction refers to conjunctive relations between adjacent clauses, and is usually explicitly expressed by conjunctive expressions, such as: in other words, that is, and, but, then, etc. (Li & Yang, 2007).

Cohesion may be crudely defined as the way certain words or grammatical features of a sentence can connect that sentence to its predecessors (and successors) in a text. With the exception of conjunction, what these classes of cohesive ties share is that they are all ways of repeating, and this is also true of much of the category that Halliday and Hasan loosely label lexical cohesion (Michael, H., 2000).

Macrostructural Theories of Discourse Analysis

In written discourse analysis, text operates according to rules that most successful writers unconsciously follow and readers unconsciously expect to find. All of these smaller items of clauses, clause relations,

coherence, signaling and textuality form textual patterns (Li & Yang, 2007). The identification of patterns as one proceeds across the segments of discourse is an important part of analytic activity. Patterns involve form or structure, the disposition or arrangement of parts or elements (Linda & Rolf, 2008). So, by introducing the knowledge of discourse patterns into our teaching, it will be useful for students to better understand a discourse wholly and to properly grasp the main idea and the writing intention of a writer.

Problem-Solution Pattern consists of four basic segments: situation-problem-response-result / evaluation. It can be applied to describe and narrate a plot or an event. General-Specific Pattern is likely to be found in exposition, description, argumentation and many reference texts. There are two kinds of structures for this pattern: one is the general-example pattern, while the other is the preview-detail pattern. Hypothetical-Real Pattern is usually made up of two parts, a supposition (or claim) and the justification for the writer's point of view (support or counterclaim). Matching-Pattern is often used to make some comparisons and contrasts between things to find out the similarities and differences between them. In a discourse, it is often embedded with other patterns, for example, general-specific pattern. This discourse pattern can be applied in exposition, argumentation, letter writing, narration or poetry.

Sometimes, a discourse can be realized in one of the above patterns, but it can also be embodied by mingling them together. Therefore, if our students know more about the patterns of a discourse, they are likely to explicitly comprehend it and find out its general structure. It is our teachers' task to introduce that knowledge to our postgraduates in our daily teaching of English reading to enhance their awareness of identifying its patterns correctly.

A Case Study of Applying Discourse Theories to Teaching Practice

In the teaching of English reading for our non-English-major postgraduates, there are some factors that can influence their reading competence. These factors, including vocabulary, background knowledge, textural structure, reading strategies and reading fluency, are not only the difficulties for our learners, but also the teaching focuses for our teachers. In order to solve those problems and improve their English reading ability, the above theories of discourse analysis may be applied to the teaching practice of our postgraduate English reading. Let's take Unit 1 (*Cyberspace: If You Don't Love It, Leave It*) in *Active English for Postgraduate –Reading and Writing 1* as an example to show how to apply the above theories to our teaching.

Predicting the Contents of Texts and Activating Its Background Knowledge

Based on the theories of the structuralism, our students do not passively accept knowledge, but actively construct their knowledge. During the process of learning, students can actively choose, process, and construct their new knowledge. And meanwhile, they will encode the new knowledge on the basis of their old one to build their own new system.

Cyberspace: If You Don't Love It, Leave It is a scientific article. In the course of teaching this unit, teachers are supposed to help their students to activate what have been stored in their brain to build a new knowledge, which means that the students should be encouraged to boldly predict the contents, the genre, and the structure of the article according to its title-*Cyberspace: If You Don't Love It, Leave It*-through group discussion and cooperation. And then, teachers can introduce them some background knowledge that is related to cyberspace and the Internet to help the students to perfect their old schematic knowledge. It is generally agreed that creation and understanding of a discourse involve not only the language being used but also the preexisting knowledge of the world, so background knowledge is to a certain degree helpful for a learner to understand an article (Zheng, 2013).

Analyzing the Genre and the Patterns of Texts

Traditionally, genre research focuses almost exclusively on literary texts. From the 1970s, genre has become a powerful tool for the analysis of both literary and non-literary discourses. As is known to all, language is a communicative and social tool for human beings to communicate with each other and maintain their social life. In order to realize a variety of communicative purposes, different language structures and genres have to be adopted, and no matter what kind of structure or genre it takes, it must be cohesive and coherent reasonably and logically, in other words, it must be a semantic integrity and can only express one central idea.

Generally speaking, as a discourse, it usually includes three parts: the beginning, body and conclusion. But different genres may take different structures to illustrate it. For example, if it is an argumentation, it can be developed from the main viewpoint to subordinate ones, and the relationship between paragraphs can either be progressive or coordinate. If it is a narration or a story, it can follow the order of time, place, characters and event. So, much attention should also be paid to the teaching of genres so as to improve students' English reading comprehension.

Cyberspace: If You Don't Love It, Leave It mainly answers the following three questions:

- What is the nature of cyberspace?
- What does cyberspace comprise?
- Should cyberspace be regulated? If so, how should it be regulated?

This article belongs to an affirming writing, in other words, an argumentation, in which the author aims to show her opinion about the definition of the nature of cyberspace by comparing it with real estate and explaining its components and its regulations. Generally speaking, it follows the General-Specific Pattern because a general view is given first and then followed by a detailed explanation and illustration.

As to the third part of the article, when the author tries to explain how to solve the problems existing in the cyberspace, she applies Problem-Solution Pattern in which the situation and problems are introduced first, and then some solutions are offered. At the end of the text, the writer evaluates the result of the solutions.

Analyzing the Microstructural Features of Texts

As we discuss, those cohesive ties are very useful in presenting an article logically and organically, so English teachers are expected to analyze an article locally as well as globally and focus on lexical, grammatical and textual cohesion. Let's analyze the cohesive applications in the first paragraph of the article – *Cyberspace: If You Don't Love It, Leave It*:

“Something in the American psyche loves new frontiers. We hanker after wide-open spaces; we like to explore; we like to make rules but refuse to follow them. But in this age it's hard to find a place where you can go and be yourself without worrying about the neighbors.”

In this paragraph, we can find that the phrase (new frontiers) is cataphoric reference because the meaning of it can be understood when reading on; the formal subject (it), which refers to the following infinitive phrase (to find a place where you can go and be yourself without worrying about the neighbors), is also a cataphoric reference; the word “them”, as a substitute, is anaphoric reference because its meaning of “rules” can be realized by looking backward. Besides reference, we can also find the Ellipsis of “new frontiers” in the clause “we like to explore” and the conjunctive relation by using the word “but” in the last sentence in this paragraph to show the conjunctive relation.

In a word, word-to-word translation is a really easy way for an English teacher to deal with an English article, but it is really hard for our students to understand a passage wholly and logically. In order to solve those problems, our English teachers may explore more in applying the above discourse theories to our daily practice. Mastering some discourse theories is helpful for them to comprehend an article and improve their English reading competence.

Conclusion and Reflection

In conclusion, there will no doubt be many other things that will need to be said about discourse analysis and the teaching of English reading, for discourse analysis is a fast-moving discipline, and our knowledge of how language occurs in its natural contexts is growing all the time. Even though discourse analysis is not a method for teaching language, it is generally agreed that discourse analysis has presented us with a fundamentally different way of looking at language compared with sentence-dominated models.

It is true that the final goal of language teaching is not just to teach them language points, but also to train their ability to retrieve information and use their language in reality. However, it is too difficult to make our students keep pace with the fast-reforming CET 4 or CET 6, as well as the higher and higher English requirements from our society and their own sustainable development only by means of the traditional teaching methods. By applying the above micro and macro theories of discourse analysis to the teaching of postgraduate English reading and helping them practicing more, teachers can make it easier for students to construct their knowledge, get to know authors' intention better, conclude the gist of a discourse exactly. And finally our students can succeed in communicating with the author actively, interpret their ideas exactly and improve their competence of English reading comprehension effectively and basically.

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Concerning Spoken English Elective Course Taught by Native Speakers

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[Abstract] In order to enhance students' competitiveness in the job market, an increasing number of universities and colleges have begun to employ native speakers to teach non-English majors oral English. In this paper the author analyzes the feasibility of the spoken English elective course from the theories on which the pilot project is based, the design of the classroom activities, the characteristics and problems existing in it in order to offer some experience to the universities starting similar elective classes.

[Keywords] spoken English elective course; native speakers; classroom activities; feasibility

Present Situation

As stated in the College English Curriculum Requirements (2007), “the objective of College English is to develop students’ ability to use English in a well-rounded way, especially in listening and speaking, so that in their future studies and careers as well as social interactions, they will be able to communicate effectively, and at the same time enhance their ability to study independently, and improve their general cultural awareness so as to meet the needs of China’s social development and international exchanges.” According to the Requirements, in order to communicate effectively, students must improve their listening and speaking abilities and their cultural awareness. In order to enhance students’ competitiveness in the job market, an increasing number of universities and colleges have begun to employ native speakers to teach non-English majors oral English. Some non-governmental training institutions have also taken advantage of the services of native speaker teachers as a major attraction for students (i.e. marketing). As an example, the Inner Mongolia University for the Nationalities has offered spoken English elective courses taught by native speakers to non-English majors since 2008. On the basis of five years of experience, this paper analyzes the feasibility of the spoken English elective course program from the perspective of several theoretical frameworks, while also considering the benefits and problems encountered in the design and implementation of various classroom activities.

English is one of the three principal subjects on the college entrance examination, representing some 150 points out of the possible total of 750 points for all subjects. However, in most provinces the exam does not include listening, much less speaking. As a consequence both teachers and students in middle school focus their attention exclusively on the written components of the examination, rather than on listening or speaking. Hence, for at least six years students are compelled to learn English in an inappropriate or at least suboptimal manner; i.e. not by speaking and listening to English, but by doing exercises that rely largely upon memorization rather than practical application. A common result – as noted by Wen (2013) – is that students become thoroughly fed up with learning English (“anorexia”). In contrast, in the case of the CET exams, listening accounts for one third of the total scores for both Band 4 and Band 6 assessments. Accordingly the matter of how to satisfy college students’ needs, how to merge middle school English learning into college English learning, and how to retain students’ interest in English has become something of a perplexing issue. However, it is worth noting that the circumstances in which English learning and teaching take place vary greatly from university to university. In better

universities students are typically well-motivated, and consequently both English teaching and learning are joyful. In contrast, at universities such as the Inner Mongolia University for the Nationalities, students' English scores are much lower than the national average, and their interest in English is generally also much lower. As a result, how to contend with their English fatigue has been a puzzle for some time. In order to make college English learning different from that of middle school and to arouse students' interest and curiosity, this university offers spoken English elective courses taught by native speaker teachers, with the objective of providing students with an environment in which they are able to utilize their English in a manner consistent with the output-driven hypothesis (Wen, 2008), sociocultural learning theory, and Dewey's theory. Access to a foreign teacher not only allows students to experience listening to a native speaker, but the instructor's limited Chinese makes the use of English even more necessary.

The spoken English elective course is a unique and important opportunity for students at the Inner Mongolia University for the Nationalities. In this region, only one or two students in a class of more than 50 students have ever met or had foreign teachers before attending university. For many years, students have attended and participated in classes where they memorized English grammar and vocabulary, without the opportunity to put this wealth of knowledge into practice. Unfortunately, many diligent students who can recite and identify hundreds of English words and who are able to comprehend intellectually demanding English texts, cringe at simple questions such as, "How are you?" It seems that what students have learned in the classroom does not relate to real life situations. For instance, every university student has learned "Thank you;" the answer to which is typically "You are welcome." However, when students communicate with native speakers in a real situation, they find that they are unable to answer correctly. For example, when a foreigner says, "thank you," some students will answer, "no thank you;" which is a direct translation of the appropriate response in their own language.

Theoretical Background

This pilot curriculum was inspired by three prominent theories of learning: the output-driven hypothesis, sociocultural theory, and Dewey's learning-by-doing theory.

The Output-driven Hypothesis

Wen Qiufang (2008) proposed the output-driven hypothesis. This hypothesis mainly emphasizes the importance of output in language learning. The general idea is three-fold: psychological perspective, the perspective of the needs of the contemporary job market, and the perspective of language learning.

The Sociocultural theory

The sociocultural theory emphasizes the importance of interaction for learning, especially a particular kind of interaction. It has been suggested that in any interaction between an expert (e.g. a parent or a teacher) and a novice (e.g. a child or a student), that the expert carefully provides the assistance needed to suit the specific needs of the novice. This assistance has been referred to in the literature as 'scaffolding' (Wood et al., 1976). In the field of second language research, studies have shown that such scaffolding can occur not only in teacher-learner interaction (e.g. Aljaafreh and Lantolf, 1994), but also in peer interaction when learners work in small groups or pairs. Bruner's Scaffolding Theory, an expansion of Vgotsky's ZPD, explains this idea metaphorically as a scaffold that is slowly removed as the individual learner's ability increases and is able to have full control in completing a given task. When scaffolding is provided by a teacher, it requires the teacher to carry out parts of the overall task that the student cannot

yet manage (Collins et al., 1989). Scaffolding refers to support provided so that the learner can engage in activities that would otherwise be beyond their abilities (Jackson, et al., 1998, p. 187).

Dewey's theory

Dewey (1859-1952) believed that education is life itself, and knowledge is the experience of life. As such, education should require that students learn from life and acquire knowledge through solving real life problems. Dewey also believed that students are active, not passive learners. Students must participate in activities in which they can integrate their understanding of knowledge and problem-solving experiences in real life. According to Dewey's theory (1902), teachers have two functions. One is that teachers should create authentic opportunities for students to solve real life problems. The other function is for teachers to participate as members of the learning community.

The Design of Classroom Curriculum

Classroom curriculum is inspired by the above theories. Firstly, according to the output-driven hypothesis (Wen, 2008), the teaching process is like this:

1. The teacher must design authentic and suitable materials for the students' output;
2. The teacher must provide the new materials needed for studying and understanding the tasks;
3. The teacher must provide the students with some help needed for output;
4. The teacher must give students some feedback; students try completing the tasks;
5. Students seek and learn new materials; students are ready for the output;
6. Students make a presentation and enjoy the outcomes.

Secondly, some classes are based on the theory of Vygotsky's Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) that is the gap between what students can do on their own and what they are not yet able to do by themselves. Teachers provide scaffolding to help students move from what they already know across the gap of what they do know until they are able to do what they once could not.) (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 90). Finally, according to Dewey's theory, in order to challenge the students to use their English, it is necessary to provide a context that allows a more individualistic experience. In groups, the teacher asks them to perform skits – once with just a general topic, another by giving each group four unconnected characters and a week to write and prepare for their performance.

“Self-Portrait Lesson”

Each student is asked to draw a self-portrait, and to give the following information about him or herself: their name, their hometown, their major, four things that they love, and lastly, what their dream is for the future. For the first class, both paper and markers were provided, encouraging the student's active participation. The teacher first demonstrates his or her own self-portrait, thereby creating a sense of camaraderie with the students. Students are asked to work on their portraits for about twenty minutes. While walking around the classroom correcting grammar, the teacher makes his or her best effort to speak with each student. Then, when the students are finished with their portraits, the teacher instructs them to get into pairs and introduce themselves, asking questions about the other's portrait. During this activity, students are forced to practice their introduction and ask questions. The next part of the activity, students are asked to come to the front of the class and introduce their partners.

“Family Lesson”

The second lesson is a continuation of the introduction theme and leading questions. This is the “Family Lesson” which many students find interesting because the teacher presents both American familial

cultural norms, as well as personal insights into his/her own family. First, the teacher introduces some general facts about families in America. He/She chooses these facts because he/she knows that the statistics differ from family facts about China, for example “50% of marriages in America end in divorce.” These facts allow the students to open a discussion, comparing and contrasting America and China. Then the teacher introduces family vocabulary; some words are a review, and some words the students have never seen before, such as “half-brother” and “step-father.” These words are also interesting because often they are more commonly used in America than in China, due to the differing family dynamics in each country, which usually leads to interesting questions posed about America and China.

“Family Tree”

Next the teacher demonstrates how to make a family tree, using his/her own family (complete with pictures) as an example. This activity allows the student to get to know more about the teacher, while also practicing their own skills. He/she asks the students to work with a partner and pretend they are meeting for the first time, asking questions about the other’s family in order to “get to know” them better. Each student is then required to share his or her answers with the class. After each student presents, the teacher wraps the class up with a “fly-swatter” game where the teacher writes the vocabulary on the chalk board, has two students come to the front of the class, and read the definition of a word. The first student who hits the word gets one point for their team, which encourages rowdy participation and excitement. The most enthusiastic reaction, from the winning team, is when the losing team has to sing the ABC’s.

In each case the teachers try to make the lesson interesting and informative, covering necessary English grammar, comprehension, and important cultural topics which have included: family, restaurants/food, weather, travel, directions, time, physical characteristics, Halloween, the Presidential election, Thanksgiving, Christmas, and pronunciation. The aim is not only to improve English skills, but also to make it more interesting for the students. If time permits, even more popular culture, including music, art, and current events, are included in the curriculum. These topics have been taught through songs, articles, the Lipson Method, sentence strips, games, pictures, maps, drawing, and presentations.

The Different Teaching Styles

The teaching styles of the foreign teachers are significantly different from those of their local counterparts. As one native English speaker teachers said, “The content of my course always varies, on any given day, and my class is quite unlike other courses that my students take. I have never attended school in China, so I teach as, I suppose, an American class would be taught. I grade based on attendance, participation, and do not weigh the final exam too heavily. I expect students to ask questions often, speak loudly, and take notes on what we learn. Even if my methods are no better than any others’, they are different, and variety in educational methods is something that Chinese students seem to be aching for”.

It is not easy to have a free conversation in a foreign language, so the native English teachers usually give the students two things: preparation time and vocabulary. With these tools, a level of conversation can eventually be achieved. A topic is provided and the native English teachers provide a worksheet for the students to read with the native English teacher at the beginning of class. By mimicking her/his pronunciation and visualizing new words specific to that topic, they review the English they will need to participate. The worksheet also acts as a reference, so that every student can join in the conversation.

The conversational model is expanded to include a short speech from each student. Often, these speeches incorporate a creative approach: students prepare not only by writing, but also by drawing a

picture, such as a superhero, a Halloween costume, or an ideal country. During the second half of class, students individually present their pictures and their speeches to the rest of the class.

On other occasions the students work in groups to prepare a short skit or role-play. With preparation time, a worksheet full of useful vocabulary, and a native speaker in the room to help them along, they are given the task of combining those words and phrases with their own unique thoughts to create a short performance for their classmates. The more confident the students are about their English skills, the more successful these skits are, but even the worst performance is a great learning experience for them.

The Characteristics of the English Spoken Elective Course

The elective English course is a more intense oral English language course. Instruction by a native English speaker allows the students to immerse themselves in oral practice as well as an intense cultural experience. Language and culture are viewed as inseparable, and language is considered as a major cognitive tool in the socialization process. This principle accords with Vygotsky's view of language as an important symbolic tool that mediates people's mental and social activities. To master a foreign language is also to know the unique idiosyncrasies of dialect, pronunciation, intonation, and slang usage.

Authentic Language and Culture

The biggest advantage that a native English speaker teacher has over Chinese teachers is that a native English speaker has an academic sense of the language, as well as everyday use of the language. They also understand the language within the context of the American culture. Language and culture cannot be separated because culture gives meaning to the words that are being spoken. Besides, non-verbal communication is very important in cross-cultural communication. Teaching methods such as oral conversation, role-playing, music appreciation, and group interaction are provided in an authentic environment. Cultural exchange is one of the most important aspects of having a foreign teacher.

They use a lot of authentic materials, such as pictures of their families, their way of celebrating the holidays. As Halloween comes, they put on costumes and masks. In the week of Thanksgiving Day, they introduce the history of Thanksgiving Day and compare the first Thanksgiving with a modern Thanksgiving. When Christmas Day comes, they wear a Christmas (Santa) hat and the decoration. When they introduce something about cowboys, they wear cowboy boots and a cowboy hat, etc.

Challenging Experiences

Regarding the elective English course at this university, Marguerite, remarked:

For many students this can also be a special experience, for never before have they been forced to speak English in front of an audience. In their middle school English classes, the chances of having to actually speak English within the classroom are severely limited. On the first day of a spoken English elective class, most students are as worried as they are excited. There is only one teacher standing at the front of the room, and s/he doesn't speak Chinese. Their eyes widen as if to ask, "Will I be able to communicate with her/him?" or "How can I have a teacher who doesn't speak our language?" But those who persist soon realize that this challenge is only to their benefit. Every student has some difficulty with English and some doubts or nervousness about their ability to express themselves in a foreign language. They are forced to work through every embarrassing and uncomfortable moment that a language learner so often faces, and try their best. It is the closest these students will get to being immersed in an English-speaking environment,

and it is as rewarding for them as it is difficult. In such a setting, even the shyest students will little by little gain confidence and fluency.

Problems in the English Spoken Elective Course

Although the students benefit a lot from the spoken English Elective course, some problems still need further exploration:

The Character of the Native Speaker Teacher

The character of native speaker teachers is vital. Not all the native speakers have TESL certificates or are necessarily good teachers. In society it is believed that untrained native-speakers of English are better than trained non-native speakers because of the belief that the native-speakers will use 'Standard English' and thus provide appropriate linguistic models for their students. However, when a native speaker teacher does not speak clearly or loudly enough, it is quite another story. When s/he is not active, the classroom atmosphere is inactive, which causes the students to regard it as a waste of time.

Students' Attitudes Towards the Spoken English Elective Course

In most universities, a trend among students to choose elective courses is that they are easy to obtain academic credit. Students' attitudes play a very important role in their learning. Some students choose such courses because they think they can skip classes while still receiving credit. Those students who sit in the front row have usually chosen the class on their own. Similarly some Mongolian students choose these classes out of curiosity, but encounter difficulty in understanding the teacher and thus gradually lose interest. Other students have little or no interest in doing any work to improve their spoken English and take the class only because all the other elective courses are unavailable.

Students' English at All Levels

These classes pose a real challenge because they consist of students in their different years at the university, with different levels of English. In addition, some of these students have had a foreign teacher before and some have not. The teachers are left with the challenge of creating activities that are appropriate for all the levels in the class. It is difficult to get all levels of students to actively participate.

Conclusion

The spoken English elective course has been offered for five years at the Inner Mongolia University for the Nationalities. Although there are some problems with the spoken English elective course, it is generally believed that the spoken English elective course taught by native speakers has stimulated students' curiosity and has kept English learning as fresh as possible, which in turn has sparked students' interest and has encouraged greater participation. The native speakers use Standard English to create an authentic speaking environment and provide authentic materials about their cultures. Ideally, the course should improve oral fluency every bit as much as it does listening comprehension. Students in this course face many exciting challenges. Those who attend class regularly find that their listening and speaking skills have improved, and their interest in learning English has increased.

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An Action Research on Improving the Quality of Vocabulary Learning of Non-English Majors

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[Abstract] *This article describes an action research that lasted for three semesters on improving the quality of vocabulary learning of non-English majors. Students underwent a gradual shift from passive vocabulary learning to active, collaborative learning, while the teacher gained valuable teaching experience. Action research proved to be an effective method for improving attitudes and practice of both students and teachers.*

[Keywords] *vocabulary learning; action research; collaborative learning; evaluation system*

Introduction

In 2012, the author was honored to participate in the sixth Chinese foreign language education project: The Action Research on Class Teaching and the Teachers' Professional Development. As a member of this team, the author took part in a discussion on the classroom teaching, learning the theory of action research. This paper tries to use the theory of action research and the skills of vocabulary acquisition to conduct an action research on vocabulary teaching, and also aims to illustrate how to make the non-English major students grasp the methods and skills of vocabulary acquisition to improve the quality of vocabulary learning. The subjects of the author's study are students in Class A, which includes the following majors: Ideological and Political Education, History and Educational Technology. The study lasted for 3 semesters from the end of August 2012 to the end of November 2013.

The Action Research of the First Semester

The Problems

The importance of vocabulary learning was increasingly realized, so the author put great emphasis on vocabulary teaching while finishing all the other assigned teaching tasks. After careful observation of students' performance in class and the feedback information from the questionnaire and interview, the author concluded that three basic problems should be solved in this semester:

- How to change students' attitude in learning English.
- How to use the dictionary correctly and effectively.
- How to expand the vocabulary and how to use the vocabulary appropriately.

Attitude is everything. To some extent, a learner's motivation in learning a foreign language will decide his attitude. Learning motivation can be classified into integrative motivation and instrumental motivation. The learner with integrative motivation is willing to communicate with the native speakers and has a strong interest in the national culture, history, etc. that are related to the target language. With these interests in mind, the learners with integrative motivation can exceed those with instrumental

motivation in the following aspects: learning enthusiasm, intensity and persistence. The learner with instrumental motivation learns the second language for a certain practical effect, such as passing a certain English level test. Because these students are driven by objective requirements, they lose the desire for learning immediately after the objective environment changes. Taking all these factors into consideration, the author assumes that most students belong to the category of passive learners with instrumental motivation in mind. They have been studying hard not actively but passively, because they only want to pass the college entrance examination successfully and choose ideal universities. Currently, students have no more pressure, so some of them only accept the knowledge passively and never learn any additional knowledge actively.

Using a dictionary correctly embodies the learner's independent learning strategy and promotes effectively vocabulary learning as well. After observing and interviewing the students, the author finds that some students have no dictionary and some of them have no idea about the use of a dictionary. A number of students feel confused when facing various dictionaries and are not clear about the way of memorizing words in the dictionary.

Most of the students in class A have learned English about ten years, and have grasped numerous vocabularies. The author concludes that there are several problems in their vocabulary application:

- They seldom know how to use the new words correctly and the usage rate of them is low.
- They lack the ability to distinguish the meaning of some synonyms.
- They do not learn the word in a multidimensional way.

Solutions to these Problems

In the teaching process of the first semester, the author took some corresponding measures to solve these three problems. There were some solutions to students' learning attitude. On the one hand, students with integrative motivation in mind had the enthusiasm and keen interests in English learning, so their attitudes were positive. On the other hand, the students with instrumental motivation needed to be set some new targets after losing their original one.

In order to help students choose the proper dictionary and understand the significance of learning vocabularies, the author took the following actions: First, the teacher helped students choose a proper dictionary. The author suggested the students keep an English-English dictionary in the dormitory to develop their English way of thinking and download an electronic dictionary on their cell phones. Secondly, the teacher instructed students to consult dictionaries correctly. For example, the students should guess the meaning of the unfamiliar words according to the context instead of consulting the dictionary. Inferring vocabulary meaning from context is an essential strategy for developing reading comprehension and promoting lexical acquisition and is commonly employed by successful language learners (Hunt & Beglar, 2005). Thirdly, the author suggested that the students should learn the information of collocation, grammar pattern and usages associated with the new word from the examples offered by the dictionary.

Several solutions were used to the application of vocabulary. In the class reading activities, the author taught some words before the real reading activities and laid emphasis on activating the potential and learned knowledge of vocabulary and left some unfamiliar words unexplained to train the students' ability to guess the meaning of words. The author also introduced the multidimensional method of learning vocabularies to students to stimulate their interests in learning vocabularies independently.

Specifically, the author intentionally explained the knowledge of etymology, word-formation and semantic change intentionally and made full use of the strategies such as distinguishing synonyms and using the method of induction in learning vocabulary. For instance, the prefix *ex-* means “out” or “former”. Many new words can be formed by adding *ex-* to some words at the beginning. Take the word “extend” and “export” for example. “Extend” can be compared with “expand” in meaning and then the families of these two words can also easily be found: extensive and expansive; extension and expansion. The word “export”, “*ex-*” is the prefix and “port” is the root. The opposite prefix of *ex-* is in (m)-, so the opposite of “export” is “import”. We can also form a number of new words by using the root “port”, such as transport, porter, airport, passport, etc.

At this stage, the expanding process of vocabulary usually combines with the teaching of intensive reading. Vocabulary is no longer a primary classroom focus, something to be taught and tested; but rather, something to be acquired incidentally by the student while reading (Knight, 1994). It is essential to cultivate students’ sustained reading ability which allows students to do reading exercises after class so that vocabulary learning can be achieved naturally.

The Action Research of the Second Semester

Reflection and Research

Reflecting on the action research conducted last semester, the author found that the students’ attitudes greatly improved and their enthusiasms for English learning were significantly inspired. In addition, students’ vocabularies were broadening gradually because they grasped the methods of expanding vocabularies. During the research, the author read several articles on classroom teaching, of which many mentioned the importance of collaborative learning and group activities in class. Cooperative teams achieve at higher levels of thought and retain information longer than learners who work quietly as individuals (Johnson & Johnson, 1986). Not only will collaborative learning increase the chances for students to practice and use English, but will also improve the effect of classroom teaching. After analyzing the class, the author realized that the large class is very suitable for the group learning and cooperative learning mode. Moreover, students should be assigned homework before class and practice English more after class, so it is necessary for them to prepare a notebook to take some notes or keep a self-reflection in their diaries. The author needs to improve on these points.

Actions and Reforms

The students were aware of the importance of their goal, enthusiasm and initiative in learning a second language, but they seemed to lack motivation. The author divided the class into eleven small groups which were based on students’ academic performance. In order to develop the students’ sense of fair competition and arouse participation enthusiasm in teaching activities, the members of each small group were numbered from No. 1 to No. 6. Therefore, there would be a competition among all the same numbers of each group. Each small group chose its group leader, and the leader played an important part in supervision and organization. In order to give the opportunity to each student to show his leadership talents and learn how to cooperate with other team members, the six students in the same group took turns at being the leader. The teacher conducted evaluations on each student and the achievements of each student represented the results of the whole group. The group activities were translation exercises, the performances of modern dramas, vocabulary tests, etc.

In order to make full use of after-class time, the teacher asked the students to read an English article chosen by the teacher each week. When students found new words or difficulties while reading the articles, they would refer to them in the dictionary and take notes or write self-reflection diaries. In class they would discuss their problems and share what they had learned in their work. This was very helpful for them to understand the cultures of English-spoken countries and learn vocabularies.

The Action Research of the Third Semester

Reflection and Research

The students experienced college English study for a whole year and they were given two tests on vocabulary and reading comprehension. Thus the author uses the following two tables to describe the students' improvement in learning vocabulary.

Table 1. *The Specific Description on Students' Scores*

Scores		100-90	90-80	80-70	70-60
Number of students (65)	1 st test	0	6	32	27
	2 nd test	0	11	45	9
Percentage	1 st test	0.00	9.23	49.23	41.54
	2 nd test	0.00	16.92	69.23	13.85

Table 2. *Further Analysis on Students' Scores*

	Average Scores	Standard Deviation	Highest Scores	Lowest Scores
1 st test	71.20	6.57	85	60
2 nd test	74.78	5.34	88	60

Table 1 and Table 2 list the results of the two tests used during the last two semesters and their concreteness scores. The first test was taken at the beginning of the first semester and the second test was taken at the end of the second semester. Vocabulary structure, reading comprehension, cloze, Chinese-English translation and writing were included on both tests. The degree of difficulty on both tests was the same, so the tests could measure the improvement in students' vocabulary size and comprehensive ability in vocabulary application. The results of the two tests showed their enthusiasms in learning, vocabulary accumulation and application improved greatly. The relation between teacher and students and the cooperation among students became increasingly harmonious, which laid a solid foundation for further action research.

Reflecting on all the teaching activities, the author learned there were two obvious problems. The first problem was that the arrangements and instructions for group activities were not specific. Some of the members of the group could not participate in the drama. The second problem was that the quality of students' notes and reflections was quite different. The reason can be analyzed as follows: some students did not realize the significance of taking notes and writing reflections or some students had no idea about how to record these matters. As far as the whole group work was concerned, students achieved great improvement in many aspects, but the evaluation system was not specific.

Actions and Reforms

The author considers two aspects that should be improved. For one thing, the topic or material must be suitable for group activities and be connected with the text. When the teacher assigns a task to the group,

the instructions must be very clear and specific. Only in this way can each member of the group participate in the activities and share the feeling of success or failure of the group work. For another thing, the evaluation system on students' performance must be perfected.

First, the individual accountability in the group activity needs to be clarified. There are many corresponding evaluation measures. For example, the teacher can choose one member of each group randomly to check the assigned task, which can avoid the following situation: all tasks belong to the students whose English is excellent. The full evaluation marks given to each performance of the group activity are 7. The teacher gives the different marks on the performance of each group every time. At the end of the semester, the average marks of each group are the group marks which belong to every member of the group.

Secondly, members of the group should evaluate each other's performance after each group activity. Each member needs to spend the last five minutes in an energetic exchange evaluating each other's performance, participation, and contribution to the group work using a 0.01-3.00 scale. The average marks of the total are the individual performance marks.

Thirdly, evaluation criteria are also set on reading and reciting notes and self-reflection diaries. The written records are 0.1-3.0 marks which are given by the teacher. At the end of the semester, the teacher designs a test for the students on the basis of their notes and diaries on a scale of 0.1-7.0. The final marks for a student are 100, among which are 10% class attendance, 10% written record, 10% oral English test, 10% Longman English Interactive and 60% final examination. There is hardly any absence in the author's class, so the 10% class attendance is given to the group performance.

A better stimulating system can promote the learning enthusiasm of students. What's more, the final marks of the students are fairer than before, because they can earn their marks through their efforts.

Conclusion

Vocabulary acquisition is very vital for the learners of a second-language to have a good command of the foreign language. The author made this research on the basis of the teaching assignment and research of vocabulary acquisition for non-English majors. During the research, the author carefully observed the actions of the students and collected data of students' progress. In addition, the author sincerely communicated with the students to find the problems that occur in the process of language learning. After finding the problems, the author referred to some related materials and formulated action plans for the next steps. The author recorded not only the students' progress in the self-reflection log but also the problems and findings of it. I learned a tremendous amount about the learning styles and preferences of my students and understood much better what the difficulties were for them (Burns, 2011). It is a huge pleasure for a teacher to witness the gradual improvements of the students. The whole action research is also a process of teacher's self-improvement.

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Are English Teachers Using English Learning Strategy Training in High Schools? An Investigation in Western China

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[Abstract] *This paper reported an investigation about the conduction of English learning strategies training (ELST) in three high schools of Chengdu City. The results indicated that the students had strong motivation to learn English well but they did not know relevant learning strategies. Most English teachers did not conduct strategies training in or out of class. This paper presented the analysis of the results and provided related solutions for making efficient strategy training in high school English teaching.*

[Keywords] *English learning strategies (ELS), English learning strategies training (ELST), English learning and teaching in high school*

Introduction

English Learning Strategies Training (ELST) has been a hot topic in the past two decades (Hua, 2002). Researches on ELST indicate its effectiveness in promoting English learners' abilities in using various learning strategies to facilitate their English learning (Ji, 2002; Wang, 2002; Tan & Wei, 2002; Su, 2003; Yang, 2003; Kong, 2004; Zhang, 2005), which sets good examples to conducting ELST in high schools. With the implementation of the new English courses in high schools throughout China from 2003, students' English learning strategies training have been put to a significant position. *Standards of English Course for Full-Time Compulsory Education & Common Senior High school (Trial Edition)* stresses, "In the process of English teaching, teachers should be aware of the formation of students' individualized English learning strategies and the cultivation of abilities in self-adjusting their strategies. ...the effective employment of English learning strategies contributes not only to improving students' learning efficiency but also to forming their autonomous learning abilities, which lays a solid foundation for their life-long learning" (The Ministry of Education of P.R.C, 2003, p. 23). It is evident that high school English teachers have the task of conducting ELST to cultivate their students' English learning strategies (Liu et al., 2004). But are they ready for ELST, especially those from high schools of Western China? How about ELST in those schools? This paper will make detailed discussions about those questions.

Research Design

This paper will address the following questions:

1. Do English teachers know about ELST?
2. Do they conduct ELST?
3. What problems there exist in ELST? Why? How to solve them?

The subjects involved in this investigation were 200 students and 43 English teachers from Jindu Junior High school, Jindu Senior High school (common senior high school) and Xindu Senior High school (national key senior high school). Six teachers were chosen to be involved in the class observation. Ten English teachers (including the six teachers taking part in class observation) and 30 students were selected randomly to join in the interview.

A questionnaire was the chief instrument to collect data. Interview and class observation were also used to aid the data collection. The questionnaires for students were completed by subjects in class. The teacher questionnaires were finished in the plenary study for English teachers. The author administered the whole process. 243 questionnaires were handed out, among which 240 were collected. Among the collected questionnaires, eight of them were considered to be invalid ones due to various reasons such as submitting blank papers, leaving questions with blanks and choose more than one response in the same question, i.e. 232 valid questionnaires were obtained.

Findings of the Research

Students' Voice: High Motivation to Learn English, Rare Input of English Learning Strategies

The results of students' questionnaire indicated that: (1) 88.6% students had high motivation to learn English but they were confused at how to learn it efficiently. It showed that they were lacking in ELST, at least they didn't know some often-used strategies; (2) 78.5% teachers never introduced the learning methods to their students, i.e., most teachers never conducted ELST in their daily teaching; (3) 53.4% English teachers never organized any kind of activities in class. 46.6% teachers organized activities but 63.5% of them never discussed the purposes or achievements of the activities with their students; (4) students hardly had access to receive the metacognitive strategies training, a core part in ELST. 86.5% teachers never introduced how to make learning plans to their students; (5) only 15.9% teachers ever made assessments of learning strategies they introduced to their students. Voices from students warned us that ELST was conducted unsystematically and inadequately in high schools in Western China. The evidences from the teachers make the same conclusion.

Teachers' Performance: No Systematic Conduction of ELST

It was found that 89% teachers knew little/no of ELST. 75.5% teachers never conducted ELST to help the students learn how to use learning strategies to improve their English, which was similar to the responses from the students. ELST was conducted in high schools inadequately.

In addition, the ELST was conducted unsystematically. Firstly, those teachers who ever conducted ELST, mainly focused more on the cognitive strategies training. Vocabulary strategies were favored by 89% teachers. 84% teachers placed more attention on the reading strategies and 82% introduced listening strategies to their students. But only 27% teachers ever taught students how to make learning plans, which was a good way to train students' metacognitive strategies. Secondly, there were no reflective activities in students' strategies training. 57.6% teachers never organized their students to reflect the activities in class, which has been proved by the students' data.

The data of questionnaires for teachers conveyed us 57% teachers made lectures on the introduction of ELS, such as how to memorize words, how to do reading comprehension and how to improve oral English. 27% told students how to make a study plan. 13.5% students pointed out that their English teachers indeed told them how to make a plan. But 84.1% students indicated that English teachers never made any assessments on how they put the strategies into practice. 79.8% teachers admitted they never evaluated strategies use by the students. 95% interviewed-students claimed that their English teachers told them how to recite English words and how to practise listening but they didn't show them concrete examples. They only mimicked what the teachers said without their administrations and assessments.

Eighty percent (80%) teachers regarded the conduction of activities as the tools to teach language points, neglecting the significant roles played by activities in the cultivation of students' learning strategies.

The following example is one extract of our observation:

Teaching materials: Unit 6 Mainly Revision in SEFC Book II

Teaching aims: (1) To practice dialogue in groups
(2) To learn language points.

Teaching procedures:

- Step 1: English teacher asks students to listen to the dialogue following the tape;
- Step 2: Students are told to read the dialogue following the tape;
- Step 3: Students practise the dialogue in peers;
- Step 4: Students are welcomed to perform the dialogue in the front;
- Step 5: English teacher explains the language points to the students.

This class should have been a dialogue-practice-focused class with supplementary language points concerned with it. But in fact nearly all the students were “reading” not creatively “practicing” dialogue. In addition, those who performed the dialogue in the front were “reciting” not “performing” the dialogue with difficulty and without teacher's guidance. In the whole process, I found that English teacher stood in the front and didn't give any comment on the students' performance or practice of the dialogue. After class, I interviewed the English teacher whether she paid attention to training her students' ELS. She answered, “Yes, I've done that. I cultivated their communication strategies by providing them with opportunities to practice and perform the dialogue” (Interview of Teacher A). From her remarks, it was observed this teacher's shallow understanding of employing activities to train students ELS.

The results of questionnaires also showed us 94.9% teachers didn't guide their students reflect what they did in the activities and what's the aim of the activities. 96.4% students pointed out their English teachers never organized them to reflect how they completed the activities after class. The findings from both the students and teachers convinced us that the teachers were not ready for the ELST and they were not able to conduct the systematic training in their teaching.

Discussions of the Findings

There are several reasons to explain the above findings as follows:

Teachers' Biased Understanding Towards ELST

It was found that 40% of the teachers had the idea that “ELST is like an experiment on students. Its efficacy hasn't been ascertained up till now. So the students are most likely the victims of it. Their marks of exams may be reduced by ELST” (Interview of Teacher B). 50% of the teachers reflected that “ELST can be adopted if it does improve the students' scores of exams.” In the interview, 70% of the teachers considered the proportion of passing entry exams to senior high schools or colleges as foci. They stated that their only task was to help students pass entry exams, which can't be realized by ELST.

Teachers' Inadequate knowledge about ELST

Ninety-six percent (96%) of the teachers in this study graduated from normal colleges/universities where the other 4% teachers ever received post-service normal education. 86.4% never learned the knowledge of

ELST in their college study. 7.2% only knew something about it. 6.4% of them claimed English teaching methodology was a compulsory course in their college English learning. Teachers introduced the systematic knowledge of ELST, including its concept, functions, aims and conduction. Teachers also recommended some related papers and books them.

Ninety-four percent (94.3%) teachers pointed out there was no ELST learning or the ELST training in the in-service study held by High school English Teaching and Research Institute (HSETRI). So it's clear that the HSETRI didn't play their parts in the in-service study. Burdened with life and teaching pressures, teachers have no spare time to learn ELST. In their spare time, teachers can only squeeze some time to study the language points of the teaching materials. 50% teachers agreed on the item of the questionnaire "I attach more attention on studying language points, neglecting how to teach them effectively".

In addition to the above reasons, the current biased evaluation system on teachers' work made teachers less care about teaching research, ELST included. Ten interviewed complained that the education administrative offices involve the teaching research and reform in the assessment system, and promise to give English teachers award if they do that, however the proportion of passing entry exams is still the most significant criterion to weigh the teachers' achievements, which cause the teachers to bury their heads into increase students marks of various tests at the expense of their motivation to conduct teaching researches and reforms.

Implications

Based on the above analysis, it is assumed that the following co-efforts by teachers and education administrations should be made to alter the present situation of inadequate ELST in high schools. For High school English Teaching and Research Institute (HSETRI), they should attach more emphasis on the introduction and instruction of ELST by means of in-service study. Experts on ELST are suggested being invited to make lectures on ELST for the teachers. HSETRI can organize teachers to study ELST in groups by handing out the materials on it. The teaching supervisor of HSETRI should give directions to the teachers when they administrate the performance and teaching qualities of English teachers in daily work. The knowledge of ELST should be complemented in the process of pre-service training for undergraduates in normal universities or colleges. Moreover, a rational and systematic evaluation system must involve the assessment of teachers' research on English classroom teaching. Teachers should be encouraged to do research on their English to improve the English teaching qualities. The proportion of passing the entry exams should be put to the second place, which can free the teachers from huge working pressure. Teachers could have time to conduct ELST, an effective way for cultivating students' English learning.

For English teachers, they should have overall understanding about ELST. The results of questionnaires for teachers told us that 40% English teachers rejected ELST, which in their eyes was disadvantageous for increasing students' marks. As a matter of fact, it isn't contradictory between increasing students' marks and conducting ELST to them. The final aim of ELST is to help students to master effective learning strategies, with which students can fasten their steps of English learning effectively. English learning strategies are beneficial to the formation of autonomous learning abilities, which brings the increase of students' competitive abilities and scores in entry exams. With more

knowledge about ELST, teachers should step forward to conduct it in their daily classroom teaching. The content of English teaching course should be added with introduction of ELST knowledge. It is the critical period for cultivating awareness and abilities in carrying out teaching research and reform of the students for future teachers in their college study.

Based on the literature on the models proposed by Oxford (1990), O'Malley & Chamot (1990), Weaver & Cohen (1997), Wen (2003), it is proposed the model in which integrated training is mainly adopted with the complement of intensive training and individualized training. Integrated training means that teachers can integrate ELST into the daily English teaching, select the proper strategies as the focus considering the content and train the students to use strategies chosen in the concrete learning materials. Lectures can be organized at the beginning of the new term, which is a good way of intensive training. According to the students' progress in strategies learning, teachers can make one-to-one direction after class (Liu et al, 2004). Metacognitive strategy training should be attached more importance to. Metacognitive strategy is a kind of management step to help learners grasp foreign languages, such as planning, monitoring, evaluating and information processing (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). Recent research on metacognitive strategies training proved that the students' learning awareness was raised and they learned how to adjust their English learning (Ji, 2002; Wang, 2002; Tan & Wei, 2002; Su, 2003; Yang, 2003). Reflective activities and evaluation should be involved in the training. Nowadays, the publishing houses produce more English teaching packages, including textbooks, CD-ROMs, exercise books etc. Teachers should take advantages of those packages to do ELST.

All in all, it is hoped that ELST is to be adopted in more classroom English teaching and more students can achieve more benefits from it.

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Part II:

Translation and Interpretation

A Study of Two Chinese Versions of *Uncle Tom's Cabin* from the Perspective of Skopos Theory

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[Abstract] Based on the Skopos theory, the thesis attempts to make a comparative study of the two Chinese versions of *Uncle Tom's Cabin* in different phases of Chinese history and indicates the two versions are acceptable, as they achieve the translation purpose and meet the expectation of readers at different times. Through the comparison, the author of the thesis concludes that various factors, such as the translator, the target readers, and the situation in the shaping of the translation should be given full consideration in the course of translation evaluation and judgment so as to make a more comprehensive and rational evaluation.

[Keywords] Skopos theories; *Uncle Tom's Cabin*; comparison; translation strategy

Introduction

Uncle Tom's Cabin, written by American woman novelist Harriet Beecher Stowe, is the first American novel translated into Chinese and is considered as an epoch-making, anti-slavery, and religious novel focusing on the miserable life of the black slaves and their struggles for freedom and making a vehement attack upon the slavery. Abraham Lincoln greeted Mrs. Stowe as “the little woman who wrote the book that made this great war” (qtd. in Huang, 1982, p. 1).

By now, there exist many Chinese versions of *Uncle Tom's Cabin*. Of all the versions available, the earliest version is made by Lin Shu and Wei Yi under the title of “*Heinu Yu Tian Lu*” (《黑奴吁天录》) published in 1901, and the earliest vernacular version is written by Huang Jizhong under the title of “*Tang Mu Dabo de Xiaowu*” (《汤姆大伯的小屋》) published in 1982. These two translators at different times adopt different translation strategies according to their own purposes, and the two versions have different styles, which lead to different effects. In general, the two versions are acceptable, as they achieve the translation purpose and meet the expectation of readers at different times.

Different Purposes of Author and Translators Under the Specific Social Background

Mrs. Stowe writes in her author's preface: “The object of these sketches is to awaken sympathy and feeling for the African race, as they exist among us; to show their wrongs and sorrows, under a system so necessarily cruel and unjust as to defeat and do away the good effects of all that can be attempted for them, by their best friends, under it” (1967, p. 11). Definitely, she wants to employ the novel to inspire American people to fight against the “cruel system” and to free “the African race” from its sufferings.

In the light of Skopos theory, “a translational action is determined by its Skopos; that is, ‘the end justifies the means’” (Nord, 2001, p. 29). Translators must translate “in accordance with some principle respecting the target text” (Vermeer, 1989, p. 228). Who decides what the principle is? According to Skopos theory, “translation is normally done ‘by assignment’” (Nord, 2001, p. 30). So, there stands a client who calls upon the translator for a translation and, thus, becomes the initiator of the translation process. As mentioned above, the initiator would give as many details as possible about the purpose, explaining the addressees, time, place, occasion, and medium of the intended communication and the

function the text is intended to have, i.e. the translation brief. The translation brief decides what kind of translation is needed. Therefore, actually, the initiator or the person playing the role of initiator (who might also be the translator) decides on the translation Skopos. So, here it is important to identify the initiator of the translation in order to have a further study from the perspective of Skopos theory.

One of Lin Shu's friends, Wei Yi, expert at English, borrowed the English novel *Uncle Tom's Cabin* and asked Lin Shu to translate it with him, and then they set to work at it instantly. Only two months later, they finished the whole translation of this book. In the case of this translation of *Uncle Tom's Cabin*, Lin Shu and Wei Yi acted as both initiator and translator and, thus, decided the translation skopos, content to translate, and the translation strategies, as well. In the 19th century, Chinese laborers were beguiled to build railroad in America, where they were severely discriminated against and maltreated as slaves. When economic crisis broke out in America, Chinese laborers were largely excluded and slaughtered. However, as the Qing government was fatuous and declining, it could not protect the Chinese people.

Under this social background, Lin Shu and Wei Yi translated this novel *Uncle Tom's Cabin*. Lin Shu expresses his skopos of translation in his preface, warning the Chinese of the great danger that our people may fall as slaves of the imperialists (1981, p. 1). In his postscript, he also claims that their aim of translating this book is not for winning the tears of the readers but for warning the Chinese people (1981, p. 206). It's quite explicit that they want to employ the novel to inspire the Chinese people to protect themselves, strengthen the country, and fight against the imperialists.

Huang Jizhong started to translate *Uncle Tom's Cabin* in 1956, seven years after the new republic was established. Everything was supposed to start a new beginning. Leaders of China were determined to build a new Chinese socialist culture. In 1956, the Hundred Flowers Policy was issued in order to bloom the business of literature and art in New China. Many writers were motivated to create literary works. Since there was no vernacular version of this novel yet, the classical Chinese in Lin's version was outdated and inappropriate to readers of the time. Huang was invited by Shanghai New Literature Press to translate it.

In this translation process, since Huang was invited by Shanghai New Literature Press to translate *Uncle Tom's Cabin*, the press played the role of initiator of the translational action. Huang just took the role of translator to receive the translation brief (the initiator's instructions) and produce a target text that they regard as functional in the sense that it meets the demands of the translation brief (Nord, 2001, p.21). That press later developed into Shanghai Translation Publishing House, incorporating the translation office of People's Literature Press. As the most important press publishing literature translation in China at that time and the government's voice, its translation skopos should be accordance with government's policy. Naturally, this translational action was regarded as a part of the business of literature and art in New China.

So Huang's translation Skopos is to introduce something new from other countries and to study the literary and artistic value of the novel instead of original political function, which can also be concluded from his preface. He expounded and proved its literary and artistic value, and, besides, he pointed out two defects in ideological content and artistic quality, to be exact, the air of religion and unbalanced clues (1982, pp.8-13). Therefore, Huang would retain the original content so as to make readers study the novel's true content and to understand the different style of the foreign writer.

Translators' Different Strategies in Translating the Aspect of Social Institution

According to Skopos theory, the intended purposes of the target text determine the translation strategies, and the criterion for translation evaluation is “adequacy” instead of “equivalence.” That is, translation should be adequate to the translation skopos. In this short article, the author will illustrate their different translation strategies in the aspect of social institution, attempting to give the translations a comprehensive and rational evaluation from the perspective of Skopos Theory.

Both Lin and Huang preserved the anti-slavery idea, and, besides, Lin Shu even reinforced it in his translation to serve the skopos of inspiring the Chinese people to fight against imperialists. So when translating contents about slavery, they employed different methods to fulfill their intended skopos: Lin's deletion and addition vs. Huang's retention. With the aim of highlighting the miserable life of black slaves and arousing the Chinese people's patriotic enthusiasm, Lin Shu deleted some contents about the happy life of black slaves and their kind treatment given by their holders; he added some descriptions about the misery of slaves and cruelty of slaveholders and slavery.

The following examples will list some contents about slavery that Lin Shu deleted or added while Huang retained:

(1) There's a typical example in Chapter 4, entitled “An Evening in Uncle Tom's Cabin.” This chapter in the original novel occupies more than 10 pages describing the happy life of Tom's family, and Huang's version is a full translation, occupying 13 pages and a half, but Lin Shu abridged this chapter into one page, deleting lots of descriptions about how well Uncle Tom, Aunt Chloe, and their young master George Shelby get along with each other, and how the slaves hold a happy religious meeting. In Lin Shu's version, there're only several sentences describing the happiness of Uncle Tom's family life:

以解而培夫妇仁爱，克鲁夫妇亦欢聚，有天伦之乐。汤姆常受学于主人之子名乔治者，所以稍能读书。乔治亦甚昵之，不以常奴齿。一日傍晚，汤姆为邻人延饮，宾主歌呼，方极酣嬉，而丧败意致之事至矣。(pp.12-13)

Ms. Stowe's descriptions about Tom's happy life give readers an impression that black slaves can also live a happy life like white people, and there's also equal and harmonious relationship between slaves and slaveholders. For Lin Shu's skopos, these contents don't function; on the contrary, they would hinder the fulfillment of his intended skopos, so he deleted the most part of them without any hesitation.

Lin deleted other contents about slaves' kind treatment, like “well fed, well cleaned, tended and looked after” and Eliza's wedding ceremony in her mistress's great parlor etc. Addition and adaptation are used often in Lin's translation. Some example will be cited here:

(2) The original: (Harry) he says “Well, you'll let me have the boy though,”; “you must own I've come down pretty handsomely for him” (p.16).

Huang's version: “好吧，那你总得把那个孩子给我罗，”海利道。“你不能不承认，我已经对你作了很大的让步了吧。”(p. 6).

Lin's version: “海留颜色顿异，忽大声咤曰：‘此雏奴吾必将去!’”(p. 4).

(3) Before Haley takes Tom away, he threatens Tom not to escape: “and mind yerself,” said the trader, “and don't come it over your master with any o'yer nigger tricks; for I'll take every cent out of him, if you an't thar. If he'd hear to me, he wouldn't trust any on ye – slippery as eels! (p. 61).

Huang's version: “你可得小心点，”那黑奴贩子说，“别跟你家老爷耍什么鬼把戏；要是你不在这儿，我可要叫他倾家荡产。要是他听我话，他就不会相信你们。一个个都跟泥鳅那么滑。”(p. 72).

Lin's version: “尔敢萌异心, 骤图窜逸者, 我将尽擢尔筋, 俾不立于地上” (p. 26).

(4) Tom Locker, a slave trader, shows off his way dealing with a woman slave who's unwilling to sell her young child: threatening by his fist. Besides translating this, Lin Shu added, “若敢以言支饰, 吾必使尔自省无必生之路.” “吾历来贩奴, 咸如市家具, 沽活计, 无一奴敢自明为人类” (Lin, p. 30).

(5) The original: “What on earth can you want with the child?” said Shelby (p. 16).

Huang's version: “你到底要那孩子作什么用啊?” 谢尔贝问道 (p. 6).

Lin's version: 解而培曰: “天下竟有蛮武如此, 可以强夺人奴者!” (p. 4).

From these examples above, Chinese readers will know that slaves were deprived of personal freedom and even persecuted by slaveholders at all times. To serve his skopos, Lin Shu enhanced the description of inhuman treatment given to black slaves to arouse readers' hatred to slaveholders and inspire their fighting spirit. Associating those slaves with themselves under the suppression of the imperialism, the Chinese people would be stimulated into hostility towards the imperialist powers. As for Huang Jizhong's times, there's not such national danger as Lin Shu's times, so Huang rendered the contents about slavery faithfully without any deletion or addition so as to fulfill his skopos of faithful conveyance.

Conclusion

There are no universal canons according to which texts can be assessed (Bassnett, 2004, p. 18), so it is unwise to set a universal criterion to judge all translations. In order to be objective, translation scholars should carry out the evaluation of translation in a larger context; that is, influence of other factors, such as the purpose of translation, the target audience and the situation in which the translation is produced should be taken into consideration. This thesis expects to give some enlightenment in assessing translation especially when assessing complex or controversial translations.

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The Essence of Value Judgment of Translation Criteria

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[Abstract] *Some leading translation criteria at home and abroad are analyzed. The essence of translation activities is illustrated, and the core of translation criteria is forwarded, which can be regarded as a kind of value judgment. Based on the above views, it is concluded that the translation standard for the translated text corresponding to the original text should be an infinite closeness.*

[Keywords] *translation criteria; value judgment; essence*

Introduction

For about a century, linguistic scholars and researchers have been studying translation in order to work out a translation standard or a series of translation criteria by which translation can scientifically or truthfully be assessed and evaluated. So far, no such a standard or criterion has ever been worked out. Generalized translation criteria workable for the conversion of all languages can be worked out only when one focuses on the true nature of the translation.

As for translation, it has experienced three major phases: 1) the phase of the study of traditional verbal text, whose features are the comprehension of the translation through practical experience; the definition of translation is often analogical; 2) the phase of modern linguistics, whose features are the focus of language equivalence; 3) the phase of contemporary multidisciplinary analysis, whose features are the review of translation in multiple perspectives, and translation is defined from quite a few perspectives, including culturology, sociality, semiotics, and psychology (Xie, et al., 2009).

As far as translation criteria are concerned, there have been quite a few criteria prevailing over the translation activities in China for a long time, which can be regarded as standards, criteria, notions, approaches, philosophical ideas, etc. However, up until recent days, there have been no qualitative, quantitative, specifically defined or, rather, scientifically defined criteria to guide translation activities and practice and assess the translated work. Therefore, the desire for generalized translation criteria is very much expected. However, from the overall perspectives, three leading representative translation standards—the reference Chinese people gained from Yan Fu’s “Faithfulness, Expressiveness and Elegance” (taken from *Preface to Evolution and Ethics*) and the “dynamic equivalence” and “functional equivalence” put forward by Eugene A. Nida – become the focus of the study of translation standards, whose ultimate goal is to pursue an objective, scientific, unified standard of translation. Yan’s standard has the feature of methodology with its objectiveness, direction, normalization, and logical entirety, while dynamic equivalence (later known as functional equivalence) attempts to convey the thought expressed in a source text (if necessary, at the expense of literalness, original word order, and the source text’s grammatical voice, etc.). A translation of dynamic equivalence aims at complete naturalness of expression

and tries to relate the receptor to modes of behavior relevant within the context of the translator's own culture; it does not insist that he understand the cultural patterns of the source language context in order to comprehend the message. Nida describes functional equivalence like this: Basically, dynamic equivalence has been described in terms of functional equivalence. The translation has been defined on the basis that the receptors of a translation should comprehend the translated text to such an extent that they understand how the original receptors must have understood the original text (Nida, 1969). However, these leading translation principles and criteria that govern and regulate the translation activities at home and abroad are considered partial and incomplete.

For translation activities, it can be a kind of surreal idea to have a unified standard to evaluate the quality of translation for the reason that it is hard for such a standard to cover every discipline with everything considered, with connotation rich in detail, and with a general standard well outlined. For the translation activity, however, there is no specified principle to follow. However, it has been proved that there has always been an invisible and intangible scale in measuring the translation activities from different perspectives. To get it down to something specific, one has to answer the questions as follows: What is the nature of the translation activity? What is the core of translation standards? The answers to these questions can very much help to reveal the truthfulness of the translation standard.

The essence of translation activities is the conversion from the source language to the target language. This process takes the level of language into account, and, at the same time, it also considers something beyond the language level. It emphasizes not only the communication between source language and target language, but also mutual infiltration and interaction, and from the perspective of art it makes an option of decorations and modifiers; all of these processes are cognitive, thinking, and conversing processes that are not governed by one's will.

The Essence of Translation Activities

Translation is not only a semiosis transfer between languages, but also a kind of social behavior. Every translator is restricted by social and cultural context and by different kinds of power discourse manipulation. The relationship between ideal interpretant and object should be identical to the relationship between representamen and object, but this ideal can never be achieved because of the fact that in the semiosis of human activities, an interpretant explains the meaning of representamen definitely through people—interpreters. One's knowledge can never be absolutely right, and the understanding of the real world can only be suitable for the reality of the world. As a result, the relations between the interpretant and the representamen cannot be identical. More often than not (frequently), it is necessary to make an adjustment (He, et al., 2009. p. 7).

Nature is to reflect the nature of things, which is to make a concise and definite statement to the essential characteristics of or the connotation and denotation of a thing. However, the theoretical basis is based upon the subject philosophy of epistemology by the traditional translation. The philosopher thinks of people as the subject of cognition and the world beyond as the object and that people understand the objective world by the external tool of language. Hence, people require language be a mirror to reflect the image of thoughts, and then language is taken as a closed system of self-sufficiency, a very effective tool. As long as the right approach is adopted, everyone can accurately grasp the objective object through language. Under the guidance of this understanding, natural science gains the soaring development, but it also makes people believe in language, leading to form a scientific view of language. The concept of language is also used to explain literary phenomenon and to guide the translation activities. This view is

applied to the illustration of literary phenomena and the instruction of translation activities. The translation principles, such as so-called “faithfulness” and “equivalence,” come into being, taking the original text as an object with fixed significance as the faithful reflection of the intentions of author’s original text.

In different historical periods, as well as in different historical stages, the same book with different translations is quite normal. That is why some western scholars think that translation is actually a kind of rewriting rather than imitating, much less a version. That is to say, the so-called “loyalty” and “faithfulness” is a kind of ideal that does not exist. As to the different text in nature, translating does not follow the same regulation. Scientific text requires accuracy, which should be able to be achieved, because science language is a kind of clear meaning of the relationship between the signifier and the signified. Scientific language expels ambiguity and vagueness, refuses the multiple interpretations of literary language and infinite connections, and tries to reduce meaningfulness, namely the same meaning, to different readers. An applied text focuses more on the communicative functions of language than on the practical level, sometimes with the accepted cultural to be considered. So, as for so-called the principle of faithfulness, it is not equivalent word for word but is to the same effect. As to the literary text, its language is more focused on the expression of its function with a strong subjective feature.

Furthermore, each language has uniqueness, which is known as Culture-Specific Items (Aixelá: 1996). According to Newmark, culture-bound terms, whether single-unit lexemes, phrases, or collocations are those which are particularly tied to the way of life and its manifestations that are peculiar to a community that uses a particular language as its means of expression (1998, p. 94). It is those items that make each language unique and different, and therefore, it is rather difficult to keep a universal translation standard for all languages.

The Core of Translation Criteria

The core of translation criteria is the standard to measure the quality of the target language, and the evaluation of the merits of the quality of the target language is a kind of value judgment. When it comes to value judgment, one cannot help thinking of the five major features of translation: 1) sociality, which means it has social value; 2) culturality, which means it has cultural value; 3) semiotic conversion, which means it has linguistic value; 4) creativity, which means it has creative value; and 5) historicity, which means it has historic value (He, Zhong, & Xu, 2009, pp. 39-40); correspondingly, there are such essential values as exchange, continuity, communication, reproduction, and development. As far as value judgment is concerned, it refers to the judgment of whether or not there is value, what value there is, and how much value there is about a specific object within a particular subject. First, the orientation of judgment is different. Since value judgment is made by the subject of the people, it takes the subject as an orientation scale, and differences will occur along with different subjects. Second, the dimension of the judgment is different. Value judgment, with its unique individual impact, has a strong subjectivity. So, either cognitive process or the results of cognition can be subjected to such subjective factors as the knowledge, emotion, and attitude of the judges, so much so that it is very hard to be “emotionally neutral” or “value neutrality.” Third, the approach of judgment is different. Value judgment is a standardized judgment, which focuses on what translation quality is and on what kind of translation quality is to conform to the ideal of the target language. However, the translation quality judgment is a descriptive judgment whose main task is to objectively determine the true nature of the target language, a typical “what actually it is” judgment.

Many translators have been translating following a principle for a long time, which can be concluded as that translator's subjective factors that should not be immersed in translation so that the translated thing, whatever it may be in forms, can surely be the objective one. It seems that translators take an objective stance; however, their understanding and reproduction of the original translation material is largely subjected to their subjectivity. Their subjectivity, to be more exact, is a kind of value judgment. They have to get themselves involved emotionally and comprehensibly in the translation, which is, in fact re-comprehension and re-creation of the original thing. By doing so, they have to stimulate certain words, phrases, and sentences, etc., for the utterance meaning so as to achieve the utmost comprehension and authentic reproduction. It can, therefore, be concluded that value judgment has been there in the whole process of translation.

Conclusion

From what has been discussed above, we may safely draw the conclusion that, in terms of literary works, there is not an absolute objective standard, which has been proved in plenty of translation practice. As society needs different categories of target language texts to serve different communicative purposes and to meet different communicative pursuits, it is difficult to formulate unified translation standards. Fan Zhongying (1994) puts the standard of translation as "to obtain roughly the same feeling by readers" whose essence is "closeness" (He, 2009, p. 13).

The diversity of the target language text determines the diversity and flexibility of translation standards. This concept might be a betrayal of traditional translation theory, but the existence of a variety of target languages is a social existence. However, that does not mean that one can follow one's inclinations while doing translations. Obtaining roughly the same feeling by readers as the standards of translation is a kind of cross-cultural communication behavior of message transference by language expressed in another language, which is very much like the term "infinity" in mathematics – one approaches infinitely close to meaning but and never intersects or overlaps it, which is to say, one can only make the infinite closeness to the original meaning, emotion, style and rhyme to achieve the best state of translation. Whether the translated thing is close to the source language or not, one's value judgment that determines how close the target language is to the source language. Value judgment is the determiner of translation criteria.

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Two Transitions in the Process of Constructing the Japanese Relative Appellation System Based on *Taika Reforms* and *Meiji Restoration*

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[Abstract] The Japanese relative appellation system has witnessed two transitions in its constructing process: one is the Taika reforms, and the other is the Meiji restoration. Comparing the political and economic changes that happened, respectively, in the Taika reforms and the Meiji Restoration, the present research analyzes the influence on the Japanese relative appellation system. In addition, the issue of how the Japanese relative appellation system reflects the roles of people in social sequence will be further discussed.

[Keywords] Japanese; the relative appellation; transitions; the Taika reforms; the Meiji Restoration

Introduction

Cultures have the character of stability when they are formed (Hu, 1999). Additionally, cultures are changing (Hu, 2000). Languages are not only parts of the cultures, but also the mirrors of the cultures. Therefore, the vocabulary in one language reflects some features of the language to some extent. In this way, it is correct to say that the history of languages and the history of cultures are parallel (Sapir, 1964). In the history of Japan, it was the Taika reforms that changed the Japanese social nature from a slave society to feudal society, and the Meiji Restoration impelled the nation to be a capitalist society instead of a feudal society. The great changes in policy and economy inevitably affect its culture and the relative appellation terms. The Taika reforms made the Japanese relative appellation system carry some Chinese characters, while the Meiji Restoration rendered the Japanese relative appellation system to be occidental.

Generally speaking, the Japanese relative appellation system belongs to the Eskimo relative appellation family, which is characterized by vertically heir-centered development. Namely, lineal relatives have specific relative appellations, whereas other relative appellations are comparatively vague. However, “the fact that a language may have a proportionately high number of terms in particular domains is an important index to the focus of a culture” (Nida, 1991, pp. 108-109). Japanese relative appellations have the largest amount of vocabulary in lineal relative terms, which retain almost all the core terms in Chinese lineal relative appellations systems. Owing to its particular “family culture,” Japanese lineal relative appellations not only show the superior and inferior in kinship, but also display the roles of people in social sequence.

The Influence of the Taika Reforms on the Japanese Relative Appellation System

The Taika reforms, which refer to Chinese political and economic systems in the Sui and Tang dynasties, are a set of doctrines established by Emperor Kōtoku aiming to liberate productive forces and contribute to economic growth. The Taika reforms changed the economic way of Japanese society. Feng Tianyu and Zhou Jiming pointed out that “the economic way and its corresponding social structure are not only the foundation of the national polity, economy and history, but also determine the social value and national culture” (Feng & Zhou, 1986, p. 73). The change of the economy way is bound to change the relative

appellation system. For more detail, the Taika reforms make the Japanese relative appellation system have the character of vertically heir-centered development.

Japanese feudal society was not highly power-centralized before the Taika reforms. “More than one hundred countries,” Yamato guy country and Yamataikoku, were all implementing the Freeman System in a slavery society whose social nature is based on kinship (Murphey, 2012). Under the control of slave owners, people were forced to have the same thoughts and behaviors. The family based on kinship existed only in clan nobility. Many bloodlines occupied certain places, lived, and inherited occupations. In order to show the same bloodline, people were named by the place or the occupation, followed by “shi,” such as “suwo shi” and “buwu shi” (Zhu, 2007).

Japan, in the Taika reforms, followed the example of the Chinese in performing *handenshujū-no-ho* (law on the distribution and collection of rice land), nationalizing the land and allocating the land to farmers every six years. People with offices and who made contributions would be given corresponding land. In addition, people were also given land for living and other purposes, but had to be returned to the government when they died. Compared with the equal-field system, which was based on the individual, Japanese *handenshujū-no-ho* was based on family (Zhu, 2007). Since the Chinese government allocated land according to the individual, people were qualified to inherit as long as they were in the paternal blood relatives. Consequently, the Chinese relative appellation system was strictly distinguished by paternal consanguinity and matrilineal consanguinity, or the relation by blood tie and the relation by marriage. By contrast, the Japanese government allocated land in the light of the family, but each family could only get a small piece of land due to its small land area. For maintaining the family, Japan implemented a “one son inheriting system.” The first inheritor was the eldest son, in most cases, and the younger son or the eldest daughter could be the second inheritor. In detail, the children, in spite of the inheritor, of a family would leave the family by marriage or leaving alone (Wu, 1983). If a family had no son, they would adopt a son or choose their son-in-law to be the inheritor in order to maintain the family (Shen, 2000). In this way, the Japanese family was a group based on association, which could involve members belonging to different groups or exclude members belonging to the same group (Nakane, 1982). The inheritor enjoyed a high status, whereas the other sons would be the inheritors of other non-son families or servants in noble families. Jia Hui (1993) indicated, “the Japanese family centered on the pattern of father-son or the pattern of father-adopted son. In conclusion, the Japanese family centered on the pattern of patriarch-inheritor. Hence, in my opinion, the foundation of the Japanese lineal family was inheritance rather than consanguinity” (Jia, 1993, p. 19). It seemed that distinction of siblings was important to maintain the inheritance. In the Japanese relative appellation system, the terms of the lineal family were almost the same. The Chinese relative appellation terms about siblings were strictly distinguishable, and all those terms had corresponding terms in the Japanese relative appellation system. For the reason that other family members had no differences in their status and responsibility, compared with the inheritor, the appellation terms about them were distinguished in generality.

Additionally, Japan, in the Taika reforms, built the national system according to the decree-law system of the Sui and Tang dynasties. The emperor of Japan held sovereign power while pariahs were the most untouchable in society. Each class was in its certain position and had corresponding responsibilities and obligations, which constructed a rigid class hierarchy. In order to maintain this hierarchy, Japan strictly inherited the Chinese seniority value and kinship hierarchy. The sequence, in line with the age and the gender, was discriminated clearly in the relative appellation system. It was the age and seniority that determined people’s behavior and people’s speaking manners.

Influenced by the Taika reforms, Japanese clan society was disintegrated, and the family structure based on consanguinity was ended. In the system of “one son inheritance,” the Japanese family usually formed in less than three couples. People allied with those who were living close by or in the same village to live and labor with due to the smaller number of people and weak power. Afterwards, because of the aggravation of land annexation and development of the manorial system, the noble family usually co-operated their several cultivated fields, which were scattered in a large area, and the farm land was cultivated by farmers of the lord of the manor or farm laborers (Murphey, 2011). Consequently, the “family” in Japan was not naturally a group constructed by blood, but a community based on the simulated blood-group system, which was regarded as a kind of “business group” (Han, 2003). The basic characteristics of this group were super-consanguinity, parentage, the functional hierarchy and independence (Murakami, et al., 1979).

In conclusion, in the Taika reforms, Japan learned political and economic systems from China, which disintegrated the clan society. The family structure turned into a new residence-centered or economy-centered community, which set both the rights, obligations, and limits of the clansmen according to residence and property and involved non-clansmen (Okada, 1973). Therefore, Japan instituted the “one son inheriting system” to perpetuate the community and made the Japanese relatives appellation system have the character of vertically heir-centered development.

Meiji Restoration’s effects on Japanese Construction of Kinship System

Meiji restoration is the second transition in the construction of the Japanese construction of a kinship system. With the development of Meiji restoration, the modern family system based on the ideas of “equality of men and women” and “fairness” came into being.

The Meiji Restoration is a top-down capitalistic, comprehensive, westernized, and modernized reform, which was under the influence of western capital industrial civilization during the 1860s. From the perspective of the social system, the Meiji Restoration abolished the “scholar, farmer, artisan and merchant” hierarchy system during the feudal period. It also reduced the elites’ feudal salary in the form of government bonds. Moreover, the “haito edict” and “household registration law” were also published. Then, daimio, impoverished aristocrats and ordinary samurai, were all equally treated in status. After this reform, intermarriage between people of different status was allowed, and the samurai’s right of carrying a sword was also withdrawn. The sword is a symbol of the samurai, which indicates that they are qualified to be “samurai with high status” and act as an administrative officer with class and social status (Murphey, 2011). Meanwhile, in order to conscript, tax, and complete household registration, the Meiji government allowed all Japanese to own their family name. In Japan, the family name also has the meaning of “title of nobility” (Zhu, 2007). Since then, the difference between elite and civilian completely has disappeared, and the continuation of family identity, which was regarded as important by Japanese convention, became totally meaningless.

During the Meiji Restoration, Japan learned a lot from western democracy, which gave the citizen citizenship and liberty. Meanwhile, it instilled the civilian’s democratic consciousness. With the reform of civil law and household registration law, the modern family system that was based on “equality of men and women” and “fairness” has gradually developed. In Western culture, men and women are equal in marriage; there is no difference between the paternal line and the maternal line in Japanese kinship system, which is similar to kinfolk appellation in western countries. All of these came from Japanese original culture, which was fertile and open-minded about sexual life. On the other hand, this change

closely related to the civilized movement in the Meiji Restoration. The civilized movement included learning from Western education, science, and lifestyle, which reformed Japanese feudal culture and built up capitalistic spiritual civilization. In the civilized movement, the Meiji government withdrew the feudal education, which was around Confucianism. They reformed mind, encouraged liberalism and Westernism, and conducted enlightenment education of Japanese civilians. Enlightenment thinkers criticized traditional Confucian theories, encouraged people to absorb Western civilization to make Japanese “Westernization” come true. Moreover, they encouraged the equality of men and women, stressed the equality of education and personality, and so on. By then, the theory of the “equality of men and women” in Japanese original culture had been recovered. In 1947, Japan published the civil law, which abolished the householder system and the primogeniture system, stressing husband and wife are equal in marriage and in inheriting. From then on, the modern family system, whose purpose is “equality of men and women,” has been established. When talking about kinfolk appellation, some of the same titles between men and women are the symbol of equality of men and women. On the other hand, there was no difference between paternal lines and maternal lines in the Japanese kinship system, which is the result of acknowledging the importance that both heredity and succession are from both sides of the parents.

During the Meiji Restoration, the government encouraged the development of colonial industry and capitalistic economy. They put great efforts into developing various modern enterprises to foster and protect individual capital and promoted the development of private enterprise. Under the effects of this economic development policy, some small conventional economic groups developed as modern “business organizations” under the leading of some capitalists, and the existence of “business organizations” was reliant on the special form of group paradigm, which was the “family” mentioned above. In these “business organizations,” members worked according to their ranks, ages, and status to protect the profits of the organization. There is a very close relationship between different people. A Japanese scholar calls this kind of identity as “middleman,” which corresponds to “individual” in Western countries (Yang, 2008). “Middleman” is used to describe Japanese “human system,” three features of which are mutual dependence, mutual trust, and regarding human relationship as target and essence. Under the link of this kind of human relationship, there presents a kind of sense of belonging in Japanese “business organizations” that enables Japanese to introduce their affiliated groups and organizations before themselves. “Traditionally speaking, Japanese only have living immediacy when in organizations” (Hiroshi, 1994, p. 241).

In all, in the Meiji Restoration, Japan learned democracy from Western countries, which facilitated the development of the modern family system centered on the “equality of men and women.” In the end, a kinship system developed in the modern Japanese system, which was around heirs, and there was clear kinship of the immediate blood fertility. Meanwhile, the Meiji Restoration established the modern “business organizations” and proved that “kinship system not only represents the locational relationship of interpersonal ancestry, the appellation of speech also stands for the social category among human organizations” (Cheng, 2001, p. 84).

Conclusion

After being influenced by the Great Reform and the Meiji Restoration, Japan developed a kinship system, which included both traditional and Western features. The interpersonal relation was in the form of longitudinal development, and the two sides of the communication were of unequal status. Japanese

follow the pecking order seriously and determine their actions according to their ages, ranks, and social status. Moreover, they were against individual heroic. Meanwhile, they stressed the equality of husbands and wives in marriage and succession, and there was no difference between paternal lines and maternal lines, blood relation, and in-law relation.

After the Great Reform, the “family” linked by blood relation gradually developed as an economic community around residual and economic benefits. The whole of Japan developed its social structure, which was based on organizations. The relationship between people was based no longer on blood relations or on family and clan, but on organizations conducted due to common economic goals. From the Meiji Restoration, Japan, a country that was influenced by Western individualism, still maintains its organizational “family” culture, and the sequence of social life is maintained by the individuals’ status and relations in the organizations. This weakened the sense of family and relatives of the Japanese. The Japanese regulated their behaviors seriously in the family or organization according to the pecking order, and the kinship system did represent the individual status in the “organization.”

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Ideological Interpretation of the Translation Strategies Employed by Missionary Translators in Rendering Bible into Chinese

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[Abstract] The translation strategy employed by missionaries in translating the Bible into Chinese underwent two stages, i.e. the strategy of representing Christian culture by Buddhism, Taoism, and Confucianism in early times, and the strategy of De-Buddhism and proper adaptation to Taoism and Confucianism in later times. The real cause behind the choices of translators' strategies rests upon the main ideological factors determined by the competition between the dominant and marginal cultures in the society.

[Keywords] Bible translation; cultural conflict; translation strategy; ideological factors

Introduction

Translating the Bible into Chinese has a history that is even longer than the translation of Buddhist scriptures. Most of the translators in early times were missionaries, but there have been more Chinese translators involved in translating Bible into Chinese in modern times. However, the research regarding the translation of the Bible into Chinese has not been given due attention. In this area, the most influential scholars include Broomhall (1934), Zetzsche (1997), Zhuang (2000) and Ren (2007). Their research focus is the history of the Chinese Bible. The former three mainly show concern to the Union Version and some other earlier versions, while Ren's study covers the former duration and some later Chinese translators' work and their theoretical achievements. All of them have contributed much to this field. However, these studies did not show enough interest in the ideological factors influencing the change of the general translation strategies largely. This paper will delve into the deep ideological factors that influence the choice of translators rendering the Bible into Chinese. According to the different translation strategies employed by translators, the history of the translation of the Bible into Chinese can be divided into two periods, i.e. the early time and the modern time.

The Translation Strategy Employed by Missionaries in the Early Time

The early time studied in this part starts from the introduction of Christianity in the Tang Dynasty to the time of Morrison, who is regarded as the earliest beginner translating the whole Bible into Chinese. The earliest record of Biblical culture having a relationship with Chinese traditional culture can be traced back to the stone tablet of the Tang Dynasty, on which the tenets of Christianity and key contents of the Bible were carved in 781 AD. According to the contents of the words carved on this stone tablet, the earliest translation of the Chinese Bible was carried out from 635 AD. It says that a Nestorian missionary was welcomed by the Chinese emperor of that time and led to his library to translate the Bible. This is even five years earlier than Xuan Zang's translation of Buddhist scriptures. During that time, the empire of Tang was the strongest one in the world, and its culture was superior in contrast to the other nations' cultures. The words carved on the stone tablet took advantage of terms of Buddhism, Taoism, and Confucianism to interpret Christian doctrines. The characteristic of hybridity is very apparent, and "it is interspersed with Buddhist, Taoist, and Confucian references" (Sugirtharajah, 2004, p. 24). However, it

is hard to say which one is more favored by the writer in the process of adapting himself to the dominant Chinese culture of that time.

When it came to the time of Matteo Ricci, the empire of the Ming Dynasty was still very strong. Matteo Ricci had to follow Chinese official rituals when he was having a meeting with Chinese government officers and showed due respect to them. He and the other preachers were “willing to abide by Chinese rules, adopt Chinese ways, and cultivate Chinese officials and intellectuals” (Huang, 2005, p. 92). For the convenience of preaching, Matteo Ricci changed his lifestyle to follow Chinese customs. He even named himself the “Western monk” and later changed it to “Western Confucianism follower.” In his Christian writing, many typical terms from Chinese culture were employed, such as, “Lun Hui (轮回 the turn of life and death),” “Fu Zi (夫子 teacher),” “Tao (道),” and so on. One of the most important Chinese Christian terms, “Tian Zhu (天主 heavenly host),” was used to translate “God.” In his opinion, this term, used in some Chinese classic writings, refers to the God of Christianity. However, some Jesuits thought that such strategy might impair the purity of their belief. This concern reflected the subtle relationship between Chinese and western cultures, which were in competition during that time. With the development of Europe, missionaries were gradually equipped with the awareness of the independence of religious discourse.

Emmanuel Diaz, a Portuguese missionary, tried to translate the New Testament and finished most of the parts in Sheng Jing Zhi Jie (圣经直解 Bible’s direct interpretation). He is the first one using the concept of “Holy Bible” as a book name in the Chinese Bible. Literally, “圣经” means “holy scripture,” which was used by Emmanuel Diaz to make the Chinese Bible boast equal status with the other traditional Chinese classics. Meanwhile, he created some important terms in this translated version, e.g. “Fu Yin” (福音 good message), “Ren Zi” (人子 human being son). Such terms became standard ones in the Chinese Bible and were accepted by most of the following Bible translators. In this translated version, Emmanuel Diaz seldom used terms from Buddhism and Taoism, the chaotic hybridity of religious discourse of the earlier time being changed to a great extent. Readers can identify few terms branded with typical Chinese traditional culture. This reveals that the Bible translators were more aware of the independence of religious discourse by parting from the existing Chinese religious terms.

Another representative Bible translator is Bassett. His translated version can be called a comparatively strict translation, most parts of the New Testament being rendered into idiomatic Chinese. Bassett strictly avoided using Buddhist and Taoist terms. He continued making use of some terms coined by the former translator, such as “Fu Yin (福音 good message)” and “Tao (道)” or some phrases generated from it. In this version, “Fu Yin (福音 good message)” was used in the title of the four gospels. From the change of their translation strategies, we can find that in this time, the missionary translators were worrying about the religious identity in the face of the competition arising between Western culture and the dominant Chinese culture. On one hand, they thought the failure of the introduction of Christianity in ancient China could be ascribed to the unsuccessful preaching strategy. On the other hand, the powerful reign of the Chinese government and the ancient Chinese culture forced them to adapt to the Chinese context and the existing cognitive framework. However, these translators did not theoretically put the new concern into their Bible translation, and they only employed it as a preference unconsciously.

The Change of Translation Strategy in Modern Time

From the beginning of Morrison’s translation of the whole Bible into Chinese to the publication of Union Version, this period witnessed the fast development of the Bible’s translation in China. During this time,

the most significant versions include Morrison's version, Gutzlaff's version, Delegates' version, and the Union Version. The translators of this period employed different translation strategies when they were translating the Bible into Chinese.

With the developing influence of politics, economy, and military of Western countries, the Western culture was in constant competition with Chinese traditional culture, and the positions of them were changing gradually. The translation strategy employed by missionary translators reflected the gradual change of the position between the dominant and marginal cultures in China. In order to cope with the powerful traditional Chinese culture, Morrison properly adapted to Chinese classics. Compared with the former translators, Morrison explicitly brought forward that in Bible translation, he tried his best to avoid "technical terms, which occur in the pagan philosophy and religion" (Morrison, 1839, p. 8), while the former translators did not declare this strategy. The pagan philosophy and religion mentioned here referred to the Chinese Buddhism, Taoism, and Confucianism. In Morrison's version, we can find few Chinese religious terms except some Confucian terms, such as Fu Zi (夫子 teacher). Morrison gave more attention to the purity of the discourse of the Bible, which can be revealed from the different use of Chinese Bible terms. In contrast to Basset's version, Morrison more frequently used the term "Fu Yin (福音 good message)," which is one of the symbolic terms in the Chinese Bible after that. Like Basset, he also rendered "God" into "Shen (神)" and "spirit" into "Shen Feng (神风 God wind)." With regard to the style of the Chinese Bible, Morrison preferred using "common words to rare and classical one," and he "would rather be deemed inelegant, than hard to be understood" (Morrison, 1839, p. 9). Therefore, Morrison chose the style of one popular novel of San Guo Yan Yi (三国演义 *Stories of the Three Kingdoms*) as the stylistic sample. He thought this style would enable the Chinese version to enjoy the readability and the flavor of Chinese classic writings, and this choice may also make the Chinese Bible have an apparent different style from most of the Chinese classics.

In Buddhism, Taoism, and Confucianism, Morrison was more in favor of employing Confucianism terms to explain Christianity when he was preaching in China. In his eyes, Confucius was merely a "wise and good man" (Morrison, 1839, p. 207). However, Jesus, the son of God, "extended his regards to the world" (Morrison, 1839, p. 208). Therefore, he held the view that Confucianism could not be regarded as a religion, and it would not threaten the religious beliefs of Christianity. Meanwhile, the flavor of Confucianism might attract more Chinese audiences because of the dominant position of Confucianism in Chinese society. Morrison played a very important role in the establishment of Chinese Bible terms and style, laying a good foundation for the forthcoming missionaries' Bible translations.

Morrison's version was highly praised in Britain, but in China, it was a different story. Morrison revised his version for several times due to the readers' feedback, but the result was far from satisfying. After Morrison's death, Gutzlaff led his Bible translation team to do a revision of Morrison's version, which was seriously criticized by many Chinese Confucius scholars for its vulgarity instead of classic style. Gutzlaff's team tried to use a more classical style to be closer to the Chinese classics, and this aim made Gutzlaff's version more difficult to comprehend by common Chinese readers. In this version, there was a significant change regarding the terms of the Chinese Bible, i.e. the use of "Tao (道)" in rendering the important term of "Logos." In the forgoing translated versions, we can seldom identify the use of "Tao (道)" from the time when missionary translators were in pursuit of independent terms of Chinese Bible. However, from Gutzlaff's version, "Tao (道)," a typical Chinese religious and philosophical term, was employed in translating many important Christian terms.

Besides, “Logos,” “preach,” “message,” “prophets,” “words,” “teaching,” and “command” were put into the terms of “Tao (道)” or related phrases. This significant change reflected the missionaries’ cognition of Chinese culture. According to Gutzlaff and some other missionaries, Taoism shared a little more broadly with Christianity. “Tao (道)” coincides “in many respects with the logos of the Platonic school” (Gutzlaff, 1834, p. 327). The San Qing (三清) in Taoism has “evidently reference to the mystery of the trinity” (Gutzlaff, 1834, p. 327). These coincidences made Gutzlaff’s team resort to “Tao (道)” to interpret the Bible, although they did not intend to accept the basic tenets of Taoism. In fact, “Tao (道)” is also popularly used in classics of Confucianism but without religious color. It is a traditional Chinese philosophical and religious term with more of a Taoist brand. In this version, it is very hard to find terms of Buddhism. Unlike Morrison, this version attached more attention to building the flavor of Chinese religious Classics, and it was more difficult for the public to read. As is revealed from the version, we can find that the strategy employed by Gutzlaff’s translation team changed a little on the basis of Morrison’s strategy. It is closer to Chinese religious flavor. This is shown more apparently in translating the first paragraph of John’s Gospel, which is rich in religious color. Using “Tao (道)” to translate “logos” here presents the readers with a similar flavor of the opening sentence of Dao De Jing (道德经 a book of way and virtue), the most important scripture of Taoism.

Delegates’ version is another most influential version in Chinese Bible history. In 1843 after the new victory by Britain in the Opium War and The Treaty of Nan Jing, missionaries were allowed to preach in Guangzhou, Xiamen, Fuzhou, Ningbo, and Shanghai. The new situation provided great convenience for missionaries to spread Christianity in China. From this time, the positions of western and Chinese cultures totally changed. Correspondingly, the status of the Bible was improved without any doubt and the other Chinese traditional classics were lowered. Here, the other classics include scriptures of Buddhism, Taoism, and Confucianism. Compared with the former versions, the delegates’ version gave more importance to the meaning instead of the words themselves.

Due to proper help from good Chinese scholars who played an important role in translation, this version was famous for its elegance in Chinese wording. “Chinese authors even go so far as to compare it to the Chinese canonical books” (Zetzsche, 1997, p. 57), but some other readers criticized it for its being difficult to understand and having the old style. Even some put forward that this version was not faithful in meaning. Like the former versions of Morrison and Gutzlaff, the version continued the strategy of de-Buddhism and properly adapting to Taoism and Confucianism. It followed Gutzlaff’s version to use a lot of “道” in translating some important terms of the Bible. The term of “Tian Shi (天使 angel)” was first used in the Chinese Bible. It was borrowed from “You Xue Qiong Lin (幼学琼林, a book for young children),” one of the classics of Confucianism.

The Union Version is regarded as the peak of the Bible’s being translated into Chinese, which can be traced back to the missionary meeting of 1877. In that meeting, missionaries preaching in China expressed their common expectation to publish a union version that could be universally accepted. In 1880, the Revised English Version and its Greek version were published and gained due authority. This made missionaries in China become more eager to have an authoritative Chinese union version. In the May of 1890, many missionaries in China began to discuss revising the Delegates’ Version and reached an agreement to publish three different-styled versions, i.e. easy Wenli, deep Wenli, and Mandarin. This agreement was regarded as the most significant achievement of this meeting. The Mandarin Union Version, one of these three versions, became the most successful Chinese Bible. Even nowadays, this version still enjoys its authority and “no other version can take its authoritative position” (Zhuang, 2000,

p.20). From the perspective of linguistics, the Mandarin Union Version found a balance between elegance and comprehensibility.

This was the aim of Morrison at the beginning of his translation. However, Morrison did not reach his aim, and his version only showed comprehensibility instead of elegance. Gutzlaff's version and Delegates' version came to another end, showing too much attention to elegance. We can draw the conclusion that the dream of Morrison and some earlier missionary translators was realized in the Mandarin Union Version. In this version, readers can identify many Confucianism terms, e.g. "Fu Zi (夫子, teacher)," "Xin (信 faith)," "Yi (义 righteousness)." Such terms were all borrowed from Confucianism classics. Besides using such terms of traditional Chinese culture, this version continued using "Tao (道)" to translate "logos." It also creatively took advantage of "Tai Chu (太初 the very beginning)," a typical Taoism term, to render the phrase "in the beginning" in the Gospel of John 1:1. This Taoism term refers to the chaotic state before heaven and the earth came into being, which is very close to the description of the world before God created the universe in the Bible. This version also denied using Buddhism terms to translate Christian terms.

An Ideological Interpretation of Missionaries' Translation Strategies

From the diachronic analysis, the change of the translation strategies of Bible translation in China, we can draw the conclusion that "the process of translation is powerful and it is not innocent" (Tymoczko, 1999, p. 18). The strategy changes from the hybrid state with terms of Buddhism, Taoism, and Confucianism to avoid religious terms of Buddhism and properly adapt to Taoism and Confucianism is determined by the cultural fusion Mechanism in the process of communication between different cultures. In the three traditional Chinese cultures, Buddhism and Taoism boast more religious color than Confucianism. Since the time of Matteo Ricci, the church and some missionaries began to think about the identity of religious discourse of Christianity because the Western nations were growing more powerful than before. Then, missionary translators chose to avoid using terms with strong Buddhism color as Buddhism's comprehensive term system, which posed great threat to the independent identify of Christian religious discourse.

If there was no distinguished term system of the Bible, it seemed that most of the Chinese Bible readers might mistake the Chinese Bible as a variety of Buddhist scriptures. Since Gutzlaff's version, most of the Chinese Bibles chose to adapt to Taoism and Confucianism properly due to the coincidence of tenets between them and the dominant social position of Confucianism. In fact, in the secular society, Buddhism and Taoism were in marginal positions, while Confucianism was the mainstream. Since Buddhism has too strong a religious discourse, it was denied by missionaries to translate Bible into Chinese. In order to produce the effect of classic writing and a special color of Christianity in the Chinese Bible, missionary translators took advantage of several terms of Taoism and a small quantity of Confucianism terms. After the trials of several hundred years' effort, their translation strategy led to the successful production of the Mandarin Union Version.

In general, Christianity has contradictions with Chinese traditional cultures. Buddhism and Taoism worship all kinds of gods, which is different from the monotheism of Christianity. In tenets, Buddhism is called atheism or polytheism, and it shares little similarity with Christianity. Besides, Buddhism is not accepted by the main group of secular publics. Similarly, Taoism is also rejected by most of the common people. In that time, the Chinese people would not resort to help from Buddhism and Taoism unless they were facing misfortune and had no way to get rid of it. Compared with Buddhism, Taoism is not so strong

a religious discourse system, while the theory of creation of the world is very close to that of Christianity's. So the concept of "Tao" and "Tai Chu (太初)" were borrowed from Taoism for the convenience of preaching Christianity. In contrast to the Buddhism and Taoism, Confucianism is regarded as a set of rules put forward by great ancestors to govern the routine conduct of common people rather than religious tenets. This nature will not threaten the independence of term system of the Bible. Meanwhile, Confucianism was then welcome by most of the common Chinese and Confucian scholars who were respected by the whole society. Besides these factors, many missionaries held the view that the tenets of Confucianism and Christianity shared a lot of similarities with each other. "Ren Yi Li Zhi Xin (仁义礼智 benevolence, righteousness, politeness, intelligence, and faithfulness)," the key tenets of Confucianism, can find corresponding tenets in the Bible and Christian belief.

Conclusion

As one of the significant translation practices in history, the Bible's being translated into Chinese played a very important part in the communication between Western and Chinese cultures. The change of translation strategies in translating the Bible into Chinese is not just an innocent dialogue between different cultures. From the very beginning, this practice was full of the influence of power and ideology. Those missionary translators were largely influenced consciously or unconsciously by different powers. In the long run of the whole history, any change of power and ideological factors may cause the translators to employ different translation strategies. In the Chinese Bible history, the translation process was also determined by the inherent characteristics of Christianity and Chinese traditional culture. The gradually changing strategies were influenced by the subjective adaptation of missionary translators and by the similarities and differences among different cultures.

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The Explication of the Semantic Value of Poetic Image in Translating Chinese Classical Poems into English

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[Abstract] *The studies of explication at home and abroad mainly focus on the classification of this phenomenon and corpus-based experimental study. This paper attempts to delve into the explicating mechanism of the implicit value of poetic image in the process of translating Chinese classical poems into English. Three types of implicit value (visual, emotional, and cultural) of poetic image are often explicated in the process of reconstructing and compensating the aesthetic value and effect of the original text.*

[Keywords] *poetic image; explication; implicit value; aesthetic effect; poem translation*

Introduction

The concept of explication in translation was put forward by Vinay and Darbelnett in 1958. It refers to “the phenomenon which frequently leads to TT stating ST information in a more explicit form than the original” (Shuttleworth & Cowie, 1997, p. 55). Henceforth, some other researchers have done some further related researches. Blum-Kulka (1986) placed his attention on the study of the explication of cohesion and coherence in translation. Séguinot (1988) held the view that the perspectives of the former study were too narrow and he paid attention to the change of importance of information. Baker (1996) and Øveras (1998) did corpus-based experimental study concerned with explication of translation. The study of explication was also carried out by some Chinese scholars, including Ke Fei (2005) and Zhou Hongming (2007). Ke Fei (2005) thought the explication of translation should take linguistic factors, the translator, social culture and text itself into consideration. Zhou Hongmin (2007) held the view that the cognitive factors of explication in translation mainly include poetic effect, rhetorical device, and rhyme. To sum up, these studies of explication in translation focus on the common text and experimental perspectives. Little light was shed on the semantic value of poetic image in the process of translation. This paper will place attention on the explication of aesthetic semantic values of poetic image in C-E translation of Chinese classical poems, trying to disclose the cognitive explication mechanism of the implicit semantic value of poetic image in translation.

Understanding the Implicit Semantic Value of Poetic Image

Poetic image is regarded as the smallest linguistic unit that can be used independently in Chinese classical poems. This basic concept carries added weight in the theories concerned with Chinese classical poems in China. Some foreign literature theorists, such as Ezra Pound, C. Day Lewis, and Meyer Howard Abrams, also have strong interest in it. Pound put the poetic image as “one which presents an intellectual and emotional complex in an instant of time” (Yip, 1969, p. 58). In *Poetic Image*, C. Day Lewis (2006) stated that this concept refers to “a picture made out of words” and “a poem may itself be an image composed from a multiplicity of images” (Abrams, 2009, p. 242). Abrams referred to poetic image as “mental pictures” (2009, p. 242), which played a key role in forming the aesthetic effect of a poem. The

earliest theory of poetic image appeared in *Wen Xin Diao Long*, written by Liu Xie in the Northern and Southern Dynasties (420-589 AD), who said that in planning the whole discourse the writer should “arrange the discourse by building poetic image in the mind” (Z. Zhou, 1983, p. 295). Zhu Guangqian (2006), one of the most famous modern poem theorists in China, concretized the poetic image as “the mind picture of an individual thing” (p. 121), and it is “the reflection of the intention” (p. 113). In general, the connotations of poetic image discussed in China and abroad are similar to each other, covering three layers, i.e. language, picture, and emotion. Poetic image is the basic linguistic unit, playing the role of representing the physical picture and the emotion in the mind of a poet. Thus, the study of implicit aesthetic value of the poetic image should take these two sides into account, delving into the mechanism regarding how the implicit semantic values are represented in translation.

From the aesthetic perspective of Chinese classical poems, the abundance of semantic value carried by poetic images is one of the key poetic effects of a poem. This viewpoint is similar to Lotman’s statement that “poetic text is ‘semantically saturated’, condensing more ‘information’ than any other discourse” (Eagleton, 2004, p. 88). Here the so-called condensation of information refers to the poly-semantic perspective of poetic text, which is regarded as one of the aesthetic effects of a text boasting poetic extension. In this paper, I am going to delve into the semantic explicitation of poetic image in the process of translation. The semantic values of poetic image are divided into explicit and implicit semantic values. The former is the denotative carrier of a linguistic unit, while the latter is the denotative or connotative semantic value behind the superficial denotative meaning of a linguistic unit. The implicit semantic value enables the poem to carry multi-dimensional aesthetic effect. The extension formed between explicit and implicit semantic values enables the poetic image to carry extra aesthetic effect compared with the other single-layered images. Such a semantic structure of poetic image in Chinese classical poems is one of the difficult points in translation.

The Explicitation of Implicit Semantic Value of Poetic Image in Translation

The important status of poetic image in translating Chinese classical poems into English has been discussed by many translators both at home and abroad. Waley thought the poetic image is the soul of a poem when the Chinese classical poem is translated into English. Weng Xianliang, one of the best modern poem translators, held the view that one of the key factors in successful poem translation is poetic image, which should be give due attention in translation. But the possible plural interpretations structured by implicit semantic values of a poetic image and the cultural-linguistic differences create obstacles and provide huge space for translators to reconstruct a poem. Therefore, “the duty of the translator is to transport this ‘dynamic content,’ the life force of the poem, to the reader” (Yip, 1969, p. 76). By analyzing the related theories concerned with poetic image, translating the multi-valued image should especially place stress on visual, emotional, and cultural perspectives. Therefore, the following part will delve into the explicitation mechanism of the implicit semantic value of poetic image in translation and focus on explicitation of the implicit visual semantic value, the implicit emotional semantic value, and the implicit cultural semantic value.

Explicitation of the Implicit Visual Value

Poetic image includes the visual characteristics, but these two cannot be confused with each other. The latter is just the implicit visual semantic value of a poetic image, referring to the physical reflection of the object in the mind of human beings. Hegel named it “picture.” He thought the first step of artistic creative

activity is to grasp reality and its visual configurations and “impress on the spirit the greatest multiplicity of picture of what is there” (Hegel, 1975, p. 281). The visual and emotional semantic values of poetic image are two basic elements of a poem. The aesthetic effect is mainly produced by the combination of these two kinds of poetic values. The superficial visual semantic value carried by poetic image is looked on as an explicit visual semantic value, while the deeper visual characteristic of it is implicit visual semantic value. In translation, it is impossible for the translator to transplant the same poetic visual values into the target text because of the linguistic-cultural obstacles. In many cases, Nienhauser indicates that the translation can “represent only one of a number of possible readings” (Pellatt & Liu, 2010, p. 166). The translator has to do comprehensive understanding of visual implicit meaning and make optimal choice in the process of recreation of translation. Let us have a look of the translation of Wang Wei’s poem 's line as follows:

- Original text: 遥知兄弟登高处，遍插茱萸少一人。
- Target text 1: The customary fern stunk in their hair.
Only I was missing; all would be there. (translated by Xu Zhongjie 徐忠杰)
- Target text 2: I know my brothers would, with dogwood spray in hand,
Climb the mountain and think of me so far away.
(translated by Xu Yuanchong 许渊冲)
- Target text 3: With dogwoods on their heads
But without me accompanied. (translated by Tang Yihe 唐一鹤)

The poetic image of “插 (insert)” in the above three versions is put into “stunk in their hair,” “with... in hand,” and “with... on their heads,” respectively. All these versions are equipped with the semantic explicitation of this poetic image in different ways, more detailed visual semantic values being attached to the original image. To analyze it from the perspective of semantic components, this action poetic image is vague largely due to the condensed wording of the Chinese classical poem and paratactic characteristic of the Chinese language. In rendering this poem's line into English, the action of “insert” in the context calls for corresponding logical cohesion, which is determined by the wording necessity of English and poetic pursuit in visual effect. According to the custom of Double Ninth Festival, the mountain climbers need to take dogwoods with them. It is said that this action can help people avoid misfortune. But the detailed information regarding where or how the dogwoods should be put is unknown to modern people. Based on the understanding of visual characteristics of “insert,” all the above three translators explicitated the implicit semantic value contained by the poetic image in the original text.

Explicitation of the Implicit Emotional Value

Both Western and Chinese poetry theories regard emotion as one of the most important concerns. Through the emotion of a poem that “penetrates and animates the whole,” the poet “has his material and his configuration as his very own self” (Hegel, 1975, p. 283). The description of the outside world of a poem is only to provide the inner mental state. This viewpoint is similar to the Chinese poetry theory that “poem writing is the expression of the intention of the poet.” Emotion is the key force that combines all the individual poetic images in a poem. In the process of translating Chinese classical poems, the translator should not only concern the linguistic level of concrete aesthetic object, but also pay attention to the deeper emotion and intention carried by the poetic image. Thus, it is necessary for the translator to catch the deep, emotional semantic value from the explicit semantic value of the language of the poem

and represent properly in the translation process, equivalently recreating the emotional semantic value of the poetic image. Let us have a look of the following two examples:

Original text: “但见泪痕湿，不知心恨谁。”

Target text 1: You may see the tears now, bright on her cheek,
But not the man she so bitterly loves. (translated by Bynner)

Target text 2: Her tear-stain is what's only seen,
But who she resents no one knows. (translated by Yang Xuying 杨虚英)

Original text: “碧玉妆成一树高，万条垂下绿丝绦。”

Target text 1: A piece of verdurous jade is dressed up
Into a tall tree,
With thousands of green silk threads and ribbons
Drooping and hanging for people to see. (translated by Tang Yihe 唐一鹤)

Target text 2: The slender beauty's dressed in emerald all about;
A thousand branches droop like fringes made of jade.
(translated by Xu Yuanchong 许渊冲)

In the first original text, the explicit meaning of emotional poetic image of “恨” is equivalent to “resent” or “grudge.” But from the context of this poem, sensitive readers may find that its implicit emotional semantic value is the deep love and thinking between lovers. So, the semantic dynamics arises in these seemingly contradictive meanings. In order to enable the target text and its readers to communicate successfully, the implicit semantic value of poetic image in the original text was explicitated as “love” and added an adverb “bitterly” to construct the semantic dynamics of the original text, sensitively recreating the emotional value of the original poetic image.

In the second original text, the poetic image of “垂下 (hang)” is confined in the emotional state of happiness in spring, delivering the beautiful appearance of long willow twig. Both of the above two target texts employ “droop” to translate this poetic image. In fact, “droop” has typical negative connotation as “to become sad or weak.” It is even used rhetorically as “the state that a man cannot get an erection” in some contexts. Such negative connotation of “droop” makes it not able to match the mood of happiness. In order to solve this problem, I think it is better to take the place of “droop” with “hang” and add an adjective “lovely” to explicitate the implicit semantic value. In this way, both the visual and emotional meanings are faithfully represented in the target text.

Explicitation of the Implicit Cultural Value

“To truly successful translating, biculturalism is even more important than bilingualism, since words only have meanings in terms of the cultures in which they function” (Nida, 2001, p. 82). This theory holds true in a poem's translation. The same individual poetic image may produce different aesthetic effects due to the differences of language, culture, and history. Therefore, the translator should consider all kinds of cultural factors and avoid cultural communication mistakes in dealing with the poetic image. At the same time, the translator should understand the related cultural meaning of poetic image and make proper adjustment according to the target language and culture. Some added cultural semantic values can be identified easily from the poetic image, while some are hard to be found. The former one can be regarded as explicit cultural semantic value of poetic image and the later as implicit one. Please look at the following examples:

- Original text: 寒雨连江夜入吴，平明送客楚山孤。
- Target text 1: A cold rain dissolved in East Stream invades the night;
At dawn you'll leave the lonely Southern hills in haze.
(translated by Xu Yuanchong 许渊冲)
- Target text 2: With this cold night-rain hiding the river, you have come into Wu.
In the level dawn, all alone, you will be starting for the mountains of Ch'u.
(translated by Bynner)
- Original text : 一声何满子，双泪落君前。
- Target text 1: Singing the dying swan's sweet lay,
O how can she hold back her tears! (translated by Xu Yuanchong 许渊冲)
- Target text 2: Yet ask her for this song and, with the first few words of it,
See how she tries to hold back her tears. (translated by Bynner)

The explicit semantic values of poetic images “吴” and “楚” in the first example are two country names in ancient China. They are typical cultural images employed in Chinese classical poem to signify the directions, which are implicit semantic values and may increase the aesthetic effect of antiqueness. In the first translated version, the translator used the implicit semantic values to take the place of the explicit ones while the second one retained the explicit ones. I prefer to the first version because the corresponding images in the second translated version are hard to understand and hard to represent the original poetic effect. In the second example, the image of “何满子” contains the implicit cultural semantic value of “sadness.” In the first version, the translator tried to use the cultural image of “dying swan’s sweet lay” to explicitate the key implicit semantic value of the original image while the second version only explicitated a small part of the implicit cultural semantic value. From the aesthetic perspective of the poem, the first version represents more aesthetic values of the original poetic image than the second one.

Conclusion

The explicitation in C-E poem translation is a common phenomenon due to the necessity of successful inter-lingual communication. Generally, it is very hard for poem translators to find the same way to represent the same aesthetic devices and effects in the target language. In some cases, the translation will suffer loss of meaning or aesthetic effect. The translator, sometimes, may resort to the technique of explicitation to make up for the loss. The explicitation of poetic image is an unavoidable phenomenon determined by the differences between languages and cultures, and it is under the control of the translator’s cognitive process of recreation consciously to a great extent. The explicitation of visual, emotional, and cultural semantic values of poetic image is employed by the translator as a communicative tool to compensate the loss of aesthetic effect. In this process of re-creation, the translated version may lose the formal equivalence but gain spiritual resemblance of aesthetic value and effect of the original text to a great extent.

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Semantic Differences of Modal Verb “Shall” and “May” in Legal Text Translation

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[Abstract] *The semantic differences of modal verbs exist between legal text and plain text. In legal English, the “shall” expresses “mandate, necessity, or compulsion,” especially in statutory or judicial directives, and the “may” is to “be allowed to or have permission to.” The paper reasons the differences and analyzes the basic legal English meanings and the equivalent legal Chinese meanings of “shall” and “may,” which is essential for the reasonable translation of “shall” and “may” in legal texts. General rules are deduced from the comparison though the legal English meanings of “shall” and “may” are different from that of plain English and can’t be fully matched with the “yīnggāi” and “kěnéng” in legal Chinese.*

[Keywords] *law; text; translation; shall; may*

Introduction

Linguistic semantics focuses on the regularity in expressing meaning and the similarity and differences among different languages (Wang, 2011). Lexical and conceptual semantics refer to the basic meanings of words and sentences or word meanings and sentence meanings (Wang, 2008). The semantics often define a domain-specific meaning, and the contextual meanings of modal verbs are different in legal texts. Therefore, there is no meaning for word-to-word correspondence between English and Chinese. The precise inter-translation of English and Chinese legal texts depends largely on a good understanding of the semantic differences between “shall” and “may” and their Chinese equivalents. Modal verbs are indispensable to laws, regulations, contractual texts, and legal documents, etc. They are often used for the legal expression of “having permission to,” “compulsion,” and “forbiddance.” However, the precise translation of the legal meanings of modal verbs is hard to handle because the meanings can be easily confused with that of plain English if no linguistic context is taken into consideration. At the same time, China belongs to the civil law system, and the equivalent Chinese cannot express the meanings of “shall” and “may” accurately. There are no such modal verbs with the directive or illocutionary meaning in the civil law system (Hua, 1995). The causes lie in the fact that the drafting of legal documents in civil law countries focuses more on general and abstract concepts. Therefore, whether or not the inter-translation of legal English and Chinese texts can precisely and entirely express the meanings of the original ones depends largely on the correct understanding of the legal meanings of “shall” and “may.”

Legal Meanings of “Shall” and the Translation

The meanings of “shall” in legal English are different from those of plain English. Generally, the “shall” contains the meanings of “directive,” “illocutionary,” and “obligation and responsibility of rights.” The legal interpretations of “shall” can be concluded as “expressing mandate, necessity or compulsion, especially in statutory or judicial directives” or “the expressing determination, certainty and emphasis” or “the expressing futurity, especially plan, intention and expectation” (Olsson, 2004).

The interpretations above can be explained from three perspectives. When it is used to express the meaning of “mandate,” the modal verb “shall” contains the “directive” meaning in the legal context. When it is used to express the meaning of “compulsion,” it involves the “illocutionary” meaning in the legal context. When it is used to express the meaning of “necessity,” then it involves the meaning of “obligation and responsibility.” For the second interpretation, “determination,” “certainty,” and “emphasis” are all for the sake of an energetic expression in legal English with the aim of modification. The last interpretation is applicable to legal documents in practice, as in contracts. Usually, legal language is relatively constant. The “shall” is not used when future tense is involved, and tense change is not included in laws and regulations. Then, ambiguity will occur in the case of whether or not “shall” is used for expressing legal obligation or for a rhetorical function.

Translation of Marked Chinese “Yīnggāi” or “Yīngdāng”

The marked Chinese “yīngdāng,” “yīnggāi,” or “yīng” can be the legal English “shall,” which contains the legal meaning of “obligation and responsibility of rights” when expressing the legal concepts of “illocutionary” and “necessity.” The following examples, marked Chinese “yīngdāng,” “yīnggāi,” or “yīng,” are all adopted from the current Chinese laws with “shall” in their corresponding translations.

(a) Article 8: Hǎiguān yīngdāng wèi jùbàorén bǎomì (CLPRC, 2012).

Translation: The Customs shall keep the reporters secret.

(b) Article 17: Jiāgōng màoyì zhìchéngpǐn Yīngdāng zài guīdìng de qīxiàn nèi fùchūkǒu. Qízhōng shíyòng de jìnkǒu liàojiàn, shǔyú guójiā guīdìng zhǔnyǔ bǎoshuì de Yīngdāng xiàng hǎiguān bànlǐ héxiāo shǒuxù; shǔyú xiān zhēngshōu shuikuǎn de, yīfǎ xiàng hǎiguān bànlǐ tuìshuì shǒuxù (CLPRC, 2012).

Translation: The finished products for processing trade shall be exported within the specified time limit. For those imported materials used for the purpose that are bonded with approval given in accordance with State regulations, formalities for the records of bond shall be written off with the Customs; where duties are collected in advance, formalities for the drawback of the duties paid shall be completed with the Customs in accordance with law.

(c) Article 109: Qǐsù yīngdāng xiàng rénmin fǎyuàn dìjiāo qǐsùzhuàng, bìng ànzhào bèigàorénshù tíchū fùběn (CPLPRC, 2011).

Translation: When the lawsuit is brought, a statement of complaint shall be provided to the People’s Court, and copies of the statement shall be provided according to the number of defendants.

(d) Article 190: Zhàiquánrén tíchū shēnqǐng hòu, rénmin fǎyuàn yīngdāng zài wǔ rì nèi tōngzhī zhàiquánrén shìfǒu shòulǐ (CPLPRC, 2011).

Translation: After the creditor has submitted his application, the People’s Court shall inform the creditor within five days whether it accepts the application or not.

Translation of the Unmarked Chinese “Yīnggāi” or “Yīngdāng”

Apart from the above-mentioned marked Chinese words, there are also some unmarked expressions with “yīngdāng,” “yīnggāi,” or “yīng” absent, but with the close meaning to that of “shall.” Under this circumstance, whether “shall” is employed in the translation depends on the legal relation concluded from

the expression. The legal relation are indicated by a clause introduced by “yóu” after a conditional clause or with the help of “yǒu,” “bì(bìxū),” or “yǔyǐ.” Examples are as follows:

(a) Article 82: Yǒu qiánkuǎn suǒliè xíngwéi zhī yī, shàng bú gòuchéng fànzuì de, yóu hǎiguān mòshōu zōusī huòwù、 wùpǐn jí wéifǎ suǒdé, kěyǐ bīngchǔ fákuǎn; zhuānmén huòzhě duōcì yòngyú yǎnhù zōusī de huòwù、 wùpǐn, zhuānmén huòzhě duōcì yòngyú zōusī de yùnshū gōngjù, yǔyǐ mòshōu, cángnì zōusī huòwù、 wùpǐn de tèzhì shèbèi, zéling chāihuǐ huòzhě mòshōu (CLPRC, 2012).

Translation: Anyone who commits any of the acts listed in the preceding paragraph, which is not serious enough to constitute a crime, the Customs shall confiscate the smuggled goods, articles and illegal gains and it may also impose a fine on the person; the Customs shall confiscate the goods or articles that are specially or repeatedly used for shielding smuggling and the means of transport that are specially or repeatedly used for smuggling, and it shall order that the equipment specially made for concealing smuggled goods or articles be demolished or confiscated them.

(b) Article 59: Xià liè mínshì xíngwéi, yīfāng yǒuquán qǐngqiú rénmin fǎyuàn huòzhě zhòngcái jīguān yǔyǐbiàngēng huòzhě chèxiāo (GPCLPRC, 2011).

Translation: A party shall have the right to request a people’s court or an arbitration agency to alter or rescind the following civil acts.

(c) Article 59: Yǒu xià liè qíngxíng zhī yī zhě, wěituō dàilǐ zhōngzhǐ (GPCLPRC, 2011).

Translation: An entrusted agency shall end under any of the following circumstances.

(d) Article 8: Jīnchūjìng yùnshū gōngjù、 huòwù、 wùpǐn, bixū tōngguò shèli hǎiguān de dìdiǎn jìnjìng huò chūjìng (CLPRC, 2012).

Translation: All inward and outward means of transport, goods and articles shall enter or leave the territory at a place where there is a Customs office.

Translation of Legal English with “Shall” or Without “Shall”

Legal meanings of “shall” emphasize the “due” and “indispensable” rights and obligation in jurisprudence. In other words, such rights and obligation should be exerted in jurisprudence. If no such “shall” is used, it means that the written-down-in-laws rights and obligation are so clear a fact that no further enforcement is to be exerted in jurisprudence. The following three groups of examples show, clearly, such differences between sentences with “shall” and sentences without “shall.”

Group One

(a) Any violation of subsection shall be punishable.

Translation: Rènhe fēnjié de wéifǎn dōu yìng yǔyǐ chéngfǎ.

(b) Any violation of subsection is punishable.

Translation: Rènhe fēnjié de wéifǎn dōu kě chéngfǎ.

Group Two

(a) Each proposal shall include the following.

Translation: Měi xiàng tíyì yìng bāokuò yǐxià nèiróng.

(b) Each proposal includes the following.

Translation: Měi xiàng tíyì dōu bāokuò yǐxià nèiróng.

Group Three

(a) The party shall be liable for damages of it is under one of the circumstances.

Translation: Dāngshìrén zài dìnglǐ hétóng guòchéng zhōng yǒu xià liè qíngxíng zhī yī, yīngdāng chéngdān sùnhài péicháng zérèn.

(b) The contract established according to law becomes effective when it is established.

Translation: Yīfǎ chénglì de hétóng, zì chénglì shí shēngxiào.

Legal Meanings of “May” and the Translation

In legal English, the modal verb “may” has two main interpretations. One is stated as “being allowed to or have permission to,” which is used mostly in laws and regulations. The other is to “be in some degree likely to,” which is used mostly in contracts.

Translation of “May” in Statutory Text

The legal English “may” is used to express the legal meaning of “having permission to”; and the Chinese “kě” or “kěyǐ” is equivalently used in this case. The following examples from laws and regulations indicate such kind of usage.

(a) Article 142: Zhōnghuá Rénmín Gònghéguó fǎlǜ hé Zhōnghuá Rénmín Gònghéguódìjīe huòzhě cānjiā de guóji tiányuē méiyǒu guīding de, kěyǐ shìyòng guóji guànlǐ (GPCLPRC, 2011).

Translation: International practice may be applied on matters of which neither the law of the People’s Republic of China nor any international treaty concluded or acceded to by the People’s Republic of China has any provisions.

(b) Article 56: Mínhì fǎlǜ xíngwéi kěyǐ cǎiqǔ shūmiàn xíngshì、 kǒutóu xíngshìhuòzhě qítā xíngshì (GPCLPRC, 2011).

Translation: A civil juristic act may be in written, oral or other form.

(c) Article 139: Rénmín fǎyuàn shēnlǐ ànjiàn, qízhōng yí bùfen shìshí yǐjīng qīngchǔ, kěyǐjiù gāi bùfen xiān xíng pànjué (CPLPRC, 2011).

Translation: If some of the facts in a case being tried by the People’s Court are already evident, the Court may pass judgment on that part of the case first.

(d) Article 154: Dāngshìrén duì chóngshēn ànjiàn de pànjué、 cáiding, kěyǐ shàngsù (CPLPRC, 2011).

Translation: The parties concerned may appeal against the judgment or written order rendered in a retrial of their case.

Translation of “May” in Contractual Texts

Principally, the meaning of “may” in legal English includes “likely,” “possible,” or “perhaps,” and the practical situation is that ambiguous interpretations of “may” is more likely to happen between “possibility” and “permission” (Fu, 2010). In legal Chinese texts, “kěyǐ” or “yěkěyǐ” is employed to express such meanings of “possibility” contained by “may” in legal English texts. The following are examples of such usages from contractual texts:

(a) Article 9: Dāngshìrén yīfǎ kěyǐ wěituō dàilǐrén dìnglǐ hétóng (CLPRC, 2010).

Translation: The parties may conclude a contract through an agent in accordance with the law.

(b) Article 228: Chéngzūrén kěyǐ yāoqiú jiǎnshǎo zūjīn huòzhě bù zhīfù zūjīn (CLPRC, 2010).

Translation: The lessee may request a reduction of rent or not to pay the rent.

(c) Article 248: Chūzūrén kěyǐ yāoqiú zhīfù quánbù zūjīn; yě kěyǐ jiěchúhétong, shōu huí zūlínwù (CLPRC, 2010).

Translation: The lessor may request it to pay all the rent, or rescind the contract and take back the leased property.”

(d) Article 272: Fābāorén kěyǐ yǔ zǒng chéngbāorén dìnglì jiànshè gōngchén ghétong, yě kěyǐ fēnbié yǔ kānchárén、shèjìrén、shīgōngrén dìnglì kānchá、shèjì、shīgōng chéngbāo hétong (CLPRC, 2010).

Translation: The contract letting party may enter into a construction project contract with a general contractor, or enter into a survey contract, design contract or construction contract with a surveyor, designer or constructor respectively.

Translation of “May Not” and “Shall Not” in Legal Text

The negative forms “may not” and “shall not” are more difficult to translate than that of the affirmative forms “may” and “shall” in legal English. The problem is to which part of the sentence the negative form is related: it could be related with the modal verb, the predicate verb, or the subject of the sentence. As a result, ambiguity might happen when the negative form is involved, and its correct legal meaning is hard to decide. When modal verb “may” or “shall” is used together with negation, illocutionary effect is an issue that should be taken into consideration. The prohibitive phrase “may not” indicates the “cancellation of permission,” and “shall not” is endowed with the directive illocutionary effect by the word “shall.” Besides, “shall not” contains the meaning of forbiddance or prevention of possible future conducts. Therefore, the meaning of “shall not” is different from that of “may not” as “shall not” is of the meaning of preventing certain prospective conducts from happening. Examples are given as follows to make further explanations.

(a) Article 43: Dāngshìrén zài dìnglì hétong guòchéng zhōng zhīxī shāngyè mìmì, wúlùn hétong shìfǒu chénglì, bù dé xièlòu huòzhě bú zhèngdāng dì shǐyòng (CLPRC, 2010).

Translation: A business secret the parties learn in concluding a contract shall not be disclosed or unfairly used, no matter the contract is established or not.

(b) Article 7: Gè dìfāng gè bùmén yīngdāng zhīchí hǎiguān yīfǎ xíngshǐ zhíquán, bùdé fěifǎ gān yù hǎiguān de zhífǎ huódòng (CLPRC, 2012).

Translation: Local authorities and all departments shall support the Customs offices in exercising their functions and powers according to law; they may not illegally interfere in the Customs enforcement of law.

The two examples above employ “bùdé” to translate “shall not” or “may not,” but the legal meanings are different. The first example contains the meaning of “preventing certain prospective conducts from happening.” While second example contains the meaning of “cancellation of permission”, which is contrast to the meaning of “being allowed to or have permission to.”

“May not” and “shall not” are obviously different in legal English. “Shall not” is featured by its directive illocutionary effect, and it contains the meaning of prevention of certain prospective conducts. “May not” is featured by its declarative illocutionary effect close to that of terms of agreement, and it contains the implicit meaning related permission instead of cancellation of permission exists in legal documents.

Conclusion

Legal English “shall” is of the directive illocutionary effect. It could be translated into marked “yīnggāi or yīngdāng” when it refers to “obligation.” When there is no such marked “yīnggāi or yīngdāng” in legal Chinese texts, whether or not “shall” is used in the translation, depends on the legal intention of the documents and the linguistic context. The negative form “shall not” defines the meaning of prevention of certain prospective conducts except for its directive illocutionary effect, and is usually translated into “bú yīnggāi” or “bú yīngdāng.”

Legal English “may” is more frequently used in contractual texts, with the directive illocutionary effect close to terms of agreements, and could be translated into “kě” when it expresses “having permission to.” “May not” is of the declarative illocutionary effect close to terms of agreement and is translated into “bùkě” with the meaning different from that of “shall not.”

Since there are no full equivalents of “shall” or “may” in legal Chinese, nor full equivalent legal interpretations, there is no perfect translation of “shall” or “may.” Only by better understanding of the semantic differences between legal English and Chinese modal verbs can we interpret and translate the legal texts better.

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Translation Redefined: Significance of Feminist Translation Theory

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[Abstract] *Feminist translation theory has redefined translation as “rewriting,” giving fresh impetus to translation studies. This paper explores the significance of feminist translation theory, which contributes a completely new angle for us to view the three long-discussed problems: the relationship between the original and the translated text, the issue of fidelity, and the invisibility of the translator.*

[Keywords] *feminist translation; significance; relationship; fidelity; invisibility*

Introduction

According to Luise von Flotow, a favorable cultural context for feminist translation was created around the 1970s by the women’s liberation movement, which brought gender into academic discussions and redefined language as a powerful political tool. Feminist experimental writing by Hélène Cixous, Mary Daly, Nicole Brossard, and Louky Bersianik all contributed to politicizing translators and initiated a wave of new translation practices, including translating the body, cultural puns, and word play; “sanitizing” sexist and/or racist representations; asserting the presence of the feminist translating subject; and recovering women’s writing “lost” in patriarchy (Flotow, 2004, pp. 1-34). Gradually, researchers in the translation circle began to carry on translation studies from the perspective of feminism. In the context which nurtured the approach that came to be known as feminist translation theory, the Canadians, in particular, play a leading role, and among them the most famous ones are Barbara Godard, Sherry Simon, Susanne de Lotbinière-Harwood, and Luise von Flotow. Their theories of translation reveal increasing gender awareness and have enriched translation studies with new insights into the process of translation and into the translator’s identity.

Translation Redefined

Translation is, of course, a rewriting of an original text. All rewritings, whatever their intention, reflect a certain ideology and a poetics and, as such, manipulate literature to function in a given society in a given way. Rewriting is manipulation, undertaken in the service of power, and in its positive aspect can help in the evolution of a literature and a society. Rewritings can introduce new concepts, new genres, and new devices, and the history of translation is the history also of literary innovation, of the shaping power of one culture upon another. But rewriting can also repress innovation, distort and contain, and, in an age of ever increasing manipulation of all kinds, the study of the manipulation processes of literature as exemplified by translation can help us towards a greater awareness of the world in which we live (Bassnett & Lefevere, 2004, p. vii).

In these words, Susan Bassnett and André Lefevere, editors of a series of books on translation studies, equate translation with rewriting and recognize the possible changes that can be worked on a text through manipulation. The words reaffirm what we have long known about the false pretense that occurs in literature – that it is written, read, and translated – in a vacuum. As the focus of translation studies has

shifted toward an examination of the manipulations to which literature is subjected when it is translated, it has begun to analyze the personal, cultural, social, economic, and commercial contexts that act as determinants in any translation. It is in keeping with this new interest in how literature is manipulated by a translator that the discipline has begun to use the terms “rewriting” and “translation” interchangeably. One of the results of this change of focus is that translators have come to recognize their own power. As is the case of feminist translators, who, recognizing the promise and possibilities that translation can hold for them, take translation as a rewriting in the feminine and an ideal site for political intervention.

As an intellectual and literary movement, feminism has challenged the historical imbrication of gender and the translation tropes and has renewed translation theory. Within the feminist framework, translation involves more than narrow, technical issues, and it is seen not as a mechanical act of exchange or a neutral act of meaning transfer but, rather, a place where the center stage shows women’s concerns about how the issue of gender and, specifically, the politics of gender; it is a determining factor in a translation, and it is posited as “creative, not derivative, work,” as “production, not re-production” (Simon, 1996, p. 160). As Sherry Simon (1996, p. 9) remarks, translation refers to a process of interlinguistic transfer during which translators “communicate, re-write, manipulate a text in order to make it available to a second language public” through the using of language as cultural intervention as part of an effort to alter expressions of domination, whether at the level of concepts, of syntax, or of terminology. Since language not only mirrors reality but also contributes to its creation, it interferes actively in the creation of meaning in feminist translation. Feminist translators take language as a political weapon and use language for cultural intervention and as part of an effort to alter expressions of domination. They fragment the language at will, disregard conventional syntactic and semantic structures, and examine them more closely for concealed meanings. They reclaim derogatory vocabularies about women and recuperate long-lost meanings, and sometimes they even develop new terms. In this way, translation becomes a transgressive and aggressive approach that could be underlined by the view that “translation in the feminine is a political act and an act of women’s solidarity” (de Lotbinière-Harwood, 1991, p. 65). Feminist translators use translation to “get beyond the traditional dichotomies of source/target, primary/secondary, high/low, writing/rewriting, colonizer/colonized that characterize translation theory historically,” since such distinctions together with past theories of writing, art, and society have implied the subordination of women (Gentzler, 2004, p. 197). Through protruding into the text being translated, deliberately and decisively, feminist translators make “the masculine less visible and the feminine more visible in language” (Andone, 2003, p. 138). In other words, they refuse phallogentrism in language and open up the possibility of a different language, and thus the masculine is no longer dominant. Obviously, by assuming the feminine role deliberately, feminist translators “convert a form of subordination into a form of affirmation” (Andone 2003, p. 138). Feminist translation is, therefore, “a rewriting of those gendered qualities and attitudes ascribed to women” and “a political activity that has the objective of making women visible and resident in language and society” (Flotow, 2004, p. 27).

Strategies Adopted by Feminist Translators

The femininity of translation is a persistent historical trope. Women and translators have historically been the weaker and inferior figures in their respective hierarchies. The relationship between the original and the translated text echoes the general ties in a patriarchal society. That is, the original piece of writing is considered as the strong generative male and represents masculine actions, while the translated text is regarded as the weaker and derivative female and stands rather for feminine values and virtues. What

feminist translation theory aims to do is to go beyond these binary oppositions and “identify and critique the tangle of concepts which relegates both women and translation to the bottom of the social and literary ladder” (Simon, 1996, p. 1).

For feminist translators, “issues of sexism or women’s silencing need not only be pointed out, they need to be solved with deliberate feminist intervention that redresses the imbalance and places women directly into the language” (Flotow, 2004, pp. 27-28). Therefore, in order to achieve their goal “to make the feminine – i.e. women – visible” (de Lotbinière-Harwood, 1991, p. 101), feminist translators openly discuss their role as interventionists in the texts that they translate. They intervene to “make explicit a subtle feminist rhetorical effect” or to “introduce an appropriate feminist angle on the source text” “when they see a need to mitigate offensive forms of machismostic or misogynistic discourse” (Hatim, 2001, p. 53).

Feminist translators adopt a number of interventionist strategies in the process of translation to play with the language. For example, they encode new meanings with existing words as well as avoid, or at least use ironically, pejorative words designating women. What is more, they prefer puns, neologisms, and experimental forms. In her book *Translation and Gender*, Luise von Flotow emphasizes the fact that the cultural and social context of feminism has had much to do with the vigor and boldness of translation by feminist translators, and she then names and describes three practices of feminist translation: supplementing, prefacing and footnoting, and hijacking. Interpolation is also a strategy used by feminist translators. All these techniques offer the prospect of unveiling the concealed and masked meanings of words and to transmit their own beliefs.

Significance of Feminist Translation Theory

If we say traditional translation theory “based on conceptions of harmony, unified texts, an original idea that can be captured by an analogous text” (Gentzler, 2004, p. 150), is structuralism-based, then feminist translation theory is under great influence of deconstructivism. It has given fresh impetus to translation studies because it has challenged and, to some extent, even subverted the structuralism-based traditional translation theory. In traditional translation theory, the translated text is inferior to the original, and fidelity is the primary concern in the process of translation, and in order to achieve this goal, the translator must hide her/his subjectivity and try to be “invisible.” However, in feminist translation theory, the translated text and the original text are equal, and fidelity is reframed: it is “to be directed toward neither the author nor the reader, but toward the writing project – a project in which both writer and translator participate” (Simon, 1996, p. 2). As a result, the translator’s subjectivity is emphasized. In a word, feminist translation theory contributes a completely new angle for us to view the three long-discussed problems: the relationship between the original and the translated text, the issue of fidelity, and the invisibility of the translator.

The Relationship between the Original and the Translated Text

Translation has traditionally been looked upon as a secondary reproductive activity. In other words, the original always has the hierarchical authority over the translation, and the two are of binary opposition, like two poles. However, under the influence of the theory of intertextuality brought forth by Julia Kristeva and some others’ ideas of deconstructionism, feminist translation theory challenges the traditional notion of the “author” and the “authority” of the original, and, as a result, redefines the relationship between the original and the translated text “as interdependent, each bound to the other” (Simon, 1996, p. 11). The original and its translation are understood as “in a symbiotic relationship –

mutually supplementing each other, defining and redefining a phantasm of sameness, which never has existed nor will exist as something fixed, graspable, known, or understood” (Gentzler, 2004, p. 147). So, in feminist translation theory, the translated text is no longer in a secondary and degraded position as it is in traditional translation theory. The translated text does come after the original, but, at the same time, it extends and develops the intention of the original text, guides it into its relationship with its second public and makes it live on. The two are interdependent and bear a symbiosis relationship. This has subverted the traditional “master-slave” view of the original and its translated text and has, thus, provided us a new angle from which to see their relationship with each other.

The Issue of Fidelity

Traditionally, the meaning of the original text is seen as fixed and stable, and the translation process is regarded as a pure linguistic transfer so what a translator has to do is just to express and preserve the original meaning in another language. It is not surprising, therefore, that translation is considered to be a derivative “copy” or “reproduction” of the original text and that fidelity is deemed the first and highest criterion for assessing translation in traditional translation theory.

However, in the feminists’ point of view, absolute fidelity of the translated text towards the original text is, like the obedience of women towards men in the patriarchal society, unfair, indeed, since there exists a large amount of sex discrimination in language, and the so called “fidelity” is actually a deprivation of female speech and their visibility. Consequently, they turn to Derrida’s deconstructionist theory to deny the fixity of meaning and understand meaning as “a feature of a specific time, constructed for a specific purpose, by a specific individual working within a specific context” (Flotow, 2004, p. 96). And, therefore, “the fixity implied in the oppositions between languages, between original/copy, author/translator, and, by analogy, male/female, cannot be absolute; these terms are rather to be placed on a continuum where each can be considered in relative terms” (Simon, 1996, p. 12). Consequently, for the feminists, the translation process is not just a “copying” or “reproducing” process, but rather the translator’s intervention and rewriting and an innovative creation of the original text. Clearly, feminist translation theory emphasizes that equivalence in translation cannot be a one-to-one proposition and that the process of translation must be seen as a fluid production of meaning. Therefore, feminist translation reframes the question of “fidelity,” which has played like a stultifying refrain through the history of translation, and, in feminist translation theory, fidelity is to be directed toward a writing project that both the writer and translator participate in rather than the author and the reader.

The Invisibility of the Translator

The feminists’ gender awareness in translation has brought about a revision of another concept—the so-called invisibility of the translator. In traditional translation theory, “the translator is understood to be a servant, an invisible hand mechanically turning the word of one language into another” (Godard, 1990, p. 91). They are not to let their own vision of reality show in the translation but rather to function as the transparent channel that does not leave any mark on the target text. However, feminist translators have assumed the right to query their source texts from a feminist perspective, to intervene, and to make changes when the texts depart from this perspective (Flotow, 2004, p. 24). In their opinion, the traditional translation theory overemphasizes the translator’s invisibility and, as a result, denies their subjectivity. So, they begin to include their ideological convictions in their rewriting of the source text, asserting their identity and justifying the subjective aspects of their work. As Barbara Godard (1990, p. 91) writes in her book:

The feminist translator, affirming her critical difference, her delight in interminable re-reading and re-writing, flaunts the signs of her manipulation of the text. Womanhandling the text in translation would involve the replacement of the modest-self-effacing translator. The translator becomes an active participant in the creation of meaning... This is at odds with the long dominant theory of translation as equivalence grounded in a poetics of transparency.

Conclusion

We would like to summarize our paper by citing the insightful quotation that feminist translation is “a practice in visibility, and the cardinal concepts are: production, subversion, manipulation, transformance” (Hatim, 2001, p. 52). Feminist translation theory has enriched translation studies with new insights into the process of translation and into the translator’s identity. According to the theory, translation is not a passive linguistic transfer from one language into another but a creative process, not just in terms of art, but also in terms of identity formation and the evolution of the society as a whole. The translator, together with the original author, is seen as a creative, evolving subject, and the activity of translation as one that involves an active translator. In other words, the traditional master role of the original text is called into question, the translator’s authorial role is widely promoted, and the status of the translated text is highly improved.

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Extraction of Translators' Stylistic Features and Attribution of Translatorship

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[Abstract] Based on detailed analysis of different English versions of the same source texts, 31 stylistic features are extracted at the three levels of words, sentences, and discourse. A vector space model is established with these features, and translator attribution experiments are carried out with five text classifiers. Satisfactory attribution results are achieved on the basis of which features are selected through information gain. The result shows that the complexity of the experiments is reduced and the time used is shortened.

[Keywords] translators' style, stylistic features, attribution of translatorship

Introduction

In conveying the original style of a source text, translators will inevitably show their own styles. It has always been a subjective matter to comment on writer/translators' styles because there are no quantitative or formalized rules. A lot of research has been done on text classification in the field of computer science, but due to the inadequate research in the extraction of features in translated versions, machine text classification of translations has not yet started. This paper aims to study and propose the feature set that can fully reflect translators' stylistic characteristics and apply this set of features for text representation and text classification experiments, the results of which will verify the validity and reliability of the feature set.

Analysis and extraction of translators' stylistic features will not only provide a strong reference and feasible method for studies on translators, but also provide an effective means and serve as beneficial attempts for the computer to analyze translators' styles and to attribute the unidentified translator for a translated version.

Extraction of Translators' Stylistic Features

Stylistic features are often reflected through the frequency of some language phenomena. Stylistics mainly studies a writer's writing style. The translator is the subject of translation, and she/he is both the recipient of the source text and the creator of the translated text. Therefore, the translator is a special writer. Stylistic analysis is usually carried out at four levels: vocabulary, pronunciation, syntax, and discourse. In terms of translations, the level of pronunciation can be ignored. This paper will explore the translators' styles at three levels: words, sentences, and discourse.

Lexical Features

A translator's choice of words, that is the changes in using words, includes much useful information about his/her stylistic features (Huo, 2010a). If all the words in the translations are used as features for classification, there will be a dimensionality curse. To avoid this, the following lexical features are selected for further analysis and for dimension reduction.

1. The frequency of abbreviations in translations

2. The number of coinage
3. The use of exclamations such as lo, ah etc. because these words can reflect the translator's emotions in the process of translation
4. Lexical density, which is calculated by the number of notional words divided by the number of function words in this paper.
5. Type/Token Ratio (TTR): Type refers to the different words in a corpus and token refers to all word forms. The greater the TTR is, the larger the vocabulary used is in a translated text.
6. Word length: It is related to the complexity of the vocabulary used. The shorter the words are, the less difficult the translation is.
7. Word frequency: Also called a wordlist, it refers to the list of the types of words in accordance with the frequency of their usage. Word frequency reveals the translator's habit in using the common words in English when doing Chinese-English translation.

Syntactic Features

The sentence is a language unit that expresses a complete idea, whose form can reflect what the author/translator wants to convey, and that can satisfy the author/translator's communication needs. At the sentence level, the following features are analyzed:

- (a) The usage of personal pronouns (he, she, it, they): Their frequency tells the degree of explicitness and the translator's choice of strategy to increase the degree of clarity for the convenience of the target audience or to stick to the habit of the Chinese language with the source culture as the focus.
- (b) The average sentence (line) length: This is closely related to the amount of information it contains and the different lengths that will produce different stylistic effects. In translations, the length of the sentence determines whether or not the meaning of the source text is fully conveyed and whether or not there is any additional information or how the meaning is delivered.
- (c) Inversions: This paper counts two types of inversions—standard grammatical inversions and inversions made by the translator him/herself for the rhyming effect or rhetorical purpose.

Discourse-level Features

Textual analysis is the highest level of language analysis, which can provide an overall picture of the translator's language usage and his/her stylistic features.

- (a) Punctuation: Punctuation contains important grammatical information that reflects the translator's stylistic habits. For example, the number of semicolons may reflect the translator's concern for implicit cohesion in the English language.
- (b) That- introducing subordinate clauses: That- is a kind of connection which can be used to introduce objective, attribute clauses etc.... Since there are no clauses in Chinese, how many clauses are used in translated versions is another point that can be studied in Chinese-English translation. If the translator employs more clauses, the translation is more domesticated. Otherwise, it is foreignized.
- (c) Explicit cohesive devices: These mainly refer to adding such coordinators and subordinators as "and, or, but, because, since, for," It is acknowledged that Chinese is paratactic and

English is hypotactic. In the Chinese source text, all these relationships are implied and are made explicit and normalized in the English translation by adding cohesive devices (Shao, 2005).

Extraction of Stylistic Features

A corpus-based comparative study of three translators' stylistic features has been done first (Huo, 2010b), and 31 stylistic features are extracted at three levels of words, sentences and discourse. They are represented as a1 a31, shown in Table 1:

Table 1. Number and Meaning of Features

Feature Number	Meaning	Feature Number	Meaning
a1	Abbreviations	a17	Coordinator: but
a2	Coinage	a18	Cause and effect: because
a3	Inversions	a19	Cause and effect: since
a4	Exclamations such as lo, ah, etc.	a20	Cause and effect: for
a5	The length of words per line	a21	Concession: though
a6	Periods	a22	Concession: although
a7	Question marks	a23	Concession: as though
a8	Exclamation marks	a24	Time: when
a9	Semicolons	a25	Time: while
a10	Lexical density	a26	Time: until
a11	TTR	a27	Time: before
a12	Personal pronouns	a28	Time: after
a13	Sentence length (the line length)	a29	Time: as
a14	That-	a30	Condition: if
a15	Coordinator: and	a31	Condition: as if
a16	Coordinator: or		

Attribution of Translatorship

Research in translatorship attribution both at home and abroad has not yet started, and this study attempts to identify translators with the help of the technology in authorship attribution. The overall evaluation of translators' styles can be regarded as the classification of certain texts, which, in turn, become pattern recognition in machine learning, that is, text classification. The features extracted above will be used for translatorship attribution, and the results will verify the validity of these characteristics.

Selection and Pretreatment of Texts

The texts for the translatorship attribution experiment are translated by three different translators, two Chinese, and one English translator. One reason is that the texts are different versions of the same Chinese texts. Another reason is that the translators, who have different cultural backgrounds, represent the Chinese translators and English-speaking translators in general. Thus, there is a comparative significance. Wang Rongpei's translations include 142 poems from Six Dynasties Poetry and 80 poems from The Book of Songs; Xu Yuanchong's translations include 150 poems from Golden Treasury of Chinese Poetry in Han, Wei and Six Dynasties and 72 poems from The Book of Songs; James Legge's

translations of 260 poems from The Book of Songs. With roughly the same number of translations of the same source texts, the experiments are comparable and reliable.

The first step is pretreatment. The quality of data preparation directly affects the efficiency of text classification, accuracy and validity of the final model. In our pretreatment step, the format of texts is unified. Alignment and annotation are also done during data processing. We tried to preserve the original message in the translations, but those lines which cannot be aligned and which are not essential for our research are removed. The 4 kinds of data clean-up include:

- (a) Chinese lines deleted without corresponding English
- (b) English lines deleted without corresponding Chinese
- (c) Condensed translation: English goes to the Chinese closer in meaning and the other line of Chinese is deleted
- (d) Adjusting the order of translation

The Vector Space (VSM) Model

A vector space model regards a document as the vector space generated by a set of orthogonal vectors. Each document (Doc) is represented as one of the standardized feature vector, as in

$$V(\text{Doc})=(\text{val}(t_1), \dots, \text{val}(t_i), \dots, \text{val}(t_m)) \quad (1)$$

In which t_i is the entry item, and $\text{val}(t_i)$ is the degree of importance t_i enjoys in the Doc. The Doc is seen composed of a group of independent entry items (t_1, t_2, \dots, t_m) , and the t_1, t_2, \dots, t_m is regarded as an m -dimensional coordinate system axis. Each t_i is weighted $0 \leq \text{val}(t_i) \leq 1$ according to its importance, and the $\text{val}(t_i)$ is the coordinate value. Thus, the vector space is obtained by the orthogonal decomposition of (t_1, t_2, \dots, t_m) , and each document is mapped to a point in this space. All documents and user objectives can be mapped to this vector space, so the matching of the documents becomes vector matching in a vector space. The midpoint distance in the m -dimensional space is measured with the cosine of the angle between vectors, which also shows the degree of similarity between documents. Assume the user target as U , the unknown documents as V_i , the smaller the angle the higher the similarity between documents. Similarity is calculated as follows:

$$\text{Similarly, } (V_i, U) = \text{COS}(V_i, U) = \frac{\sum_{k=1}^m \text{val}_{v_i}(t_k) \cdot \text{val}_u(t_k)}{\sqrt{\sum_{k=1}^m \text{val}_{v_i}(t_k)^2} \sqrt{\sum_{k=1}^m \text{val}_u(t_k)^2}} \quad (2)$$

VSM method can be formally described as: the mapping function $f: T \rightarrow [0, 1]$, where $T = (t_1, t_2, \dots, T_m)$ is a collection of document metadata, while $0 \leq \text{val}(t_i) \leq 1$, $\text{val}(t_i)$ describes the relative importance of documents and document sets.

This study uses each translation (here referring specifically to the translation of each poem) as a vector space point (vector), and the dimension is the number of selected features.

Experiments of Translatorship Attribution

The 10-fold cross-validation is adopted for accuracy assessment of the experiments – the data set is randomly divided into 10 disjoint, roughly the same number of data subsets. Each subset, in turn, is used as a test sample, and the other 9 groups are used as training samples. Therefore, there form a total number of 10 different groups of training sets and testing sets.

Commonly used performance indexes for the assessment of classification algorithms are adopted, including the average accuracy rate, the average F value, the actual computation time, and ROC curve

area surrounded (AUC). The average F value and the surrounding area under the ROC curve (AUC) are introduced as follows:

The average F value:

Common accuracy assessment indexes of text classification are precision and recall, of which

Precision = number of correct texts / actual number of texts for classification; Recall refers to of all the results the rate of texts returned in the correct proportion. F-measure results when considering both precision and recall and

$F\text{-measure} = 2 * \text{recall} * \text{precision} / (\text{recall} + \text{precision})$

F-measure combines precision and recall and obtains an overall performance value.

AUC – The ROC area under the curve:

ROC curve (Receiver Operating Characteristics Analysis) is introduced by the signal detection theory, and AUC (Area Under the Curve) has very important statistical characteristics. The AUC of a classifier indicates the probability of correct cases to the negative cases, and it can show where and how much a classifier is superior to other classifiers (FAWCETT, 2001).

Experimental Results with Five Classifiers

The translated texts by Wang Rongpei, Xu Yuanchong, and James Legge were applied to five different classification algorithms, including Naive Bayes, and support vector machine, etc., and the classification results are shown in Table 2:

Table 2. Comparison of Results with Five Classification Algorithms

Classifier	Average accuracy	Average F-measure	Computation time	AUC
KNN(K=3)	83.432%	0.8343	0.1 s	0.955
Naive Bayes	93.3432%	0.9333	0.03 s	0.994
SMO	93.6391%	0.9637	0.73 s	0.993
Bayesian Net	99.1124%	0.9907	0.06 s	0.999
Decision Tree	98.5207%	0.9843	0.13 s	0.995

Feature Selection after the Information Gain

Informatics is to measure the amount of information after the elimination of uncertainty in various symbols in the information source (Pan & Han, 2003). For a sample T, entropy can be used to indicate the amount of information it contains and to define the standard of the features to classify training data. This standard is known as “information gain.” The information gain of a feature refers to the phenomenon that the use of this attribute can lead to the decreased expected entropy. The information gain for feature A for sample T is Gain (T, A) and it is defined as

$$\text{Gain}(T,A)=E(T) - E(A) \quad (3)$$

Gain (T, A) is the expected compression of entropy resulted from the knowledge of feature A’s value. Information gain of a feature can be used to determine its significance in text classification performance: the larger the value, the greater the impact of the feature on the classification (Wang et al., 2003).

First, with the use of information gain measure in informatics, the information gain of each feature in every version was calculated. The features would be reordered according to the results of calculation in descending order. The features before i in the new order would be used as the feature set for translatorship attribution experiments. The information gain of those attributes after the i index is very small, which means their influence on the classification is minimal.

Having calculated the information gain value of the 31 features, we found that the information gain of the features after the 18th is very small, so we chose to use features 1-18 as the feature set. Table 3 shows the 18 features in the descending order according to their information gain:

Table 3. Features Reordered after Information Gain

Features	Meaning	Information Gain Value	Order
a10	Lexical density	1.044	1
a12	The use of personal pronouns	0.5664	2
a11	Type/Token Ratio	0.3959	3
a1	Abbreviations	0.2479	4
a13	Average Sentence length (Line Length)	0.2137	5
a3	Inversion	0.1548	6
a20	Cause and Effect: for	0.1035	7
a14	That-	0.06	8
a9	Semicolon	0.0597	9
a6	Period	0.0565	10
a24	Time: when	0.0514	11
a15	Coordinator: and	0.0503	12
a2	Coinage	0.0429	13
a29	Time: as	0.037	14
a5	The length of words per line	0.0341	15
a25	Time: while	0.0205	16
a8	Exclamation Mark	0.0198	17
a26	Time: until	0.0143	18

Experiments with the Features Filtered after Information Gain

With the 18 features extracted after the information gain as the new vector space dimensions, a new VSM model was set for the representation of the texts, and classification experiments with five classifiers of Naive Bayes, and SVM, etc., were carried out. The results are shown in Table 4.

Table 4. Comparison of Results with Five Classification Algorithms after the Information Gain

Classifier	Average Accuracy	The Average F Value	Computation Time	AUC
KNN(K=3)	95.9459 %	0.9595	0.1 s	0.959
Naive Bayes	99.3243%	0.993	0.03 s	0.998
SMO	98.8739 %	0.989	0.44 s	0.989
Bayesian Net	99.5495 %	0.995	0.05 s	0.999
Decision Tree	99.0991 %	0.991	0.39 s	0.993

The classification results show that with the feature set after the Information Gain, there is no significant change in the average classification accuracy rate, average F-measure, and AUC, but the complexity of experiments has been reduced, and the time consumed has been shortened, so a better result has been obtained.

Conclusion

This paper has done a detailed stylistic analysis of the different English translation versions of the same source texts at three levels, words, sentences, and discourse, and has extracted 31 features. The translatorship attribution experiments with these features have verified the validity and reliability of these

features. On this basis, features are selected and filtered with Information Gain. As a result, the complexity of experiments has been reduced, and a better classification result has been achieved.

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On Cosmetics Advertisement Translation from the Perspective of Skopos Theory

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[Abstract] With the development of economic globalization, plenty of foreign commodities swarm into the Chinese market, among which are a great number of foreign cosmetics. Because of the different cosmetic brands, there is great competition. Consequently, cosmetics advertising becomes the most direct way to attract the consumers. The translation of cosmetics advertisements is significant. This thesis mainly studies cosmetics advertisement translation from the perspective of the Skopos theory. It analyzes many examples to demonstrate the strategies of cosmetics advertisement translation from the perspective of the Skopos theory so that it can direct the translators' work and make their translation more precise, making advertisements be more attractive.

[Keywords] cosmetics advertisement; Skopos theory; translation strategies

Introduction

With the development of economic globalization, China has become a large market with great potential. Many foreign commodities swarm into Chinese markets, among which are foreign cosmetics. The best way to promote cosmetics sales is advertising. Advertising is an important part of modern business. Nobody in a modern society can escape advertisements in his or her daily life. Thus, cosmetics advertisement is one of the most effective and useful ways of promoting sales. Some foreign cosmetics try to come into the Chinese market, so the advertisements need to be translated into Chinese, and vice versa. In this case, the translation of cosmetics advertisements is crucial in business activities. However, the attention to cosmetics advertisements at home and abroad is insufficient. Besides, the quality of the translation of cosmetics advertisement is not very high. There are many mistakes in the cosmetics advertisement translation, so it is very necessary for us to study the cosmetics advertisement translation.

Nowadays, a large number of overseas or domestic researchers and scholars have done many investigations on cosmetics advertisement translation. First, much has been discussed about cosmetics advertisement translation's features and functions. Second, cosmetics advertisement translation has been researched on its principles and techniques. Furthermore, some translators would like to apply some theories of translation to direct cosmetics advertisement translation; one theory is the Skopos theory. Therefore, in this thesis, the author is going to discuss cosmetics advertisement translation from the perspective of the Skopos theory. The thesis attempts to apply the Skopos theory in cosmetics advertisement translation to direct the translators' work and make their translation more exact, make the advertisement be more attractive, and make the products better suit the public's demand.

General Review of Skopos Theory

The Skopos theory was introduced by Hans J. Vermeer in the 1970s. Skopos is a Greek word meaning "purpose." The Skopos theory, as a necessary part in the functionalist approach to translation, widens the field of the translation theory. It can guide the translators' work and make the translation more precise.

The Skopos theory is one of the most important theories in the functionalist approaches to translation. The Skopos theory focuses, above all, on the purpose of the translation (Munday, 2001). In other words, the purposes of the translation determine the strategies of the translation. As long as it can reach the purpose of the translation, the translator can adopt the literal translation, the free translation that may totally change the original text or the other strategies of translation. Skopos theory is a proposed approach to translation (Vermeer, 1989). The strategies of translation are decided by the translation purposes. According to the principle, the original text just provides some information. To adapt to the new social environment and meet the requirements of some people who read the translation and to realize the function of translations, the translator shouldn't only refer to the original text. Instead, the translation should achieve one or several social functions in the target language circumstances. The Skopos theory doesn't consider faith as the major standard of translation (Vermeer, 1989). From the above opinion, it's not difficult to see that the Skopos theory considers the reader as its center and the target language as its orientation. With the study of its definition, the research on Skopos theory, as applied to cosmetics advertisement translation, will go smoothly.

Rules of the Skopos Theory

Skopos theory points out that in the process of translation three rules should be followed: Skopos rule, coherence rule, and fidelity rule.

The Skopos Rule

The Skopos rule is considered the most important rule in any translation, which means that the result of translation is decided by its aim. Each text is produced for a given purpose and should serve this purpose. The Skopos rule, thus, reads as follows: translate or interpret in a way that enables the text or translation to function in the situation in which it is used and with the people who want to use it and precisely in the way they want it to function (Vermeer, 1989). From the above explanation, the Skopos rule means that a translational action is decided by its purpose. Most translation actions may have many purposes, and the translator needs to justify which one to choose. In different situations, Skopos provides different standards for choosing the suitable translation strategy. According to the Skopos theory, skopos usually refers to the purpose of the target text. The prime principle determining any translation process is the purpose of the overall translation action (Nord, 2001). Thus, translators should be clear that in cosmetics advertisement translation the purpose is the advertising purpose, which is the sales promotion strategy.

The Coherence Rule

Coherence Rule, also called as the intertextual coherence, requires the message (target text) created by the translator to be interpretable in a way meeting with target recipient situation (Reiss & Vermeer, 1984). It means that the translation should be readable and acceptable, which makes the target language more coherent. The translated text should make sense to target receivers. Since the target text and source text are, on most, occasions in different cultural systems, the target text should be acceptable to targeted receivers just as the source text is to source receivers. By the coherence rule, the translator is expected to produce an article conforming to the expectations of the target readers. The text should let the readers understand their background situation and knowledge easily.

The Fidelity Rule

Besides the Skopos rule and coherence rule, there is another important rule: the fidelity rule. The target text is intended to deliver some information of the source text; thus, the target text should be loyal to the source text to some degree. When it comes to the fidelity rule, the most important aspect is the “degree” mentioned above. That is to say, to what extent the translator should be loyal to the source text depends on his choice. To be exact, it is determined by the purpose, that is the skopos of the target text. The fidelity rule indicates that there is an internal relationship between the original text and the target text. Vermeer calls this relationship “fidelity” or “inter-textual coherence.” It depends on how the translator interprets the original text and the translation Skopos. In the Skopos theory, inter-textual coherence doesn’t always mean total combination with the original text. This rule will be judged to be present to the extent that there is consistency between 1) the original source text messages intended by the text producer 2) the way the translator interprets this message, and 3) the way in which the translator encodes the message for the target text recipient. If there is coherence between these three aspects then, the “fidelity rule” is being used (Shuttleworth & Cowie, 2004).

Features of Cosmetics Advertisement Language

The function of cosmetics advertisement is to attract consumers’ attention and promote the sales of goods. To achieve that function, an advertisement should possess certain features. First, the cosmetics advertisement language should be simple and spoken. Almost everyone likes to spend time reading short and concise sentences in a cosmetics advertisement. Only when it is simple and colloquial can it stand out from many cosmetics advertisements.

Second, cosmetics advertisement should be interesting and attractive. The most important thing for advertisements is to grab the audience’s attention. When people watch advertisements, they may find that only those attractive ones can grab their attention and lead them to read more. Surely, being attractive is not sufficient. After drawing one’s attention, the interesting advertisement will provoke people’s desire to buy the products.

Third, a successful advertisement should give consumers a deep impression. A successful cosmetics advertisement must convince the audience that what is being sold is better than other similar products so that the consumers go to the market, they will choose the one that they remember. Therefore, making the advertisement easy to remember is the decisive key to the success of an advertisement campaign.

Apart from all the above features, beauty of language in cosmetics advertisement, both English and Chinese, is equally important. Cosmetics products aim at bringing beauty to people. So, the language of cosmetics advertisement should let the consumers feel beautiful and exquisite. Only attractive, refined expressions can evoke people’s imagination of beauty and the desire for owning beauty, and it finally will make them buy the cosmetics products. So, when translating the cosmetics advertisement, these features should also be realized.

Translation Strategies of Cosmetics Advertisement from the Perspective of Skopos Theory

When substances become abundant, people’s tastes will change at the same time. Many brands of cosmetics try their best to do attractive advertising to draw customers’ attention. However, most customers can not make a decision when they face so many foreign cosmetics advertisements. In this situation, the translation of advertisement shows its value and becomes most important. Then, the Skopos theory, which plays an essential role in the functionalist approaches to translation, makes a breakthrough

in the framework of the traditional theories. The following part of this paper will divide the strategies of cosmetics advertisement translation into four parts from the perspective of Skopos theory.

Literal Translation

Literal translation means to transfer the elements of the source text into the target text without too many adaptations and alterations. However, it doesn't need to translate every word according to the original text. When it comes to some special situation, it needs to do some little adjustments. For example, if the translators use some common phrases or sentences, it will be easier for the English readers to understand and accept. Literal translation is used to deal with obvious meaning and simply structured sentences (Nord, 2001). Literal translation can pass the meaning of cosmetics advertisements to the consumers and let them know the purpose of the advertisement, the product, and the service of the advertisement. For example:

(1) Source of Enchantment (Lancome)

诱惑之源（兰蔻香水）

Most of the cosmetics advertisements are made for women. As the old saying goes, "Everybody appreciates his/her own beauty." Especially, women pay more attention to their beauty. The perfume of Lancome fixes "enchantment" as its theme to grab the psychological character of women's. Therefore, during translating, if the translation abides by the original text, the translation will convey the message very well.

(2) The most unforgettable women in the world wear Revlon. (Revlon)

世界上最令人难忘的女人都用露华浓。（露华浓）

In this advertisement, the phrase "the most unforgettable women" is translated into "最令人难忘的女人", which creates a nice image. It utilizes the psychology that women want to be more beautiful and fashionable. Almost every woman wants to be unforgettable. So, the translation presents the connotation of unforgettable beauty in the original text. In this example, there are no big differences between the source and the target language in content and form.

The advantage of this strategy is to present the original meaning to the consumers very well. Clearly, it's better to use literal translation in these cosmetics advertisements to express the translator's purpose.

Addition

Addition is commonly used in translation practice. It uses some words, phrases, or complex sentences to enrich the content of the source text. Actually, addition always adds what is implied but not explicitly expressed in the form (Newmark, 2001). For consumers' better understanding of cosmetics advertisement translation, the translators apply addition to attract customers' attention. For example:

(1) The Fragrance for Treasured Moments (Lancome)

献给那段值得珍惜的美好时光（兰蔻香水）

For the most people, the "treasure moment" is in their youth. "献给" and "值得" are added to emphasize the importance of the perfume. It shows that people will recall that nice moment when they use the perfume. The translator tries to attract the consumers' attention through reviewing the youth.

(2) Clean, clear and under control (Clean & Clear)

干净，光洁，一切尽在掌握（可伶可俐）

This cosmetic advertisement directly expresses the feature of the product. The product suits youth. For most youth, their faces are usually oily, especially in summer. This advertisement utilizes this kind of

psychology. The consumers may think that if they use the product, their faces won't look oily in summer. “一切尽在” is added to emphasize that the product can not only keep the face clean but also keep it clear for a long time. It achieves the goal of introducing information and appealing attention. Here, addition is very useful and practical. It can reach the purpose that the adding parts will explain the source text well and let the target text be more attractive and persuasive.

Free Translation

Because of sharp differences between Chinese and English cultures, the strategy of free translation is frequently used in the translation, especially in cosmetics advertisement translation. Free translation reproduces the matter without the manner or the content without the form of the original. Free translation tries to express the original meaning in another form of the target text. Here are some examples that can prove it.

(1) *The One Fragrance that will make you forget all others. (Ornbre)*

一瓶在手，不恋他香（翁伯玫瑰香水）

In this example, the form of English is different from the form of Chinese. In the source language, there is a simple attributive clause, but, in the Chinese translation, four-character phrases play an important role. This advertisement tells the consumers that if they use Ombre perfume, they won't want to use the others because Ombre is the best one. In the target text, all the useful information is kept. Although there are some great changes on syntactic level, the target text achieves the purpose of delivering information and attracting readers.

(2) *Because you're worth it (L'OREAL)*

你值得拥有（欧莱雅）

It isn't translated into “因为你是值得它的” instead of using another way to translate it. “拥有” adds the value to the product, and it also makes the target language more persuasive. It tells the customers that they won't regret buying the product.

In the above examples, the translations of the original advertisements are different from the form of the source-texts. In some examples, the English version is simple, while the Chinese version consists of four-character expressions. The form of the source text and the target text is changed, so free translation works here. It can help the translators can achieve the purpose that free translation needs to reach and let the target language draw more consumers' attention.

Beautification

Because of the features and functions of cosmetics advertisements, the translators can't ignore beautification. Beautification is to use some words or sentences to redecorate the source text in translation, which will result in drawing buyers' attention. The following examples may illustrate this point.

(1) 要想皮肤好，早晚用大宝。（大宝）

Applying Dabao twice a day keeps dim and rough skin away (Dabao)

There is a saying in English that “An apple a day keeps file doctor away.” Here, the target text imitates this saying and puts the translation as “Applying Dabao twice a day keeps dim and rough skin away.” First, this version contains all the information that the source text intends to deliver. Second, the imitation of the well-known saying makes the target readers feel familiar. Besides that, in the source text, “好” rhymes with “宝”. Then, in the target text, “day” rhymes with “away.” This is a very successful advertisement translation, which achieves the goal of introducing information and appealing attention.

(2) Maybe she's born with it, maybe it's Maybelline. (Maybelline)

美来自内，美来自美宝莲。(美宝莲)

Besides beautifying the content of the cosmetics advertisement, the translators should also focus on the structure of the source text. This advertisement adopts parallelism to emphasize the word “美” to improve the function of the product. The translator wants to tell the consumers that the inner beauty comes from their own hearts, and Maybelline can, also, help people mold their external beauty. Apart from this, the target text is easy to read and remember. When people remember the product, they may buy it. Finally, it reaches the goal of promoting the desire for buying.

Certainly, translators usually combine content with structure to beautify them. Only in this way, can translators create the translation perfectly.

Conclusion

In this thesis, cosmetic advertisement translation is investigated and analyzed from the view of the Skopos theory, which provides a new guiding theory to the study of cosmetic advertisement translation. The author expects that the study can improve comprehension of the Skopos theory's application and help translators solve some problems of cosmetics advertisement translation. With the rapid development of economic globalization and China's entry into the WTO, more and more cosmetics flood into the Chinese market, so cosmetic translation has become a significant task. Therefore, the demand for a scientific, guiding theory becomes more urgent in this field. However, the research on cosmetic advertisement translation is very limited and the theories that are applied to the cosmetics advertisement translation are inadequate and unsystematic, especially the Skopos theory, so this thesis makes a study of cosmetics advertisement translation based on the Skopos theory. After analyzing the issue, we find that the Skopos theory, as the most important theory of German functionalist translation theory, no longer takes equivalence as the sole standard to assess a translation but takes the function and communicative effect into consideration. In addition, it changes the dominant position of the source text in the translation process. Instead, it focuses on the translators, the purpose of translation, and the target audience. The Skopos rule is the top-ranking rule that determines the entire translation action, which means “the end justifies the means.”

In conclusion, the Skopos theory is a proper and effective theory to cosmetics advertisement translation. However, every theory has its limitations. Therefore, for the better development of cosmetics advertisement translation, further studies should be taken into consideration, such as the syntactical differences in cosmetics advertisement translation. As study continues, the development of the cosmetics advertisement translation will be improved.

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The Foreignization and Domestication of Translation of Children's Literature: A Comparative Study of Two Chinese Version of Charlotte's Web

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[Abstract] Children's literature translation is a special field of literature. In the process of children's literature translation, the translator should consider the characteristics of children and choose suitable translating methods. Domestication and foreignization, as two typical representatives of translating methods, take special roles in the translation field. Domestication could make the translation easily understood, but foreignization could widen children's horizons. So, how to coordinate the two methods in children's literature is a widely discussed problem. The thesis has illustrated some examples in two Chinese versions of Charlotte's Web and analyzed this problem at the syntactical level, lexical level, and cultural level.

[Keywords] children's literature; translation; domestication; foreignization

Introduction

Children's literature has a significant effect on children's growth; it provides a wonderful spiritual world for children, so they acquire the knowledge of happiness at the same time. Translation of children's literature, as a branch of literature, should follow the general principle of literary translation, but it also has its special requirements. Compared with adult literature translation, the subject, object, and reader of children's literature translation are special. The special subject of children's literature translation refers to its dual character. On one hand, the translator, as an adult reader, should be good at starting from the perspective of children, using children's ears to listen, children's eyes to see, and the hearts of children to experience the original works. On the other hand, the translator should apply some translating methods to produce a standard translation. How to connect the two above is the question. In this thesis, the author has illustrated some examples in two Chinese versions of *Charlotte's Web* to explain how to use translation strategies flexibly in children's literature translation. This thesis consists of three parts. At first, the author briefly introduces the characteristics of children's literature. Then, it gives a general description of two basic translation strategies – domestication and foreignization. At last, the author illustrates some examples from Kang Xin' version (1979) and Ren Rongrong's (2009) version to confirm that domestication strategy and foreignization strategy can complement each other in children's literature translation.

The Characteristics of Children's Literature

Children's literature, as a branch of literature, shares the common characteristics of literature while having unique individuality. Although the target readers are children, the author and translator of children's literature are mostly adults. So, the author and translator of children's literature should give full consideration to the specific target audience. The unique characteristics of children's literature are reflected in the stylistic features determined by the children. Their language, acceptance ability, social mentality, and aesthetic judgment are different from adult readers. The task of translators is to find the

differences and get a perfect translation by using proper strategies. Generally speaking, there are three main characteristics of children's literature.

Simple and Concise

Children are in the stage of language development in which their vocabularies are limited. Language in children's literature works should be simple and concise. Translators for children should stand in the position of children and take their minds, characteristics, language abilities, and aesthetic consciousness into consideration. In the use of words, we should choose notional and colloquial words and avoid abstract words and uncommon words. While in the aspect of sentence structure, we should select simple sentences and avoid complicated, nested patterns.

Cadenced and Lively

One of the most prominent features that distinguishes between children and adult readers is that the former are always interested in the rhythm first and then the content. They can acquire cadenced language easily. Language in the sound performance and delivery is very important; the translation of children's literature should pay attention to the rhythm of the target language, letting children enjoy the beauty of language rhythm.

Vivid and Interesting

Vividness and interest create the vitality of children's literature. During children's growth process, they will change their way of thinking from being concrete into being abstract gradually, so, in the process, concrete images retain the highest position in children's cognition. Children prefer more concrete things, such as sound and color. Therefore, vivid language has the effect of appealing to children and increasing their interest in reading.

Domestication and Foreignization

In 1813, the classical German linguist and translation theorist Schleiermacher in his book *On the Different Methods of Translating* has put forward that the way of translation is "Either the translator leaves the author in peace, as much as possible, and moves the reader towards him; or he leaves the reader in peace, as much as possible, and moves the author towards him" (Baker, 1998, p. 242). In 1995, another translation theorist termed them as the foreignizing method and the domesticating method in his book *The Translator's Invisibility* (Venuti, 1995, p. 20).

Domestication is a translation strategy whose main effect is to minimize the strangeness of the foreign text for target language readers and bring the foreign culture close to the reader in target culture. That can be called target-culture-oriented. In this way, the text is recognizable and familiar for the target readers.

Foreignization is a source-culture-oriented translation that makes every effort to protect the foreign flavor as much as possible and to transfer the source language and culture to the target one. Its aim is to help the target readers know more about the cultural differences and otherness.

Domestication and foreignization have a relationship of dialectical unification; they complement each other in the translation process. Venuti claimed that interlingual translation is the reconciliation between two cultures, language is a cultural practice, and we cannot regard domestication and foreignization as a pair of opposite concepts. Actually, translation requires us to faithfully reproduce the original author's thoughts and style, which are strongly different, so using foreignization is inevitable. At the same time, we need to take the reader's understanding into account, so we choose domestication.

According to the dialectics point of view, everything has both positive and negative aspects. Domestication and foreignization form a pair of contradictory, but complementary, contradictions. In the process of translation, we are always faced with the choice of translation methods. Choosing to make translations closer to readers or the author should depend on the specific circumstances; we should use translation methods flexibly.

Case Analysis of D&F of the two versions of *Charlotte's Web*

Domestication and foreignization are two important translation methods; they have different functions in translation. During the translation process, which one should the translator choose as priority? In the author's opinion, they are equally important. We cannot ignore anyone during the translation process. In this part, the author will illustrate some examples from *Charlotte's Web*, by E. B. White, to explain domestication and foreignization in children's literature translation. E. B. White was a famous American essayist and writer of children's literature. In the investigation from *Publishers Weekly*, his masterpiece, *Charlotte's Web*, was in the first place of The United States Top Ten Famous Children's Literature. It is an interesting story about love, friendship, life, and death. Data in this thesis comes from the translated versions of *Charlotte's Web* by Kang Xin (1979) and Ren Rongrong (2009).

Domestication and Foreignization in the Syntactical Level

English and Chinese belong to different language families and patterns. So, we can see there are two distinguishing features that embody their sentence structures: the Chinese pay more attention to parataxis, while the English usually adopt hypotaxis. This difference requires transformation of sentence structures in English-Chinese translation. The following examples are from Kang Xin and Ren Rongrong's Chinese versions of *Charlotte's Web*.

Example 1: She said: "I am sure that every one of us here in the barn cellar will be gratified to learn that after four weeks of unremitting effort and patience on the part of the goose, she now has something to show for it." (E. B. White, 2009, p. 40)

Kang's: "我相信,"她说,"每个动物都高兴知道,经过四星期来不松懈的坚忍和努力,我们的朋友,母鹅,终于有所成就。" (Kang, 1979, p. 42)

Ren's: 它说:"我想我们仓底这儿的每一位都会很高兴知道,我们的母鹅老朋友经过四个礼拜不懈的努力和耐心照料,它现在有些宝贝要给我们看看了。" (Ren, 2009, p. 43)

This long sentence is not related to culture, but the sentence structure is more difficult to understand. Kang's translation adopts the foreignization method; he translated the sentence word-by-word and according to the order of the original text. So, it is more obscure for Chinese children to understand. However, Ren's translation breaks the original text and the order of sentence. She translates into her own words, which were familiar to Chinese children. In this way, the translation seems easy for Chinese children to understand.

Example 2: "Just watch what you're doing, Mr. Radiant, When they get shoving you in!" (E. B. White, 2009, p. 200)

Kang's: "光焕先生,他们推你进来时,请你最好当心!" (Kang, 1979, p. 116)

Ren's: "就是请动作小心些,光彩照人先生,拜托拜托!" (Ren, 2009, p. 201)

This sentence is an adverbial subordinate clause. In English grammar, it's very common to put the subordinate clause behind the main clause, but this order disobeys Chinese grammar; so Kang put the subordinate clause before the main clause. Ren's version left out the subordinate clause and added a modal particle “拜托拜托” for emphasis.

From the above examples, we can conclude that most translators in children's literature translation adopt the domestication method at the syntactical level. They change the sentence order to cater to the need of Chinese children. We can conclude that this is a better choice in the translation of a long sentence.

Domestication and Foreignization in the Lexical Level

The word is the smallest independent unit of language. It has some special meanings, but some synonyms have some subtle differences. In children's translation, we should choose the word that is suitable for Chinese children.

Example 1: She laughed a tinkling little laugh. (E. B. White, 2009, p. 47)

Kang's: 夏洛银铃地笑着说。 (Kang, 1979, p. 43)

Ren's: 它发出轻轻的银铃般的笑声。 (Ren, 2009, p. 47)

The author has compared Charlotte's laugh to tinkling bell to express her happiness. This sentence uses the rhetorical device of metaphor. Both Ren and Kang reproduced the same image in their versions. However, we Chinese usually use “银铃般的” to describe pleasant laughter. From the “银铃般的,” we can get a vivid picture of Charlotte, who is a lovely and lively spider. So Ren's version is more natural and familiar to Chinese readers.

Example 2: You will find a veritable treasure of popcorn fragments, frozen custard dribbling, candied apples abandoned by tired children, sugar fluff crystals, salted almonds, popsicles, partially gnawed ice cream cones, and the wooden sticks of lollypops (E. B. White, 2009, p. 123).

Kang's: 你会发现真正的宝藏: 碎玉米爆花、一粒粒奶冻、疲倦的孩子放弃的糖浆苹果、棉花糖、咸杏仁、棒冰、咬掉一半的蛋卷冰淇淋和棒棒糖的木棒。 (Kang, 1979, p. 114)

Ren's: 你会找到真正的宝贝: 累坏的孩子扔下的爆米花、一滴滴奶油冰淇淋、冰糖苹果、还有棉花糖、盐水杏仁、冰棍、咬剩的蛋卷筒冰淇淋、棒棒糖棍。 (Ren, 2009, p. 119)

In this example, there are some names of food. Both Kang and Ren have adopted the foreignization method. Kang's version was published in 1979 when the government implemented the policy of reform and opening up to the outside world, so some names of food are unfamiliar with the children at that time. Ren's version was published in 2009; at that time, children were familiar with the names of foreign foods, so she used domestication flexibly in a certain degree.

In one word, children are in the process of growing up, so the translator should choose more colloquial and concrete words to appeal to them and try to avoid formal and abstract words.

Domestication and Foreignization in the Cultural level

Every country has its own special characteristic in geography, climate, and history. People who live in different conditions have different feelings concerning things. The question is how to translate cultural factors in children's literature. Different translators choose different methods to solve this problem.

Example 1: And may the good lord forgive me for this foolishness. (E. B. White, 2009, p. 4)

Kang's: 但愿上帝宽恕我的愚蠢。 (Kang, 1979, p. 4)

Ren's: 愿老天爷原谅我做了这傻事。 (Ren, 2009, p. 4)

In this example, Kang and Ren have translated “lord” as “上帝” and “老天爷,” respectively. Kang’s version is a type of foreignization that can make readers taste the foreign flavor of the source text. However, Ren’s version is translated by the domesticating method; it reflects Chinese traditional culture and is colloquial so that children can understand easily. In my opinion, both methods have their own advantages.

Example 2: Without hesitating a second, he dashed the water at Wilbur. In his excitement he missed his aim, and the water splashed all over Mr. Zuckerman and Avery. They got soaking wet.

(E. B. White, 2009, p. 156)

Kang’s: 他两眼发直, 毫不踌躇地把水朝威伯泼去。他在兴奋中没有瞄准, 水全浇在查克曼和阿汶身上。两人浑身都浇湿了。

(Kang, 1979, p. 149)

Ren’s: 他毫不迟疑地把水泼到威尔伯身上。他太激动了, 没泼中猪, 倒泼到朱克曼先生和艾弗里的身上。他们给淋成了落汤鸡。

(Ren, 2009, p. 157)

In this example, Kang and Ren have adopted two different methods to translate “they got soaking wet.” Kang adopted the literal meaning of words, but Ren’s version has scooped out the inner meaning of the words and adopted the domestication method to relate it with the Chinese idiom subtly. The three words “落汤鸡” are enough to describe their embarrassing appearances.

In one word, when translators treat the material that connected with a different culture, they should consider the text comprehensively. If the word is simple enough to be understood by children, they can adopt foreignization, just like Example 1. Sometimes, for vivid images, translators can adopt domestication, like Example 2.

Conclusion

Children’s literature is a unique language category in English. The main purpose of children’s literature translation is to attract young readers so that they can edify sentiment and cultivate reading interest. The translator should boldly go beyond the limitations of the original words in translation and put readers into the central part of the translation. During the process of translation, which strategy to use should be the first choice that must be decided: domestication or foreignization. This is a question in whose answer the benevolent see benevolence, and the wise see wisdom. Actually, there is not a standard answer to which one is more important. This thesis has analyzed domestication and foreignization in children’s literature, *Charlotte’s Web*, at the syntactical level, lexical level, and cultural level. Through the above, we can see that the two translation strategies are complementary, with domestication applied at the linguistic level and foreignization employed at the cultural level because children’s literature translation is a special branch of general literature. Every children’s literature translator needs to grasp the rules of children’s language development and connect the characteristics of children to create a high standard for translated works.

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A Study on Adaptive Translation Strategies in Tourism Based on the Cultural Gap

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[Abstract] As China is getting more and more attention from the world, the Chinese tourism industry has gained prosperity in recent years. Tourism translation plays a crucial role in leading foreign guests to Chinese culture. The cultural gap that exists between Chinese and English forms a barrier to cultural communication. Adaptive translation strategies have proven to be the most effective in passing on the Chinese culture to people of the English culture.

[Keywords] tourism; adaptive translation strategy; cultural differences

Introduction

The past years have witnessed the fast growth of the Chinese tourism industry, which gives rise to the popularity of tourism translation. As a branch of applied translation, the purpose of tourism translation decides translation strategies. The final purpose of tourism translation is to acquaint foreign guests with scenic spots and the Chinese culture related with them. In most cases, direct translation strategies fail to fulfill the purpose. That is to say, translators have to choose adaptive translation strategies to achieve the best translation effects.

An Introduction of Cultural Gap

The term “cultural gap” was first put forward by American linguist Charles F. Hockett in the 1950s. “Cultural gap” refers to a language phenomenon that certain concepts in one language or culture cannot find counterparts in another language or culture due to the differences in historical background, social customs, religious beliefs, ideologies, etc. The cultural gap can be described as an absence of equivalence in vocabulary or different connotations for the same vocabulary (Wang, 2009). The cultural gap exerts a great impact on tourism translation. Translation is the exchange between languages, as well as cultures. During the translation, information to be translated begins with the source text and ends with the target readers. When the source information cannot reach target readers in an equivalent way or has reached target readers but with confusion in understanding, the cultural gap will probably occur.

An Introduction of Adaptive Translation Strategies

Language is loaded with culture, and culture is firmly rooted in language. As the bridge between source languages and target languages, translation is also closely connected with culture. According to Nida (1993), translation is not only a bilingual activity, but also a cross-cultural communication. The systemic study of the relationship between translation and culture began with Susan Bassnett, who was the first to introduce the concept of culture into translation, thus coining the term “cultural translation theory.”

According to the cultural translation theory, translation is more than decoding and encoding between languages. Translation can never be independent from the target culture embodied within the target language. To put it even exactly, translation falls into the scope of cross-cultural communication (Peng,

2011). In this sense, the translation equivalence is not formal equivalence but the equivalence of source language and target language in culture function.

Translation Strategies Based on Cultural Gap

Tourism translation aims to satisfy the needs of tourists. On one hand, foreign guests would like to get a general idea of Chinese scenic spots; on the other hand, they take great interest in Chinese culture and expect to get access to Chinese culture by tourism translation. For this purpose, translators have to adopt effective translation strategies.

Due to the cultural gap between English and Chinese, direct translation, which mostly relies on the equivalence between source languages and target languages, is far from satisfactory in tourism translation. In this case, translators begin to seek alternatives. Adaptive translation strategies, which are source-language-culture-oriented, come into play for the sake of target readers' interests (Huang, 2002). To overcome the cultural gap, a variety of adaptive translation strategies, such as amplification, abridgement, and analogy, have been well applied for tourism translation.

Amplification

Amplification is a translation strategy with the purpose of explaining culture-loaded notions or concepts by adding some information in addition to the literal meaning. The Chinese culture is rich in historical stories, folk tales, and fixed idioms, which are absent in English culture. In other words, if we cannot expound the culture-bound information to foreigners by amplification, they will probably get confused or the primary purpose of tourism translation will be neglected.

For example, one of the best-known views of the West Lake is Hupao Spring. Some translators have translated it into "Tiger Running Spring" directly or "Tiger Spring." In this way, foreign guests may be confused about the source of the name or the relationship between the spring and the tiger. Moreover, the cultural background knowledge about the spring is totally lost. Actually, the name of the spring can be traced back to a story. It is said that Hupao Spring was originally a place short of water. One day, two tigers, by accident, came here and made water out of the ground. Thus, Hupao Spring can be translated as "Tiger Spring, the spring was clawed by two tigers" by amplification (Xu, 2009, p. 93).

China is a multi-national country with a variety of ethnic cultures. The Poshui Festival of Dai nationality is one of them with a history of thousands of years. Some translators have translated the festival as "Water-sprinkling Festival," which just conveys the literal meaning but neglects its cultural implications. As we know, the Poshui Festival is, also, the new year of the Dai nationality, which is of the same significance as the Spring Festival of the Han nationality. Dai people celebrate this festival to express their goodwill for wealth, health, and happiness. If we adopt amplification to translate it into "a big festival for the Dai nationality to wish everyone happiness by splashing water to one another," foreigners will have a thorough knowledge of this festival (Wang, 2009, p. 134).

In a summary, the purpose of amplification is to add culture-bound information that can help foreigners have a better idea of Chinese culture, especially when these culture-bound notions cannot find their counterparts in the target culture.

Abridgement

Abridgement is a translation strategy to convey the intentions of the original text by cutting down culture-bound but unnecessary messages. Chinese writing is very good at the use of four-character idioms or quotations of ancient poems to achieve the aesthetic effect. However, these Chinese-style expressions,

in most cases, are untranslatable owing to lack of their counterparts in target languages or cultures. Therefore, abridgement turns out to be a preferred choice. For one thing, it overcomes the cultural gap; for another, it maintains the core information by removing redundant information, making the source text more compact and acceptable. For example:

Source text: 龙舟赛, 演历史于古今, 生传说于纷纭, 珠联爱国情操、悲壮色彩, 壁合神秘气氛、拼搏精神, 动如摧枯拉朽、轰轰烈烈, 势若排山倒海, 可歌可泣。此唯舟竞渡, 无有出其左右者。

It can be found that the source text is unlikely to translate in a direct way because these Chinese-style expressions are beyond the understanding of foreign guests due to the cultural gap. Translators have to consider abridgement to better the translation in:

Target text: The Dragon Boat Race, a most exciting group event, is held in memory of Qu Yuan, a patriotic statesman and poet in ancient China. (Zou & Liu, 2006).

Another example is Yuntai Mountain, which is located in Henan and attracts thousands of tourists for its outstanding scenery. In Chinese writing, the beauty of Yuntai Mountain is shown on a full scale:

云台山春日山花烂漫, 夏季满目苍翠, 秋季红叶似火, 冬天苍茫雄劲。风景之美, 兼有泰岱之雄、华岳之险、峨眉之秀、黄山之奇、青城之幽于一身。

If we translate it in a direct way without losing any information, the translation should be like this: “Its beauty contains the grandness of Tai Mountain, the steepness of Hua Mountain, the elegance of E’mei Mountain, the wonderfulness of Huang Mountain and the peacefulness of Qingcheng Mountain.”

However, some foreign guests have no concepts of Tai Mountain, Hua Mountain, E’mei Mountain, Huang Mountain, or Qingcheng Mountain. Such direct translation can only make tourists more confused. To achieve the final purpose, translators can make good use of abridgement as follows:

The four seasons here are quite distinctive, spring being dry and windy, summer hot and rainy, autumn cool and winter dry and cold (Sun, 2012).

To sum up, some original information is rooted in Chinese history and culture so deeply that it cannot be easily explained to the foreigners and probably makes them feel confused. Abridgement has proved to suit the taste of the foreigners and help attain the intended purpose of tourism translation.

Analogy

Analogy is a translation strategy that aims to convey the target culture to target readers by replacing cultural-loaded words in the source language with those in the target language. Analogy is commonly applied to tourism translation in that it can bridge the gap between the source culture and the target culture, thus making foreign guests better understand Chinese culture.

For example, Xishi, a famous character in Hangzhou history, is best-known to the Chinese people for her outstanding appearance. If we translate “Xishi” into “the most beautiful woman in China,” the cultural effect is just half achieved. In this case, we might as well relate “Xishi” to a similar image in English culture. If we adopt analogy to translate “Xishi” into “Chinese Cleopatra,” the cultural effect is best achieved. Cleopatra is the last queen of Ptolemaic dynasty in Egypt. Cleopatra, who is portrayed as a great beauty, remains a popular figure in Western culture. In the same way, “月下老人” in Chinese culture can be translated into “Chinese Cupid” because “Cupid” is well known to foreigners as the God of love in English culture.

Another example is the translation of Ji Gong Museum in Lanxi City of Zhejiang Province. In Chinese culture, Ji Gong is beloved by poor people because he always helps the poor by robbing the rich.

In this sense, we can adopt the analogy by referring to the notion familiar to foreign guests in the target culture “Robin Hood.” Robin Hood is a heroic outlaw in English folklore. Just like Ji Gong in Chinese culture, he has become known for “robbing from the rich and giving to the poor.” In this way, we can introduce Jigong to foreigners in this way: “Jigong, Robin Hood in China, robbed the rich and helped the poor; he was loved by the poor people” (Fu, 2009, p. 256).

In a word, analogy is a translation strategy that depends on finding similarities between Chinese culture and English culture for the purpose of explaining Chinese culture by referring to English culture. It shortens the distance between target readers and Chinese culture by recalling the close feelings of their native culture. It plays a vital role in tourism translation as the third alternative apart from amplification and abridgement.

Conclusion

To sum up, tourism translation, as a form of applied translation, aims to make foreign guests better understand scenic spots. On the other hand, it also shoulders the responsibility of conveying Chinese culture related to these scenic spots. Due to the differences in historical background, social customs, religious beliefs and ideologies, the cultural gap between Chinese and English has become a big problem with tourism translation. To overcome these problem and guarantee good translation effects, adaptive translation strategies, including amplification, abridgement and analogy, are usually taken into primary consideration in tourism translation.

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Studies on Female Images as “the Other” under the Male Consciousness in *LiaoZhaiZhiYi* by Pu Songling

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[Abstract] This paper analyzes different female images under the male consciousness in the work *LiaoZhaiZhiYi*, written by Pu Songling, and illustrates their position, which is in accord with “the other” theory put forward by the pioneer of the women’s Liberation Movement – Simone de Beauvoir.

[Keywords] Pu Songling, *LiaoZhaiZhiYi*, female images, male consciousness, “the other”

Introduction

LiaoZhaiZhiYi is considered as the artistic climax in the history of short stories of classical Chinese. In the book, there are a lot of female images that have brilliant and distinct characters, and they become the most striking and attractive part among all the works in *LiaoZhaiZhiYi*. There are about 200 novels that are connected with female images in all of about 500 novels. Pu Songling praises human truth, goodness, and beauty through the description of different kinds of women. We can figure out the ideal female images in Pu Songling’s heart, and he also expresses his own pursuit of life. But through the female figures, we can see Pu Songling’s male consciousness and his writing psychology is affected by male consciousness. In the thousands of years of civilization of China, males are in the dominant position, so male consciousness is deep-rooted. After all, Pu Songling lived in that era and under the influence of male consciousness. Many female characters written about by Pu Songling are closely affected by Chinese traditional culture, his life experiences, and his point of view of life. In the influence of the male consciousness culture, females are in “the other” position. “The other” theory is put forward by Simone de Beauvoir in her book *The Second Sex*. The thesis tries to analyze female images as “the other” under the male consciousness in *LiaoZhaiZhiYi* with “the other” theory.

Male Consciousness and “The Other” Theory

Male Consciousness

Since the breakup of the matriarchal society, human society has been a male-centered patriarchal society. In the thousands of years of civilization of China, males have been in the dominant position. Male consciousness is deep-rooted. Men’s judgment of values determines whether or not women’s behaviors are appropriate or not. In most men’s eyes, women should be gentle, tolerant, and dedicated, etc. Women, in order to win the men’s appreciation and love, will also try to suppress their nature and shape themselves to meet men’s needs. Pu Songling lived in that era, and many female characters written about by him are closely affected by male consciousness. In the influence of a male consciousness culture,

females are in “the other” position. “The other” theory is put forward by Simone de Beauvoir in her book *The Second Sex*.

“The Other” Theory

Simone de Beauvoir is one of the pioneers of the feminism movement; she puts forward that women are in the second position from the study of the real situation of women. In Simone de Beauvoir’s view, “the self” and “the other” are in all aspects of human life. From a gender perspective, men become “the self,” women are an absolute “the other,” and there is a subject and object, primary and secondary relationship between men and women. Women define the ego according to men rather than themselves. “Women are ‘the other’” demonstrates female inner nature as a state of alienation, passive, and negative with negative characteristics of a population in its gender relations. At the same time, “the other” also describes the history of females, and in this historical process, women have been excluded from the outside civilization as a whole; they are “second class” (Simone, 1998, pp. 5-11).

In *LiaoZhaiZhiYi*, we can figure out Pu Songling’s male consciousness in the description of female images and their position is in accord with “the other” position put forward by Simone de Beauvoir.

The Analysis of Female Images and Their Position As “The Other”

The Female Images in Traditional View

Virtuous female images. In Chinese traditional culture, women are virtuous, loyal, and obedient. The roles of females are defined as good wives and good mothers. They all have the inherent and passive characteristics of “the other.” Such female images are one of the ideal females in men’s eyes.

In *LiaoZhaiZhiYi*, Pu Songling’s Mrs. Lin, Mrs. Yan, Gengniang, Xiliu, and Shanhu are all virtuous wives. Through their analysis, their basic characteristics are gentle, obedient, loyal, diligent in housework, and not jealous.

Take the story Mrs. Lin (Pu, 2005, p. 819) for example. In the story, “Mrs. Lin,” the author created a model of virtuous women. Mrs. Lin became disabled when a riot broke out. Her husband didn’t abandon her, but she had a sense of inferiority and made her husband marry a concubine. As a result, her husband refused her. Because she was sterile, she tried to make her husband marry a servant girl, but the husband refused her again. Mrs. Lin was worried that her husband didn’t have his heir and made every attempt to make a servant girl give birth to two boys and one girl for her husband. She hoped that her husband could have a beautiful concubine and his own heir. She thought what she had done was virtuous. The author thinks highly of her: “Since ancient times there have been many virtuous wives, but wife like Mrs. Lin is a saint” (Pu, 2005, p. 820).

The author, indeed, thought highly of Mrs. Lin from his comment in the end. In some men and, also, some women’s perspectives in modern society, they are beautiful and virtuous women. This virtue inheritance has gone through thousands of years, and women naturally thought that the traditional women should look like this. But they ignored the truth that these virtues were set by men, and female behaviors had been alienated. They are not “the self”; instead, they are “the other.”

Shrewish and envious female images. In sharp contrast to the virtuous female images, there are some shrewish and envious female images. They like abusing others; they are bossy and not obedient to men. Juangcheng, Shanhu, and Mrs. Yin are this type of women.

Take *Jing Cheng* (Pu, 2005, p. 884) for example. In the story “JiangCheng,” Jiang Cheng could get angry easily and makes caustic remarks against others. If her husband had different opinions, she got even angrier and mistreated her husband. Sometimes, she drove him out of the room and shut the door. Though it was very cold outside, she didn’t allow him to come in.

In the author’s description of the shrewish and envious female images, we can see easily that the author exaggerates and vilifies these women’s behaviors. Obviously, the author was disgusted by these types of women. So, the author exaggerated and vilified these women’s behaviors to defend the feudal patriarchal system. In Pu’s daily life, there were some women who treated their husbands, maidservant, concubines, mother-in-laws, and father-in-laws cruelly and fiercely. However, such cruel women as described in the works are very few.

The formation of shrewish and envious female images is derived from the polygynous feudal marriage system, and the system is a kind of persecution to women. In that era, women were inferior to men; women could only depend on men. Men could marry a lot of women; however, women had to be a one-man kind of person. Women would inevitably quarrel with each other to get one man’s love and strengthen their status in the family. Though the status of maidservants and concubines was much lower than the wife in the feudal family, once they were loved by that only husband in the family, then the wife’s role would be threatened. A sense of fear and the lack of a sense of security would occupy the wife. Moreover, maidservants and concubines could bear children for the man, so the progeny problem was also a threat to the wife. Once maidservants and concubines had sons, their status in the family would improve day by day because in that era of Chinese history, the mother’s honor increased as her son’s position rose. If the wife couldn’t bear a son for the man, the wife’s status would be threatened. So, the formation of shrewish and envious female images is the product of the feudal system. Some shrewish and envious women became the images that abode by the traditional virtues by education and persuasion and they fully met the standard of the male.

It is not difficult for us to find that they are in “the other” position.

Wise female images. In *LiaoZhaiZhiYi*, there are some female images who are wise and capable and who can, even, do better than men. We can find some progressive thinking in them. They are talented; they have outstanding achievements. Some men were put to shame by their achievements. In all Chinese classical literary characters, these female images are brilliant. They attracted people’s attention because people thought only men, not women, could have those kinds of achievements in that era. So, these women are out of the ordinary. This also reflects the discrimination against women.

Take the story “Mrs. Yan” (Pu, 2008, p. 800) for example. Mrs. Yan has been a clever girl since childhood. Her father said: “We have a woman scholar; it is a pity that she is not a man” (Pu, 2008, p. 800). Later, she married a handsome man who had shallow knowledge and small talent.

Her husband failed his exam several times, so she often read books together with him. Unfortunately, her husband failed in two exams. Mrs. Yan felt angry with her husband, so she disguised herself as a man and entered the exam, for women were not allowed to enter national exams at that time. As a result, she was successful in the exam. After more exams, she became a good official, and in those years, her talent was fully displayed; finally, she made her husband take over her job when others knew that she was a woman.

From the story, we can see that she had to disguise herself as a man to take the exam. When she passed the exam, she couldn’t tell others that she was a woman. When her identity was exposed to others, her work was taken over by her husband.

We can conclude from the story that as women, no matter how clever they are, they can't get rid of the bondage of male consciousness, which means they are in "the other" position.

The Female Images that can Meet Male Sexual Roles

Innocent, lovely, and romantic female images. In *LiaoZhaiZhiYi*, there are some female images who are innocent, pure, and lovely. They are the ideal female images in Pu Songling's heart.

Take "Yingning" (Pu, 2008, p. 159) for an example. Yingning was a fairy who liked laughing and flowers. She lived a peaceful life in a quiet village. When she met Wang Zifu, they fell in love with each other. When she came to Wang's family, she could solve a lot of problems with her laughter. Sometimes, she looked a little silly, but she was very lovely. Finally, she married Wang, and they had their baby.

Yingning is a pure and innocent girl living in a world which is not stained by the secular society before she met Wang, so she is not fettered by feudal conventions. She is an ideal female image in Pu Songling's heart. However, Pu Songling is a percipient author; he did not continue writing about Yingning's idealized images. The ending of the story made us have to accept the cold reality that Yingning's pure beauty attracts some lustful men; this is a reflection of the alienation and evil of "the other." Some people think pretty women will cause trouble. Yingning didn't laugh any longer. Yingning did not escape the task of perpetuating the Wang line and gave birth to a son. Since then, she lived a common life. Yingning was just a dream of Pu Songling when he felt hopeless and depressed. From the ending, we can see the author didn't get rid of his male consciousness. The ideal female images were also designed by him to make him free from depression. So, these images were in the passive and "the other" position. At those times, women couldn't escape the patriarchal oppression.

Active, courageous and passionate female images. In *LiaoZhaiZhiYi*, there are some unusual female images who are beautiful, active, courageous, and passionate. They are a little rebellious. They have no sense of the shyness of a young girl. They are not controlled by feudal ethical codes, and they can get along with men freely.

Take Green-coat girl (Pu, 2008, p. 700) for example. The girl was very beautiful with her green coat and long skirt. The girl met a man whose name was Yu Jing – a lonely scholar, and they talked with each other. The girl also specialized in music and sang beautiful songs for the man. They made love with each other at night, and she would go away the next morning.

The arrival of the green-coat girl was to meet the physical and mental needs of the man. A lot of girls like Lotus and Lianxiang are not ordinary girls. They can free the men from sufferings in supernatural ways.

So, we can see that men were having daydreams. These women characters came from men's wishful thinking. They regarded the girls as a tool, so they are in "the other" position. Even another open girl – Hongyu – took over a wife's role. The author's demands for women were changing to meet their own needs.

"The Other" Female Images in the Male Perspective

In the text analysis of female images, we see that women as "the other" under male consciousness is also reflected in the narrative perspective.

In *LiaoZhaiZhiYi*, males are narrators, and the females are in the alienated state in narration. The male-centered consciousness was not chosen by Pu Songling consciously, but the traditional, powerful, patriarchal culture affected him deeply. We can see the male cultural psychology in the society dominated

Pu Songling to some extent, so that he unconsciously put men in the center of the story, while women were in the subordinate status of “the other.”

The Causes of Female Images as “The Other”

In the illustration of “the other” theory by Simone de Beauvoir, she pointed out that women are in “the other” position because of a patriarchal culture. Now, I will explain this from the following three perspectives: the historical factor, the cultural factor, and the personal factor.

Historical Factor

Thousands of years of Chinese history were dominated by the male. Men were the subjects while women are the object. The patriarchal system of China was combined with the Confucian ethics, so in the comparative study of various cultures of the world, the Chinese patriarchal system is not only considered the most typical, the most complete of patriarchy, but it also has a higher degree of inequality between men and women in the patriarchal system. Therefore, there are more regulations, such as Confucianism, and ethical norms for Chinese women; they are more likely to become “the other.” So, women were not only deprived of the rights of participating in the activities of the outside world, but they also suffered mental damage caused by feudal ethics. The last words were in the hands of the dominant males, and the females were under the state of being written and designed. Female consciousness was in a twisted state by the chains of material, spirit, and culture. Historical factors made women become a tragedy of gender and in “the other” position.

Cultural Factor

Different nations have different cultural traditions; the cultural traditions are closely related to people’s lives. These cultural traditions are carried on from generation to generation and are updated in art, slang language, and folk customs (Wang, 2008). They are deep-rooted in the hearts of the people and regulate people’s ethical and moral behavior in the way of a collective unconsciousness. These cultural traditions also provide a rich cultural soil for the writer’s creation of figures. The mode of collective unconsciousness has played a huge role in cultural heritage. Different cultural traditions have different traditional identity consciousness, so writers create different female images under the influence of their cultural traditions.

In a male-dominated society, men judge women by their own standards. If things go on like this, women judge themselves with standards men set, too. Women give the power of evaluating the values of themselves completely to men. This one-way aesthetic relationship formed during a long period can’t make females evaluate themselves objectively. So, Nietzsche said: “men have created female images for themselves, and women created their own images imitating the images men have created” (Sun, 1987, p. 14). When the female activities meet men’s psychological needs, they will be praised by the whole society.

Personal Factors

Influenced by personal experiences, the author has his own unique writing style, and his works connected with the female images also have the characteristics of his own. Pu Songling was born in a declining scholar’s family and educated by the Confucian values, and he was deeply affected by thousands of years of feudal patriarchal culture, so naturally he wrote *LiaoZhaiZhiYi* from the point of view of males and

viewed women from men's perspective. His works are deeply affected by patriarchal culture. We can see this from the analysis of the works clearly.

Conclusion

LiaoZhaiZhiYi really provides us with aesthetic enjoyment by introducing all kinds of female images with different characters. At the same time, we should reflect on the sorrow of the designed beauty. From textual analysis of female images, we can see that it is difficult for women to escape from the male consciousness because, for thousands of years in Chinese history, the male culture has been supreme. Pu Songling lived in that era, and he was down and out, so, as a male, he wrote about women from a man's perspective with his concern about women. His real purpose was to meet the confirmation of men themselves. Women's true feelings in *LiaoZhaiZhiYi* have been ignored; women have no escape from the subordinate position.

The position of women in *LiaoZhaiZhiYi* is in accord with "the other" theory put forward by the pioneer of women's Liberation Movement – Simone de Beauvoir. Beauvoir devoted her whole life to the study of the problems of women and provided a theoretical basis for the women's liberation movement. There are many feminists like Beauvoir who are struggling for improving the status of women.

With the development of human civilization, women's political and economic status has, indeed, greatly improved. The government also advocates equality between men and women, making sure that women have enough rights in system and law. But true equality requires long-term efforts. In fact, the opportunities for the development of women are restricted. After all, thousands of years of patriarchal culture is deep-rooted, and it is impossible to erase the traces of male consciousness in a short period of time. It needs time for women to break away from "the other" position. In modern society, it is very important for females to be independent in personality and thinking. We hope that there is true equality between men and women; they can live in harmony with each other for a better world.

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A Hermeneutic Perspective on Yuanchong Xu's English Translation of Tang Poems

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[Abstract] Tang Poems have been translated into lots of languages by many translators, among whom, Yuanchong Xu is very typical. He comes up with many valuable translation theories, one of which is “Three Beauties,” pursued by him in all of his translations as the summit of his standard. Of course, this also brings about a large amount of criticism, such as “unfaithful” and “far from the original.” However, this paper tries to analyze Yuanchong Xu’s translation phenomenon of Tang poems translation with Gadamer’s philosophical hermeneutics in an attempt to view Xu’s courageous pursuit from a new perspective.

[Keywords] Tang poems; Hermeneutics; historicity of understanding; fusion of horizons; effective history

Introduction

Tang Poetry, as one of the most brilliant literary heritages with a history of well over 1000 years, is still very popular with the public. However, translating Tang poems is a challenging job because, in the first place, it is difficult to understand their exquisite compression in language, distinctive rhyme and rhythm, abundant imagery, and rich thoughts and feelings, not to mention their translation into English.

Yuanchong Xu is the master translator in translating Tang poems with many publications of versions of them. He impressed the readers deeply with his firmly sticking to the theory of “Three Beauties,” which makes his translation distinct from those of other translators. According to the traditional theories of “xin, da, ya,” or dynamic equivalence, his translation is always criticized as “unfaithful” or “far away from the original.” However, with the passage of time and constant progress in translation theory, this criticism is not appropriate for Xu’s poetry translations. In such a case, Xu’s translation, as a representative translation phenomenon, is bound to be analyzed from a new perspective – philosophical hermeneutics.

Hermeneutics, an age-old general science of text interpretation, with the development and perfection by generations of philosophers and scholars from Friedrich Schleiermacher to Martin Heidegger and to Hans-George Gadamer, holds the same idea that understanding is translation. Owing to the overlapping part of hermeneutics and translation, the principles of hermeneutics can be exactly applied to translation studies, and the translation of Tang poems is no exception. Gadamer’s three philosophical principles – historicity of understanding, fusion of horizons, and effective history – are selected as an explanatory guidance.

Tang Poems’s Special Requirements for English Translation

Translation of Tang poems is thought to be the most difficult job, for they are the most personal and concentrated of literary texts and call for refinement in language, freshness in artistic conception, and distinctiveness in style. To convey all the factors into another language is, indeed, not easy. Understanding them correctly is sure to be the first step to translate. Then, the translator must do his utmost to express the outline of artistic conception formed by one or more images. In other words, there

are at least two important tasks: one is correct understanding of meaning and the other is exact expression of the image.

Xu's Pursuit of Beauty and Translation Strategies

More than once, Mr. Xu has said in his articles and the TV programs that a beautiful translation is the best translation, a good translation is the second best, and a true version has just fulfilled the minimum requirement for a literal translation (Yuanchong Xu, 2003, p. 77). Hence, he makes every effort to seek beauty in his translation, mainly the verse translation. In terms of Xu's most brilliant achievement—verse translation and his own preference-- we mainly analyze his English translation of Tang poems.

Beauty in Sense and Paraphrase

No matter what the literary output, of course including poems, it aims at conveying a certain sense for the readers. Thus, it is of great importance to translate the meaning of the original. Yuanchong Xu gives priority to beauty in meaning. He makes full use of paraphrase in accordance with his principle. Yuanchong Xu's translation of Meng Haoran's "Spring Morning" goes as follows:

This morn of spring in bed I'm lying, Not to awake till birds are crying.

After one night of wind and showers, How many are the fallen flowers (Yuanchong Xu, 2010, p. 157).

By this poem, the poet depicts several images – the spring morning, the night rain and wind, the crying birds and fallen flowers. In the warm spring, people are drowsy and tend to oversleep in the morning, flowers are in blossom, and birds are crying. But the rain and wind mercilessly pound and blow the flowers down, which makes the oversleeping poet feel sorry for the quick feet of spring and his own sorrow of wasting time by not being an official. The poet put his own leisureliness, optimism, and sorrow together into the picture of the spring morning, producing the artistic conception of slight pleasure and pain. Xu's "morn," a word used in poetry with the same meaning of "morning," and "not...till," respectively matched along with "晓" and "不觉". This is a good reflection of the reason; the author felt sorry for the spring passing by quickly –he overslept on a certain spring morning. As to how many flowers had fallen, it seems the author is not sure in that a question sentence is applied. Accordingly, Yuanchong Xu adopts a special question. Why not do it since it could achieve union both in form and sense?

Beauty in Sound and Adaptation

Let's take Xu's translation of "Parting" as an example:

Deep, deep our love, too deep to show. Deep, deep we drink, silent we grow.

The candle grieves to see us part: It melts in tears with burnt-out heart (Yuanchong Xu, 2010, p. 251).

In this poem, the candle with tears is the specific image with which the poet Du Mu expresses his feeling of being distressed at parting with his lover. The candle's tear is, in fact, the poet's tear. Yuanchong Xu in his version skillfully employs punctuation, two-line rhyme, and repetition, which presents the receptors a sense of beauty and helps build the atmosphere of affected pathos. Five repetitions of "deep" imitates "drip," the sound of shedding tears, which strikes a responsive chord in the hearts of its readers in the hearing, an ingenious combination of a candle with tears with beauty in sound and sense.

According to Yuanchong Xu, to achieve beauty in sound, the translator may use the method of imitation or adaptation, and he is, indeed, guided by his theory.

Beauty in Form and Metaphrase

The following is from Bai Juyi's poem: *The Lute*.

*The thick strings loudly thrummed like the pattering rain;
The fine strings softly tinkled in a murmuring strain
When mingling loud and soft notes were together played,
It was like large and small pearls dropping on plate of jade.* (Yuanchong Xu, 2010, p. 234)

In Xu's translation, rhyme seems to have no time to be absent, as does this one. Other than that, "thick strings" and "fine strings" exactly transmit the meaning of "大弦" and "小弦". Likewise, "loudly" and "softly" are good renderings of "嘈嘈" and "切切". What's more, "loud and soft" is in antithetical parallelism with "large and small." "Pattering," "murmuring," and "dropping" appear in order to correspond to "急", "私" and "落", indeed a vivid touch. Here, form and sense get united tactfully and naturally. In form, punctuations, rhymes, and rhetorical devices embody meaning, feelings, and values. To preserve the original form, Xu adopts the method of literal translation. He really translates every word, the onomatopoeia words included.

In general, Mr. Xu put forward many important and attractive translation theories, in which he regarded "Three Beauties" as the first choice in verse translation. In his translation practice, he, accordingly, adopted the strategy of paraphrase (free translation), adaptation (imitation), and metaphrase (literal translation).

Xu's Limitations in Use of "Three Beauties"

Looking through Yuanchong Xu's verse translation, the fact that he likes to use rhymes is not hard to find: aabb, abab, alliteration. Every poem translation of his has strict and striking rhymes and is full of rhythms. Of course, he does well in it. Thus, problems arise. His translation sometimes risks arranging rhymes deliberately, so it inevitably deviates far from the original. For instance, he translates "春蚕到死丝方尽" into "Spring silkworm till its death spins silk from lovesick heart" (Xuan Yuanchong, 2010, p. 262). There is no "lovesick heart" at all in the original poem. Then, he would be asked if he carried the thought of rhyming with the former "part." Most often, one thing is attended to but another is lost. How to keep the balance is worth considering.

Xu's Recreation in Tang Poem Translation

To speak precisely, if we consider the original writer's work as creation, then the translator's version can be referred to as recreation. Yuanchong Xu holds consistently such a viewpoint that what is lost in verse translation can be remedied by creation. As mentioned above, beauty in a Tang poem lies in its imagery. An image or images are used to indicate the poet's feeling, convey his ideas, and establish his artistic feature. Nearly all the Chinese classical poems are full of allusions, which is their typical feature. All the allusions, with concrete cultural background, are endowed with new ideas by the citer, i.e. the poet. However, as we all know, a great difference lies between the Chinese language and the English language, hence, in some cases, it is very hard to preserve the original image and allusions, not to mention it is unnecessary to retain them. In Yuanchong Xu's translation, he usually reproduces the original poem's

image or allusion and interprets it in a brand new way for the sake of the target readers. For example, one of Xu's translations goes like this:

I hold your robe lest you should go. Where are you going, dear, today?

Your late return brings me less woe. Than your heart being stolen away.

In the poem, *Linqiong*, an allusion, rather than its original meaning, a place where Sima Xiangru and Zhuo Wenjun got to know each other, is compared to the place where the husband found his new love behind his wife's back. Here, it is a special cultural image in which the wife hoped her husband did not to have many love affairs when he was out. Of course, this intention was expressed in an implied way because, in feudal society, women were in low social status, and they dared not require much of their own husband in marriage and love. Yuanchong Xu successfully avoids difficulty in understanding *Linqiong* by the target readers through reproducing the original's image, i.e. "heart being stolen away." In this way, he bridges the gap between the two different cultures (Xian, T., & Dejiang, J., 2008).

Xu's Retranslation of Tang Poems

Out of great passion and enthusiasm, Mr. Xu has regarded translation as his lifelong career. He is always pursuing his theory of "Three Beauties." Under its guidance, nearly all of Xu's translations feature neatness and rhymed form. Yuanchong Xu is never satisfied with his translation. Owing to preference to Tang poems, he has revised many of his translated poems. He has published more than one version of them, including *150 Tang Poems*, *Selected Poems of Li Bai*, *Song of the Immortals – An Anthology of Classical Chinese Poetry*, and *Golden Treasury of Tang and Song Poetry*. In each book, Xu was trying to make some changes in order to achieve his theory. More than one time, he felt it delightful to perfect and surpass himself.

A Philosophical Hermeneutic Perspective on Yuanchong Xu's Translation

Philosophical Hermeneutics and Its Three Key Notions

Hans-George Gadamer (1900-2002), Heidegger's student, in his great work *Truth and Method*, elaborated on the concept of "philosophical hermeneutics," which was touched upon first by Heidegger but was not dealt with at length by him. Gadamer revealed that all the people's real experience could only be shown by means of the process of interpretation. He also believed that every subject of understanding was embedded "fore-understanding" beforehand for some reasons like personal knowledge, background, individual preference, environmental impact, and the like. Any understanding starts with prejudice. With his fore-understanding, every interpreter dialogues with the texts and produces diverse interpretations. Also, because of the prejudice being in advance, what the receivers should do is adapt themselves to the unavoidable historicity in an effort to build a new horizon. Central to the complex theoretical system of Gadamer's philosophical hermeneutics are some important concepts, namely, historicity of understanding, fusion of horizons and effective history.

Limitations in Yuanchong Xu's Tang Poem Translation and Historicity of Understanding

According to Gadamer, any interpreting action is based on its interpreter's fore-understanding. It means that an interpreter already has his own perceptual or rational knowledge of understanding the object in his mind before he starts to interpret it. As a matter of fact, the interpreter's mind is unlikely to be blank. On the contrary, it will enter the understanding process of meaning with all the fore-understandings.

Understanding is of historicity, which is the basic fact of human existence. Man is the being of history, so he has inborn historical particularity and historical limitations. Both the subject and the object of cognition are embedded in historicity. The true comprehension is not to get over the limitation of history or eliminate the gap between the text and the subject and interpret the original meaning of the text objectively. On the contrary, we should adapt ourselves to the inherent and unavoidable historicity and make use of it so as to develop a new horizon (Zhang, D., 2001).

To analyze Xu's translation from the perspective of philosophical hermeneutics, it is not difficult to find that his special handling of words is reasonable. His translation is one of multiple choices and has his own characteristics. There are differences between individuals, whose comprehension of a text is of historical particularity and historical limitations. So it is not uncommon that Mr. Xu makes some adaptations to accomplish his beauty pursuit.

Steeped in a certain culture and society, translators can neither be kept out of their general historical background, like nationality, class, and values, nor out of the concrete settings, such as age, sex, likings, life experience, etc. Therefore, there is not one hundred percent fidelity in translation. Limitations caused by historicity of understanding are always in company with the translator.

Yuanchong Xu's Recreation and Fusion of Horizons

Gadamer holds the idea that the horizon is "the range of vision that includes everything that can be seen from a particular vantage point." (Gadamer, 1975, p. 268). Different historical situations bring different horizons. Horizons deriving from diverse fore-understandings vary from individual to individual. It is not fixed and will change with one's moving. That is, "the historical movement of human life consists in the fact that it is never absolutely bound to any one standpoint, and hence can never have a truly closed horizon." In view of this, "the horizon of the past, out of which all human life lives and which exists in the form of tradition, is always in motion" (Gadamer, 1975, p. 271). Gadamer suggested looking for a point where the present and the past horizons fuse, that is to say, the fusion of horizons. He considers understanding as a process of negotiation between two parties; when the two arrive at an agreement on the matter in question, the fusion of horizons come into being.

Yuanchong Xu is a firm pursuer of recreation, so in his translation, there are many typical examples. The following instance is from his translation of Wang Wei's *The Dale of Singing Birds*:

*I hear osmanthus blooms fall unenjoyed;
When night comes, hills dissolve into the void.
The rising moon aroused birds to sing;
Their fitful twitters fill the dale with spring.*

Wang Wei is good at expressing carefree emotion and describing the natural beauty. In this poem, he still displays his peaceful inner world with the images of "osmanthus bloom," "mountain," the moon," and "the birds." Let's make an analysis of Xu's translation. In the first sentence, the addition of "hear" and "unenjoyed" depict a picture of a leisurely man watching falling flowers at ease. In the second sentence, Xu uses "void" to stress the quietness of the night. And then Xu translates "惊" into "arouse," which is really better than "surprise," "startle," or "amaze," for it reveals that the birds are not only startled up by the moon, but they enjoy the moon's beauty, as well.

From the instances, we can conclude that in the process of translation, the original horizon of the author and the horizon of the translator often have a distance, even conflict, especially for some cultural

images, which calls for the translator's filtering of some of them and recreating them for the sake of target readers.

Xu Yuanchong's Retranslation and Effective History

The fore-understanding in the mind of the interpreter make understanding possible, which are not arbitrary, but have relationship with a "horizon" and an "effective history." Both the subject and object of comprehension live in a fixed historical period. With the passage of time and development of historical situations, the object will be given new meanings, and the subject (maybe the same or the other subject) will form new interpretation of it. Gadamer called the unstopped process of new understanding "effective history." It refers to the effect of history over understanding. Neither the text (the object of interpretation) nor the interpreter (the subject of understanding) is unchangeable, but in progress up to history development. Hence, the meaning of the text is endless and the process of seeking truth for the interpreter is never suspended.

The retranslation of some great works is worth advocating, and re-translation here has two layers of meaning: one is the translator's revision of his own version; the other is different versions of the same works by more than one translator. For example: Yuanchong Xu presented several versions of Tang poems. Wen Yiduo, Luo Xinzhang, Yuanchong Xu, Zhao Ruihong, and Luo Yujun, etc., all translated *Rouge et Noir (The Red and the Black)*. Because of abundant artistic conception, Tang poems certainly attract many translators in an unceasing attempt to render them into other languages.

"Fishing in Snow" is a popular poem written by Liu Zongyuan, the famous Tang poet. Mr. Xu has translated it into English for four times, each version with his new understandings.

Version One:

*From hill to hill no bird in flight; From path to path no man in sight.
A straw-cloak'd man in a boat, lo! Fishing on a river cold with snow.*

Version Two:

*From hill to hill no bird in flight; From path to path no man in sight.
A straw-cloak'd man in a boat, lo! Fishing on river clad in snow.*

Version Three:

*From hill to hill no bird in flight; From path to path no man in sight.
A straw-cloak'd man afloat, behold! Is fishing snow on river cold.*

Version Four:

*From hill to hill no bird in flight; From path to path no one in sight.
A lonely fisherman afloat; Is fishing snow in lonely boat.*

With an effort to make his translation more beautiful, each time Yuanchong Xu makes some changes, from the imperative word "lo," to "behold", then from the picture of a man fishing in snow to the image of a man fishing snow. In this way, the coldness of the background is strengthened and the loneliness of the author was highlighted. It is obvious that he walked an endless journey with strong motivation and constant pursuit of beauty. He felt it a pleasure if he could do well in retaining beauty in the original as much as possible. There is good reason to believe that Mr. Xu re-thought the original text each time he made modification of his translation. As time goes by and the historical situation changes, the text will be given new meanings and the interpreter will have new knowledge of it.

Broadly speaking, the effective history enables the translators, at different times, to make different attempts in that history provides them with various creativities by means of which they do their utmost to seek out the truth they stick to.

Conclusion

As is seen from the above analysis, to translate Tang poetry into English calls for good comprehension and exact expression, for Tang poems are characteristic of succinctness in language and richness in imagery and strong emotions. According to his enormous translation practice, Yuanchong Xu comes up with many valuable translation theories, one of which is “Three Beauties,” pursued by him in all of his translations as the summit of his standard. Of course, this also brings about a large amount of criticism, such as his being “unfaithful” and “far from the original.” However, the traditional faithfulness to the original poems is much too exclusive and one-sided, for it ignores understanding’s pluralism and lacks certain tolerance.

According to Gadamer’s philosophical hermeneutics, understanding is historical. Thus, any interpretation of Tang poetry is within a certain stage. Then, any Tang poem's translation with strong individual characteristics, even some limitations, is understandable and reasonable, and Yuanchong Xu’s version is no exception. There is a distance between the horizon of the original and the translator’s horizon, which calls for the fusion of the two horizons to achieve a new horizon. As a result, the translator has to seek re-creation subjectively and bring the ancient life reflected in the poems to present age. The meaning of Tang poems is an inexhaustible treasure-house in terms of openness of the text, a sound reason for Xu’s retranslation with the constant pursuit of perfect version. There is one more point that the unrestricted and indiscriminate translations must be severely criticized and firmly resisted, and the translation errors are not in the study of this paper.

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An American Sinologist's Translation Pilgrimage to Chinese Zen Culture and Art of Poetry

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[Abstract] As one of the leading foreign translators of Buddhist sutra and Chinese classic poetry, American sinologist Bill Porter (under the pen name Red Pine) has enjoyed a high reputation with Chinese readers after his books *Road to Heaven: Encounters with Chinese Hermits* and *Zen Bandage* released in China. His enthusiasm to the Chinese Zen culture and poetry art aroused Chinese readers' interests in the hermit tradition and Zen practice. To deeply explore Porter's experience and his understanding of Chinese Zen culture and art of poetry, this paper goes into his major translation works to unveil his special insight in oriental language and culture.

[Keywords] Bill Porter; Zen; hermit; poetry; Buddhism

Introduction

Bill Porter (aka Red Pine), one of the world's renowned translators of Chinese classic poetry and Buddhist sutra, has attracted numerous lovers of Chinese poetic and religious culture with his unique translations of ancient texts written centuries ago by exiles and monks. More than translations, Porter's works witnessed a way of life that he experienced firsthand as a Buddhist monk, which distinguishes him from other translators. His English book *Road to Heaven: Encounters with Chinese Hermits* opened a window to the phenomenon of Chinese hermits. His translation work, *The Collected Songs of Cold Mountain*, first presented the entire content of the poetry of Cold Mountain to the world. He spent months visiting the sites associated with the ancient poets and figures that he admired. His translation works have been honored with a number of awards in America, including two NEA translation fellowships, the 2004 Finalist for PEN Center USA Literary Award in Translation (*Poems of the Masters*), two PEN translation awards (*Guide to Capturing a Plum Blossom*, Lao-tzu's Taoteching), the 2010 Lucien Stryk Asian Translation Prize of the American Literary Translators Association (*In Such Hard Times: The Poetry of Wei Ying-wu*), the 2000 WESTAF translation prize (*Collected Songs of Cold Mountain*), the inaugural Asian Literature Award of the American Literary Translators Association, and a Guggenheim Fellowship, which he received to fund his poetry version of the book *Zen Baggage* that recounts his pilgrimage to sites in China associated with the history of Zen Buddhism. Seven of his books have been translated into Chinese, including the bestseller *Road to Heaven: Encounters with Chinese Hermits*, which has sold over 200,000 copies since its release as *Kong-gu-you-lan* in Chinese.

The Obsession in Buddhism

Red Pine, a 60-year-old Los Angeles native, has been an avid student of Buddhism and the Chinese language since college. After dropping out of graduate school at Columbia University in the early 1970s, he bought a one-way ticket to Taiwan, where he joined a monastery to feed his fascination with Buddhist spirituality. Red Pine meditated four hours a day and read classical Chinese texts for another eight. Reading and pondering literature, especially poems, is thought to be an essential part of Buddhist study and the poet/recluse has traditionally been among the most respected members of society (Tyrone, 2004).

After leaving the monastery, Red Pine spent 14 years in seclusion on a farm outside Taipei. He made no money and enjoyed no comforts of the developed world (Tyrone, 2004). As he became more fluent in Chinese, Red Pine started translating ancient classical texts. His experiences in Taiwan have given him a rare understanding about Buddhism. Red Pine's quiet lifestyle in Port Townsend seems at odds with his personality. To find out whether the hermit tradition still exists in China, Red Pine spent months tracing the life of modern hermits in Zhongnan Mountains, Shanxi of China. His English book *Road to Heaven: Encounters with Chinese Hermits* gives a detailed account on what he experienced about the real life of hermit in China. His conversations with hermits led him to conclude that seclusion was like going to graduate school (Andy, 2000). He discovered another understanding of Zen tradition that in China the hermit has always been seeking the wisdom with which to guide society. Seclusion did not necessarily mean individual seclusion. He says seclusion is a necessary rite of passage for any Buddhist master, akin to earning a Ph.D. in the West (Valerie, 2007). Porter met more than 100 hermits living in Zhongnanshan Mountain in the 1980s while preparing his travel book *Road to Heaven: Encounters with Chinese Hermits*, which aroused Chinese people's great interest in hermit culture.

Approaching Buddhist Essence in Translating *Diamond Sutra* and *Heart Sutra*

Red Pine's devotion to Buddhist study and practice is well displayed in his stunning translation of *Diamond Sutra*, with commentaries by him and other Buddhist writers over the centuries. The Diamond Sutra has fascinated Buddhists for centuries because of its insights into dualism and illusion. Buddhist sutras have preserved and transmitted the direct words and teachings of Sakyamuni Buddha at first as oral tradition, and then later written since the fourth century B.C.E. In the Diamond Sutra, a mainstay of the Mahayana tradition, the Buddha responds to a disciple's question about how to become a Buddha. To understand the original but difficult teaching, Red Pine usually selects the more poetic, meaning-laden Sanskrit, instead of the conventional Chinese versions, as the original text in translation.

Red Pine concentrated on translating the Diamond Sutra in 1999, shortly after he took a position teaching Buddhism and Taoism at The City of 10,000 Buddhas near Ukiah, California. He had tried to translate the Diamond Sutra before, but it still didn't make sense to him as a coherent whole. But when he was in Taiwan he ran into this grammatical study of the Sanskrit in Chinese, and he saw things he'd never seen before – it all seemed to fit together. He based his translation on the Sanskrit text, but translated a lot of the commentaries from the Chinese masters. He also provided an interesting introduction to the history of the text's transmission, explaining that since the sutra was originally in verse, he has tried to preserve its poetic coherence. He used Te-ching's commentaries on the Diamond Sutra, because he thinks Te-ching was fearless and very unique in his insights. Unlike some commentators, who dismissed the second half of the sutra as a mere re-emphasis of the first, Red Pine demonstrates how the Buddha re-uses Subhuti's original questions to skillfully penetrate his subtle mid-understandings and delusions, one by one, until the mystery of the Buddha's "body" is transcended in a single thought (Ludix, 2005).

Red Pine's translation and commentary on the *Heart Sutra* is a worthy successor to Pine's earlier translation and commentary on the Diamond Sutra (Robin, 2005). The Heart Sutra, a mere 35 lines, is one of Buddhism's best-known teachings, "Buddhism in a nutshell," according to Red Pine. But when he was asked to prepare a fresh translation, he found himself reconsidering its origins, reexamining every word, and reassessing every nuance. The result is a meticulous line-by-line interpretation that will radically deepen readers' understanding of not only the sutra, but also Buddhism's underlying structure, Abhidharma, or the Matrix of Reality. Red Pine begins by noting that while no one knows where the

Heart Sutra came from or who composed it, he has come to conclude that its roots are in Northern India, and that “the noble Avalokiteshvara Bodhisattva” is none other than an incarnation of Maya, the Buddha’s mother. He believes that the work was originally written in Sanskrit, in contrast to some recent scholars who believe it of Chinese origin (Bill, 2004). Red Pine then proceeds to go deep into the Heart Sutra sentence by sentence, including its most cited pronouncement, “form is emptiness, emptiness is form”. Red Pine’s translation works helped foreign reader in approach to these difficult teachings. Unlike a traditional academic work, he takes the texts literally, and believes in the literal truthfulness of the text and the historical background from which it emerged. His commentary may be overly detailed and overly rigorous from the point of some readers, but there is little doubt that he is a sincere seeker who delves into the text in a personal search for revelation (Charles, 2004).

Dancing with Chinese Characters in Poetry Translation

Just as hermits will spend years dwelling on a favored text to root out new interpretations, Red Pine struggles to find a way to convey Chinese verse in meaningful, equally beautiful English. Fortunately for Red Pine, Chinese is full of ambiguous and multi-layered expressions. Translating Chinese poetry, as Red Pine sees it, is not just translating each Chinese character but reading between the lines to capture poet’s mood and hidden sentiments. Every time he translates a book of poems, he learned a new way of dancing. The people with whom he dances, though, are the dead, not the recently departed, but people who have been dead a long time.

The Chinese valued poetic turns of phrase the same way Americans value straight talk (Tyrone, 2004). Red Pine’s work bridges that cultural divide, creating English translations that still retain the poetic flourishes. Pine has a deep understanding of poetic language. In poetry, he goes beyond himself to the heart of the universe, where he could be moved by something as small as a grain of sand or as great as the Ganges. This, in Red Pine’s mind, means a lot for a poetry translator. For him, it means that he cannot simply limit himself to the words he finds on the page. He has to go deeper, to dive into the river. If language is people’s greatest collective lie, poetry is our tool to unveil that deception. When Red Pine translates a poem, he doesn’t solely read the Chinese on the paper as a poem, but only as evidence of a poem. Poetry displays itself in words, and words are only media by which reader goes into it. But words are only the surface of the poem. Even after poets give their emotional expression in language, words can cover a poem’s deeper nuances, and they make changes: maybe a few words, maybe a few lines, maybe much more. The poem, as Red Pine sees it, is a never-ending process of discovery. And it isn’t just language. It’s the unspoken vision that impels a poet and to which the poet tries to give expression (Pine, 2004). But the poet never gives complete expression to that vision, only a few fragments from a kaleidoscopic insight, a few steps on the dance floor impelled by music even the poet hears only imperfectly. It is only then that the poet no longer dances alone but with a partner. And together they manifest a deeper insight into the poem, into the music that motivates the dance. Thus, translation is not just another literary art; it is the ultimate literary art, the ultimate challenge in understanding as well as performance. For Red Pine, this means having a tango with Li Pai, a waltz with Wei Ying-wu and a dance with the dead (Pine, 2004).

The Collected Songs of Cold Mountain

Cold Mountain (Han Shan, in Chinese) was a Tang dynasty poet who, though born wealthy and privileged, chose to live a hermit’s life in the Tian Tai Mountains of southeast China. Here he meditated

on Buddhist and Taoist truths. Nearly all the poems in this collection carry some sort of teachable lesson. Many western readers got to know the Cold Mountain poems through the translations of Gary Snyder, Burton Watson. But Pine's selection is a revised and expanded edition containing all 307 surviving poems by Han Shan (Cold Mountain), plus some poems of his two close friends Feng-kan (Big Stick) and Shih-te (Pickup). Han Shan's recluse from the world has inspired many western translators who also distrusted the charms of civilization—notable Gary Snyder, whose partial translation is also celebrated—but Red Pine was the first to produce a sensitive English translation of all 307 poems. Red Pine's "Translator's Preface" and the late China expert John Blofeld's "Introduction" are both superb, illuminating preparations for the enlightening poems to follow (Rob, 2011). The Translator's Preface is sixteen pages of Red Pine's captivating investigation into the Chinese poetic tradition in general. Readers will enter into a different world by his descriptions of Han-shan, Feng-kan, and Shih-te, and the wild antics of these three enlightened masters. Also, a fifteen-page introduction by John Blofeld provides rich and vivid description of Taoist thinking and notion, Buddhism, the tradition of solitary souls, and peripatetic poets. This edition shows the poems in Chinese language on each adjacent page, and provides comprehensive notes. Red Pine also selects 4 poems of Feng-kan ("Big Stick") and 49 poems of Shih-te ("Pickup"), two of Cold Mountain's compatriots. What makes this edition so extraordinary is its careful layout. Each poem is presented with its original Chinese text, and Red Pine provides invaluable footnotes that give brief explanations of certain images and concepts found in the poems that might not be understood by many non-Taoist/Buddhist readers living in the 21st Century.

The Zen Works of Stonehouse

Red Pine's Cold Mountain translations garnered attention, but *The Mountain Poems of Stonehouse*, was the real revelation for most readers. A poet few people had ever heard of Stonehouse's singular poem-journal outlined Zen hermit life in chilling and thrilling clarity. Though rare is the Chinese ever heard of Stonehouse, Porter thinks that Stonehouse was a much better poet than Cold Mountain, but he didn't have the fame Cold Mountain had. As soon as Cold Mountain was published, Porter was dissatisfied with what he'd done. Stonehouse gave him a chance to reach the art of translation. His notes and commentary are fascinating and add immensely to the pleasure of reading the great poetic works of Stonehouse. His extensive notes on cultural and historical references help to illustrate the obscure poems to the western readers. The documentary introduction of Stonehouse's life in the preface is originated from Pine's visit in the fall of 1991 to the places where Stonehouse once lived. Red Pine took Stonehouse's poems all along with him and was anxious to find Hsiamushan and the scene of Stonehouse's Mountain Poems. He finally reached the small farmhouse where Stonehouse once lived and had a cup of tea with the farmer who lived there alone.

Poems of the Masters: China's Classic Anthology of Tang and Sung Dynasty Verse

The Poems of the Masters (Qianjiashi in Chinese) has been existed for eight centuries, but is finally available in English by Red Pine's translation. The poems included in this collection provide obvious evidence that poetry is China's greatest art form. They dated from the Tang and Sung dynasties, from the 600's to the 1200's, and include some of the most famous of all Chinese poems by some of the most revered poets. The volume includes 123 poets and 224 poems. Chinese text and proper notes are provided for each poem. Added at the end are a timeline of the Dynasties (2200 BCE- 1368), an index of the poets, and a complete index of the titles. These can be seen as a monumental work of Red Pine and an

extraordinary gift to the readers. The poems are presented in the book with the Chinese version facing the English, with biographical and relevant explanatory notes accompanying each. Red Pine's technique of transliteration seems superior to Chinese pinyin to the author, but it makes really hard for readers to connect the places and people mentioned in this book to their knowledge about Chinese history.

In Such Hard Times: The Poetry of Wei Ying-wu

Wei Ying-wu is rated among the greatest poets of China's classic era, right alongside Tu Fu and Li Po. Born to privilege in the last flowering age of the Tang dynasty, Wei (c. 737–791) entered the civil service in his youth and became a provincial official in a time of civil war, enforcing harsh laws he disliked, missing his literary friends and welcoming time alone. Some of Wei's poems are pellucid, brief impressions: the sound of mallets at the foot of leafless hills. Others give moral advice, or show introspection: Governing a prefecture takes no special skill/ what bothers me is eating for free. Wei's poetry embodies the unique sensibility of Chinese traditions. The prolific translator Red Pine has made a striking selection, 170 poems in a facing-page edition with story-like notes on each. The moods superbly conveyed in Wei's poems are very live in Pine's translation. His translations are printed opposite to the original Chinese text (Traditional characters) with each poem accompanied with an extensive introduction concerning the background in which it was written, and elucidating allusions in the text. With the exemplary presentation of the poems with detailed explanatory notes, and even a reproduction of Yingwu's epitaph to his wife, western readers can learn a lot about the history and society of the mid-Tang.

Conclusion

Praised by both Westerners and Chinese as “an authority on Chinese Zen culture”, Porter's great enthusiasm for the writings of modern Chinese hermits, as well as for the translations of Buddhist sutra and Chinese Zen poetry allow these achievements to become accessible to all Chinese religious culture-lovers across the world. His unusual attraction is not the technical ability to translate Chinese characters into English words, but his artistic ability to deftly interpret between lines and to unveil the unspoken hint. His unique annotation unveils the hidden culture of Buddhism and Chinese poetry, which represent the best combination of life experience and translation practice.

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Chinese-English Translation Strategies of Statuary Descriptions from the Perspective of Image-Text Relations

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[Abstract] Drawing on a statuary description and its English translation at a scenic spot in a national key tourist city in China, this paper investigates translation strategies of multisemiotic texts, integrating Reiss' and Snell-Hornby's text typology as its theoretical basis, Martinec & Salway's image-text relation network and Smith & Klein-Braley's advertising translation strategies. It is found that apart from the usual linguistic and cultural translation errors, multisemiotic English translations often contain text-specific translation errors due to translator's failure to discover the image-text relations and adopt the corresponding translation strategy. An unequal status of image-text relation usually necessitates translation and it is necessary to add lexical and reference adhesive devices to the translation to enhance the image-text relation.

[Keywords] multisemiotic text; image-text relation; translation strategy; translation error

Introduction

English translations of public signs and other information in public places in China have been an appealing topic of heated scholarly discussions. That is not merely a result of the necessity and importance of the translation, but more due to the fact that many of the translations have proved to be “eyesores”, full of errors and mistakes, linguistic, cultural, pragmatic and text-specific. Much of the research focus, however, has been on the former three types of translation errors, contrary to what Martin Heidegger predicted long ago that we have entered an era of image reading, paying more attention to the visual aspect of discourse. “The increased ubiquity of sound, image, film, through TV, the computer and the Internet is undoubtedly behind this new emphasis on and interest in the multi-semiotic complexity of the representations we produce and see around us” (Iedema, 2003, p. 32).

As a matter of fact, early in 1972, J. Holmes, in his seminal paper “The Name and Nature of Translation Studies”, put forward a framework of translation studies, in which text-type restricted theories are presented as a subdivision of partial theories. Text-type restriction is brought into prominence by Reiss when she linked translation methods to text types. Nevertheless, she made no mention of the concept of multimodality or multisemiotics, now a hot word in social sciences, as well as in natural science. In recent years, deepening multimodal discourse analysis by linguists and semioticians has spurred translation scholars' interest in multimodal and multisemiotic texts. This paper, therefore, takes English translation of Chinese statuary descriptions in a national key tourist city in China for example in the hope of throwing light on multisemiotic text-specific translation procedures through the perspective of image-text relations to reduce translation “eyesores” around us.

Text Types and Image-Text Relations

An Expanded Classification of Text Types

Katharina Reiss (1971) distinguished three types of texts, based on Karl Bühler's model in 1934. She linked language functions to text types and text types to translation methods. A translation-oriented text

thus falls into three categories of functions: informative, expressive and operative. She expanded the classification to incorporate a fourth group of texts – the “audiomedial type”. “Such texts are *written* to be *spoken* (or *sung*) and hence are not *read* by their audience but *heard*, often with the aid of some *extra-linguistic medium*, which itself plays a part in the mediation of the complex literary blend” (2000, p. 27). The extra-linguistic medium, such as acoustics and visual aids, play an indispensable role in communicating with the addressees of such texts. This type of texts may overlap, to a certain extent, with other types, but the addition of the fourth type highlights the non-linguistic factors. It is, therefore, critically important for a translator to understand and master the non-linguistic factors in the source text and target text that enhance the functions of language.

Although Reiss perceived the necessity of adding the fourth type to her text typology, her model could not keep pace with the development of modern information technology. Non-linguistic factors today have gone beyond the imagination of Reiss and “audiomedial” can no longer cover the text type that involves non-verbal elements, which necessitates three more subdivisions, as follows (Snell-Hornby, 2006, p. 85):

- Multimedial (audiovisual) texts, conveyed through technical media involving sight and sound (e.g. material for film or television);
- Multimodal texts, involving verbal and non-verbal (sight and sound) expressive elements (e.g. drama);
- Multisemiotic texts, using more than one graphic semiotic system – language, image and others (e.g. advertisements, statuary descriptions).

Reiss’s and Snell-Hornby’s classification both have their cons and pros. Snell-Hornby’s detailed classification is based on two parameters. One is whether the production of the text involves media technology; the other is the mode of a sign system other than the verbal the text uses. They both recognize the need to expand the earlier classification scheme, but the focus is on the verbal, treating other modes of signs as auxiliary. Besides, the mode relationship and its effect on translation are not touched upon.

Image-Text Relations

The statuary description in question involves language (the description) and image (the statuary). Hence, it belongs to the multisemiotic type, containing verbal and non-verbal elements (as shown in Figure 1). What is the image-text relation? Does translation procedures of the multisemiotic texts have anything to do with the image-text relation?

Image-text relation has attracted attention from many scholars, such as Barthes (1977), Kress & Leeuwen (1996), Carney and Levin (2002), Marsh and White (2003), and Martinec & Salway (2005), etc. Martinec & Salway’s model, “The generalized system of image-text relations”, is valid for all image-text relations. Their model involves two relations: the status relation and logico-semantic relation (as shown in Figure 2). Each image-text relation has one status relation and one (or more than one) logico-semantic relation. The status relation describes how the text and image exchange information. The image may serve the text, or the other way around; image and text may be complementary or independent of each other. The logico-semantic relation has two subtypes, expansion and projection. Expansion describes how the text and image exchange information by elaboration, extension, or enhancement. Projection also has two subtypes, locution and idea. The former is “a projection of wording, by usually a verbal process, and the latter is “a projection of meaning, most often by a mental process” (Martinec & Salway, 2005, p. 344).

荣德生救市

荣德生救市位于景区黄亭东侧，雕像是为纪念中国民族工商业先驱荣德生而建。荣先生是 20 世纪中国民族工商业代表人物之一。雕像取材于荣德生救市的典故。无锡解放前夕，不少公商界人士准备南迁，无锡市场一片萧条，荣先生为稳定民心，1949 年 4 月 23 日上午，乘上自家的包车在无锡城里兜圈子，第一站他就到了崇安寺。



The Statuary of Rong Desheng

The Statue of Rong Desheng is located on the east of Emperor Pavilion. It was set up to commemorate the forerunner of Chinese national industry and commerce Rong Desheng. Mr. Rong was one of the representatives of Chinese national industry and commerce in the 20th century. The statue tells a story of Rong Desheng saving the market. In the early post-liberation days, many local businessmen intended to move to the south, which caused a desolate scene in Wuxi market. In order to stabilize people's morale, in the morning of April 23, 1949, Rong Desheng traveled around in Wuxi, and his first station is Chong'an Temple.

Figure 1. The Statuary and Its Description in Chinese and English

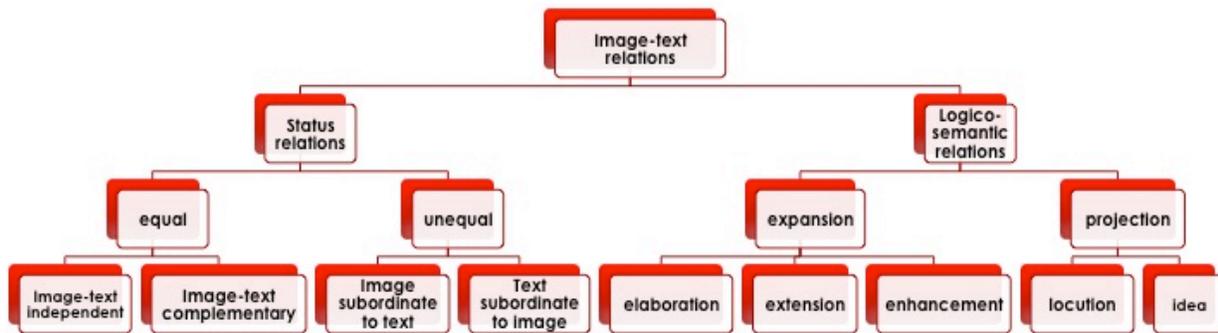


Figure 2. Martinec & Salway's Network of Image-Text Relations

Image-Text Relations and Translation Strategies

Martinec & Salway's model not only distinguishes the status relation between text and image, but also exposes how information is exchanged between them. It, therefore, provides practical guidance for the translation of multisemiotic texts. Statuary description translation bears some resemblance with advertising translation, where Smith & Klein-Braley (1997) identify five main translation strategies:

- No change: retain both graphics and text.
- Export advertisement: retain logo, slogan in original, play on positive stereotypes of source culture, where necessary add copy in target language.
- Straight translation.
- Adaptation: keep visuals, change text slightly or significantly.
- Revision: keep visuals; write new text (as cited in Snell-Hornby, 2006, p. 136).

“No change” and “export advertisement” are strategies applicable to translating advertisements of products of very strong brand names. But for statutory description translation, “export advertisement” is irrelevant. “No change” applies to multisemiotic text translation when the text and image are – of an equal status relation – independent of each other. Translation in such cases may be unnecessary.

One more obvious difference between advertising translation and statutory translation is that in the latter case the statutory cannot be altered or removed whereas in the former case both text and graphics can be retained, changed slightly or significantly, or even reconstructed. Under what circumstances should the text description be changed or rewritten? Image-text relation is a major factor that determines the translation strategy, especially when the text is perceived as complementary with the image, or subordinate to the image. The wording and meaning of the text then should in those cases be cohesive and coherent with the image, which is often neglected in translation as is shown in Figure 1 (a “straight translation” often by non-professionals, failing to make necessary adjustments to cater to the needs of a new audience). It is evident that adaption is the dominant translation strategy in multisemiotic translation when the text serves as an elaboration, extension or enhancement of the image.

Revision is, in Smith & Klein-Braley’s analysis, problematical, but there are circumstances where a translational action has to be performed without the source text. For example, if the source text is full of mistakes and errors, the translator may choose to consult a competent expert and write in the target language when the text and the image are perceived not as independent of each other. The translational action then takes the form of cross-cultural rewriting (Nord, 1997, p. 17).

From the analysis above, it can be postulated that in multisemiotic text translations, apart from the usual linguistic, pragmatic and cultural translation errors, text-specific translation errors can occur if due attention is not paid to the image-text relations. A case in point is the one we find as shown in Figure 1. Based on the analysis above, for the statutory description in question, its text type, image-text relation, translation strategy, translation errors can be summarized as shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Analysis of the Statuary and Its Translation from the Perspective of Image-text Relation

Text Type	Image-text Relation		Translation Strategy	Translation Errors
	Status	Logico-Semantic		
Multisemiotic	Unequal (image subordinate to text)	Enhancement	Adaptation	Linguistic, cultural, text-specific

The statuary is erected at the Chong’an Temple tourist attraction in downtown Wuxi, a destination city for tourists the world over. To most tourists from English speaking countries, Rong Desheng is unfamiliar and the image is subordinate to the text, which enhances the image by referencing it with circumstantial information, such as place, time and purpose for the creation of the artwork. In fact, the Rong family in Wuxi was the most prominent industrialist family in pre-1949 China. The first generation of the Rongs was represented by Rong Desheng and Rong Zongjing, who were known as the king of flour- and cotton-milling business. They chose to stay on Mainland China before liberation in 1949 instead of moving to Hong Kong as many others did. Rong Yiren, one of the second-generation representatives, was the vice president of China from 1993 to 1998. The statutory description translation is thus necessary and essential. However, the original translation contains at least the following translation errors:

- Linguistic errors: improper use of (1) appositives: “the forerunner of Chinese national industry and commerce Rong Desheng”, (2) nouns: “post-liberation days”, “his first station”, (3) tense: “his first station is Chong’an Temple”;
- Cultural errors: failure to bridge the cultural gap between the receptors of the source text and those of the target text, for example, “In the early post-liberation days”, “move to the south”;
- Text-specific errors: failure to master the image-text relation and adopt the corresponding translation strategy.

The problematical translation as shown in Figure 1 can thus be improved as follows: (The italicized correct the text-specific errors and the bold correct the cultural errors, with correction of the linguistic errors not marked.)

The Statuary of Rong Desheng

The Statuary of Rong Desheng is erected here, east of the Emperor Pavilion, to commemorate Rong Desheng, the forerunner and one of the representatives of Chinese national industry and commerce in the 20th century. *The creation of this Statuary* was inspired by a story about Rong’s rescue of the Wuxi market. Shortly before the **founding of the PRC in 1949**, many local businessmen intended to move to **South China**, which caused a depressed local market. In order to reassure the local businessmen, on the morning of April 23, 1949, Rong Desheng traveled around the city *by his own rickshaw*, his first stop being the Chong’an Temple.

The improved version recognizes the image-text unequal status relation and enhances the image by adopting the adaptation translation strategy. The use of “*The Statuary*”, “*is erected here*”, “*The creation of this Statuary*”, “*by his own rickshaw*”, etc. serves as lexical and reference cohesive devices to provide explicit links between the text and the image.

Conclusion

In postmodernist translation studies, translation error analysis focuses on the translator’s rewriting of the source text due to ideological factors, which is of little guidance to technical translation. Besides, our attention is often directed to linguistic, pragmatic and cultural errors, with the difficulty arising from the multisemiotic nature of the text neglected. This paper analyzes the English translation of a statuary description and postulates that image-text relation is a major factor that determines the translation strategy in multisemiotic text translation. It is hoped that this analysis will arouse more interest in multisemiotic (such as artwork description) translation studies. Of course, further studies can be done by looking at more examples, especially by comparing the English translations with functionally parallel multisemiotic texts in English speaking countries.

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Norm Exploration of the Two English Versions of *Hong Lou Meng* by a Descriptive Perspective

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[Abstract] With the approach of descriptive translation studies, this article makes a comparative study of the two English versions of *Hong Lou Meng*. Using the descriptive purpose, this article employs Gideon Toury's descriptive method with the micro-level description scheme, and makes a dynamic description of the two versions, aiming to reconstruct the translation norms of the two individual translators. Hawkes' translation was found to be predominantly produced in order to conform to the norms and conventions of the target system. Because of the influence of social-cultural factors Yongs' version keeps closer to the source culture.

[Keywords] descriptive translation studies; translation norms; *Hong Lou Meng*

Introduction

Traditional translation studies of Chinese Classics (CC) in China tend to evaluate the quality of translation work by employing translation criteria such as “faithfulness”, “expressiveness” and “elegance”. This prescriptive translation studies often neglect the influence of various social-cultural factors that may affect the translation performance.

In this paper, the authors attempt to make a historical and descriptive analysis of two English versions of *Hong Lou Meng*. The paper decides to incorporate the micro-level description scheme in Gideon Toury's three-phase methodology to form the methodology for the present study, which shall go like this: first, situate the two translated texts of *Hong Lou Meng* within the recipient culture to examining their acceptability and readability; second, describe the translated texts by examining their systematic characterizes as well as the linguistic differences from a micro-level; and at last, identify the translational norms and discuss the factors that influence the formulation of the underlying norms of individual translators.

Translation Norms

Norms are terms frequently encountered in discussions of translational phenomena. Although in traditional writing concerning translation activities and some branches of modern translation theory, norms have been received and considered as guidelines, “or even rules, which a translator needs to follow in order to produce an acceptable translation” (Shuttleworth, 2004, p. 113). Within the Descriptive approach, norms are understood in more neutral way. They are regarded as reflections of the translation practice that signifies the translations produced by an individual translator, school of translators or a certain entire culture.

Toury (1995) distinguished three kinds of translation norms: initial, preliminary and operational norms. Preliminary norms include factors that govern the choice of the work to translate and the general

translation strategy. Initial norms categorize the translator's choice to subject oneself to the original text, or the linguistic and literary norms in target culture, or some compromise of the two. If the translator gets closer to the original text, the version will be adequate; if the culture's norms in the target text get the run upon the original text, acceptability will be expected. The actual decisions made during the translation process are Operational norms.

However, the norms themselves are not actually available for observation, but rather, the norm-governed instance of behavior is under discussion (Toury, 1995), or more precisely, it is the products of such behavior. Based on the polysystem work by Even-Zohar and his own work, Toury puts forward a three-phase methodology for the systemic DTS, combining the description of translation products and the important role of the socio-cultural system.

The later part of this paper will explore the norms in English translation of CC through a descriptive study of two English versions of *Hong Lou Meng*.

A Comparative Study of the Two English Versions

Situating Translated Texts within the Social Contexts and Culture System

Establishing the cultural-internal status of a text as a translation does not in itself provide a sufficient basis for studying it as one. Any attempt to offer exhaustive descriptions and successful explanations would make a proper contextualization necessary. The present paper will in this part investigate the social-cultural context at the times when the two versions were produced.

There are nine well-known English versions of *Hong Lou Meng*. Most of the translators are native English speakers: John Davis (1830); Robert Tom (1864); E. C. Bowra (1868); Bencraft Joly (1892); Florence Mchugh & Isabel Mchugh (1958) and David Hawkes (1973). Chinese versions are done by Wang Liangzhi (1927), Wang Jizhen (1929-1958) and Yang Hsien-yi (1978).

Two complete and best-known translations of *Hong Lou Meng* appeared in the late 20th century. One is *The Story of the Stone*, translated by English scholar David Hawkes (1973), and the other is *A Dream of Red Mansions*, translated by Chinese scholars, Yang Hsien-yi and his wife Gladys Yang (1978).

China has long history and has occupied a strong position for a very long period. Therefore, the Chinese always boost their sense of cultural superiority and national pride. The character and position of cultural polysystem of China determines that translation activities do not participate in building the center of cultural system, and are in an inactive state. That will explain why our well-famous cultural classic *Hong Lou Meng* is mainly translated by foreigners, not by domestic scholars.

In the late 1970s, China ushered in a new situation of booming development in translation. It's possible that the ending of the Cold War offered an opportunity for China to have more communication with Western world. At that time, many Chinese translators, free from the shackles of the Cultural Revolution, shifted their attention to the West and began a new round of large-scale translations. At the same time, with the development of Sinology in the West, more and more western scholars became interested in Chinese culture, especially Chinese classics.

It is well known that *Hong Lou Meng* is an ancient Chinese outstanding literary classic and can be regarded as one of the masterpieces of ancient Chinese literature. Meanwhile, the book covers almost all aspects of Chinese culture. Therefore, scholars at home and abroad pay a lot of attention to its translation.

On one hand, if we put western English-speaking countries, especially America, as a recipient culture, we can find that the recipient cultural polysystem is well established, it is a system of

self-sufficiency, seldom asking for help from the outside. When it relates to other cultural systems, it is always in a canonized position, and influences other systems. The translator David Hawkes comes from such a canonized cultural system.

On the other hand, China would like to share its profound culture with the entire world. Although China started later in translating CC into English than the West, we have made great endeavors in introducing the Chinese culture into the world. After 1949, in order to communicate with other countries, the new government devoted a lot of attention to translating CC into foreign languages. Sponsored by Chinese government, Yang Hsien-yi and Gladys Yang translated ten-millions of world-famous books both in Chinese and foreign languages. Their main English versions of CC include *A Dream in Red Mansions*, *Chu Ci*, and *Select of Records of the Grand Historian*, etc.

According to Toury, because there are differences in the two literary systems, the translation version will have some kind of divergence – some will be compulsory divergence. These differences are always in the levels of language and culture. When they deal with these differences, translators make their choices between adequacy and acceptability.

Adequacy and Acceptability

Here we come to Toury's Initial norm. The Initial norm concerns the basic choice, which individual translators make between requirements of the two different sources. "Thus, whereas adherence to source norms determines a translation's adequacy as compared to the source text, subscription to norms originating in the target culture determines its acceptability" (Toury, 1995, pp. 56-57).

When we look at the two versions of *Hong Lou Meng*, in most cases, we would say that Yang's version is close to the source text, while Hawkes' version shows minute linguistic and literary techniques. If we study the two versions in the bigger background of culture, we see that the two versions are produced for different purposes and in different cultures. The two versions are dominated by different norms. We can tell David Hawkes' principle from what he said in his preface of *The Story of the Stone*, "I make no apology for having occasionally amplified the text a little in order to make such passages intelligible" (Hawkes, 1973, pp. 17-18).

Yang's tendency can be clearly seen in his remark in an interview, "I don't think you can afford to be interpretative in your translation; you have to stick to the images of the original to the best of your ability without trying to exaggerate or add anything to it. If there were no equivalents then, of course, you lose something, but it isn't right to be too creative because then you are doing a rewrite and not a translation" (Yang, 1981, p. 8). He also expresses his attitude like "you have to stick very faithfully to the original" (Yang, 1981, p. 6).

Textual Analysis of the Two Versions from the Comparative Perspective

When translating *Hong Lou Meng*, Yang Hsien-yi aims at introducing the profound Chinese culture overseas. With this purpose, he adopted faithfulness as a principle and foreignization as a secondary method in his version. On the opposite, Hawkes intends to satisfy readers. In his version, he accepts smoothness as a strategy and domestication as the main method. His version is easier to be accepted by the target readers. Evidence can be found in his own remarks: "If making emendations of this kind is felt to be outside the proper scope of a mere translator, I can only plead my concern for the Western reader, who is surely sufficiently burdened already with the task of trying to remember the novel's hundreds of impossible-sounding names" (Hawkes, 1973, p. 20).

There are many examples that show their different strategies:

Example 1:

贾芸对卜世仁说: “巧媳妇做不出没米的粥来, 你叫我怎么办呢?” (Cao & Gao, 2005, p. 323).

The Yang’s version:

“...even the cleverest housewife can’t cook a meal without rice...” (Yangs, 1978, p. 317).

Hawkes’ version:

“...I don’t see what I am supposed to do without any capital. Even the cleverest housewife can’t make bread without flour” (Hawkes, 1973, p. 474).

In Yang’s version, they keep “rice, meal” in accordance with the source text. Nevertheless, Hawkes uses “flavor” and “bread” instead of “rice & meal”. The cultural difference can be seen in this dialogue. The Yangs adopt a literal translation, which is in accordance with Chinese living customs, while Hawkes makes use of the word “bread” which is well known in western countries. Hawkes’ domestication method is the result of his thoughtfulness towards the target readers.

Example 2:

“阿弥陀佛” is a particular Buddhist word that is often used by Chinese people to express the feeling of gratitude and relief. Although it cannot be translated accurately, it must have a connotation of Buddhism, the leading religion in ancient China. A collection of the translation of this word is made in this paper (from the first 80 chapters). See Table 1.

Table 1: A Comparison of Two Versions in Translating “阿弥陀佛”

Chapters including “阿弥陀佛”	Yangs’ Version	Hawkes’s Version
Chapter 6	Buddha be praised	Bless you
Chapter7	Gracious Buddha	God Bless my soul
	Amida Buddha	Bless my soul
Chapter 19	Amida Buddha	Praised be
Chapter 20	Amida Buddha	Holy Name
Chapter 25	Amida Buddha	Amitabha
	Amida Buddha	Holy Name
	Amida Buddha	Holy Name
Chapter26	Buddha be praised	Omitted
	Buddha be praised	Bless his Holy Name
Chapter28	Amida Buddha	Blessed Name of the Lord
	Buddha be praised	Holy Name
Chapter 31	Buddha be praised	Holy Name
Chapter 32	Amida Buddha	Holy Name
Chapter 34	Gracious Buddha	Omitted
Chapter 35	Gracious Buddha	Holy Name
Chapter 38	Gracious Buddha	Holy Name
Chapter 39	Gracious Buddha	Holy Name
Chapter 43	Amida Buddha	Holy Name
Chapter 57	Amida Buddha	Thank the Lord for that
Chapter 57	Amida Buddha	Holy Name
Chapter 63	Amida Buddha	Holy Name
Chapter 74	Amida Buddha	Holy name
Chapter 77	Buddha be praised	Holy Name
	Merciful Buddha	Holy Name

Obviously, Yang tries to introduce Buddhism to readers while Hawkes avoids doing so and translates it into the words used in western religion.

Major Factors Influencing the Translation Norms of the Two Translators

As Zhang Nanfeng (2000) argues, there will be no actual value in the descriptive translation studies without taking into consideration the questions concerning the determining forces of translational norms, including the power relation, social ideology, social demands for translation, and the position of translation activities in the target culture. After the identification of the translational norms of the two individual translators, the authors will explore the factors that may contribute to the differences in the translation norms of the two individual translators. The factors influencing the formation of the translation norms of the two translators are ideology and patrons.

Any discourse bears significance of political flavor and ideology. Just as Lefevere (1992) claims that central to a whole form of social and historical life, ideology is a set of discourse concerning interests, which are in some way relevant to the maintenance or interrogation of power structure. In the process of translation, translators adopt kind of ideology, which can be distinguished in the choice of materials to be translated, and in the strategies to deal with the discourse.

Yang's version could be influenced by the authority's appraisal and annotation. After 1949, *Hong Lou Meng* was regarded and appraised as the anti-feudal political and historical novel. In Yang's translation, there is an anonymous publishing illumination which said that *A Dream of Red Mansions* is a product reflecting class contradiction and class struggle which exposed the evil of feudal system and crime of feudal ruling class (Yang and Yang, 1978). Clearly, it shows the standpoint of the publishing house. Just as Mrs. Yang said: "I think we take too few liberties. A translator we admire very much, David Hawkes, is very much more creative" (Yang, 1981, p. 6).

Let's see one example:

In Chapter 5, zonged Jiao shouted, "每日家偷狗戏鸡, 爬灰的爬灰, 养小叔子的养小叔子。" (Cao & Gao, 1982, p. 114).

In Yang's version, what Jiao Da said is the critique to corruption and hypocrisy of the ruling class. Jiao Da, definitely, is a representative of the oppressed class and positive figure (Yangs, 1978, p. 115).

In Hawkes' translation, Jiao Da is rendered into a comique even a raffian. To add comedy effect, he was treated even worse than in the target text (Hawkes, 1973, p. 183).

Patrons generally refer to the initiators of translation activities. He may be an individual, or a group or institutions. They prescribe the translation request based on the definite translation purposes. As a result, translator's performance is restrained by the translation request and purpose of the patrons or initiators to a great extent. Thus, patrons are the unavoidable factor which cannot be ignored while discussing literary works.

Hawkes made his own choice to translate *Hong Lou Meng*, and he himself is the patron of this translation activity. He quit his job as the professor in Oxford University in order to put himself wholeheartedly to translation. His translation motivation is very simple-mainly satisfies his own interests excluding other factors like cause-pursuit. In the preface of *The Story of the Stone*, Hawkes holds that it is the most popular book in the whole Chinese Literature. In his opinion, if the reader shares the pleasure only a bit that the book brings to him, he would not waste all his lifetime. He also maintains that "for the

benefit of the learned reader I ought perhaps to explain that this translation in effect represents a new edition of my own” (Hawkes, 1973, p. 18).

On the other hand, Yang Hsien-yi and Gladys Yang serve at Foreign Language Bureau and undertake translation entrusted by the Government. In this aspect, they are restricted by the official norms. They have less freedom in choosing initiative norm to choose what they prefer to translate. The Publishing house exerts great influences to the translators. On one hand, Foreign Language Publishing House is an official unit. That means its publication must have a definite authority, which is an official version. So translators have little liberty in their own translating. As Gladys Yang claims, “we are more literal” (Yang & Yang, 1981, p. 6). On the other hand, the actual effect of its translation mainly promotes self-image of Chinese culture. The mission of Foreign Language Publishing House is to advocate Chinese culture. And the products do not really enter into the market of the English literature. For these reasons, Yangs’ version of *Hong Lou Meng* is initiated by the source system. Therefore, the version must comply with the various norms of source system, and has no necessity to observe the literary norms of target system.

Conclusion

After the comparison of the two English versions of *Hong Lou Meng* from the perspective of DTS and exploration of the factors that may determine or influence the translation norms of the two translators, the authors find that starting from different cultural systems, Yang and Hawkes abide by their own norms in doing translation. The factors influencing the formation of translation norms beyond the source text, ranging from ideology to patrons, included in the broad socio-cultural context. Actually, more broad social-cultural factors that may determine or influence the formation of translation norms of different translator concerning CC can be explored to have a better understanding of the translation activity.

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Translation of Culturally Characteristic Expressions from the Receptive Perspective

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[Abstract] The translation of culturally characteristic expressions is constantly considered as the most problematic part in translation practice. Reception theory claims that reading comprises creative power and is a constant interaction between the reader and the text, during which meaning is created, based on the text by the imagination of the readers. The present paper places the problematic issue in translation under the perspective of reception theory and proposes the general direction of resolution for the cultural obstacles in translation.

[Keywords] Translation; Reception Theory; culturally characteristic expressions; fusion of horizons

Introduction

With the ever-increasing need for cross-cultural communication in the trend of globalization, translation takes on added significance. Translators and interpreters are expected to assume the responsibility of facilitating mutual understanding among different nationalities by conveying both meanings and cultures in language translation and interpretation.

Culturally characteristic expressions are commonly assumed to be the most problematic area in translation due to the complex connotations; however, with appropriate perspective guided by reception theory, comprehensive background knowledge of cultures involved, translators would be able to adopt proper approaches and achieve better understanding in translation, hence facilitating inter-cultural communication among the world.

Culturally Characteristic Expressions

Culturally characteristic expressions are formed by and reflect certain cultural context. They are widely used by people sharing the same cultural heritage. The major problems that such expressions pose in translation usually touch the following two aspects: recognition and the complication in interpreting the various aspects of the involved meaning they convey.

Recognition

The very first obstacle that translators might encounter is realizing that they are dealing with some culturally characteristic expressions. Expressions go against conventional thoughts or even eccentricity, and remarks grammatically odd are easily recognized, such as *a storm in a teacup*. In general, such expressions usually would be distinct from its context.

However, it might be the case that some of the cultural expressions are quite obvious, but there are more of them that are less easily recognizable. A case in point is the use of puns. Even trickier is that the translator might think he/she has already tackled the problem, but there are more connotations hidden still. Another pronounced problem in the case of culturally characteristic expressions is the fixed structures they have, which require little variation in form. For example, *ladies and gentlemen* could be not changed into *gentlemen and ladies*.

Some cultural expressions look transparent in meaning, but most expressions may also suggest that they should not be interpreted, as they appear to be, like *love me, love my dog*. Such expressions are way more than the meanings of the words they have. They have to be considered as a whole under the context taking up special meanings, which is widely true in any formed, recurring pattern of any language.

Since cultural expressions are those words that encapsulate cultural stereotypes and encompass almost every aspect of social experiences in the community of the language users, from the receptive perspective, encountering cultural expressions in one's own language would conjure up, in the mind of the reader, every aspect of previous experience associated with the present contexts in which the expressions are used.

Complication in Interpretation

Complications involved in interpreting culturally characteristic expressions could be summarized as follows:

- Lack of counterpart
- Distinct context required
- Various meaning between the lines

Lack of counterpart happens when an expression has no equivalent in the target language. As a matter of fact, it is unrealistic to expect equivalent items in the target languages, since every language has its own distinct way to express the meaning. Some conventional cultural expressions are related to specific social or religious occasions, like the greetings in the Arabic world. Such expressions are directly linked to Arabic religious and social behavioral patterns. Translators have to deal with the problem of the non-existence of a similar convention in target language and culture. However, lack of counterpart in the target language doesn't mean that such expressions are untranslatable. Therefore, the meaning conveyed in the fixed structured cultural expressions could be transferred in the target language with proper endeavor.

Secondly, cultural expressions may have similar counterpart in the target language, but under different contexts. In such cases, the counterpart might contain different connotations or may not be appropriate to be put in the context required by the original text.

Finally, puns are typical examples of hidden meaning between the lines. Literal and metaphorical senses of the expressions are somewhat amazing and eye-catching for readers, but it can rarely be presented both in form and meaning in a target language.

Reception Theory and Insights on Translation of Culturally Characteristic Expressions

As reception theory claims, the meaning of the text not only lies in the original work, but also lies in the influence it exerts upon the readers. One of the core concepts proposed by Jauss (1982) in Reception Theory is the horizon of expectations. Readers adopt their fore-meaning and project towards the text from his/her prejudgment, and form the horizon of expectations, which is dynamic and subject to change with constant information input. Consequently, reading conducted by the target reader is not a passive, but an active, process of information exchange.

As Figure 1 shows, a translation process centers on the translators, because of their key function. According to Gadamer (2004), understanding does not occur in a vacuum, the hermeneutic process of human being is dynamic and the movement towards a fusion of horizons is constant. One's previous experiences form his/her fore-meanings and fore-structures, which is inevitable and crucial to the

understanding of the text. Such prejudgment is subjective; however, it is dynamic and open to change as the horizon is constantly being shaped by information input. Based on this premise, the fusion of horizons could not be fulfilled.

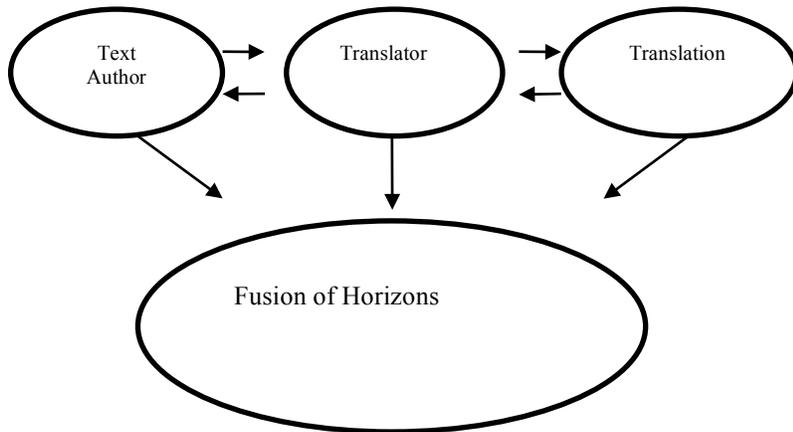


Figure 1. Fusion of Horizons

The translator is always projecting the meaning initiated by his fore-meanings and fore-structures, which they themselves have constructed or, in a better term, raised by the horizons projected by the object. The dialogue between the horizon of the translator (his/her understanding and interpretation of the text) and the text continues till both horizons extend to which a fusion of horizons occurs. A good translator will help incur a similar understanding and interpretation process in the target readers. The optimal and ideal end of translation is to reach the fusion of horizons from the translator, the target reader, and the text.

In the case of culturally characteristic expressions, unfamiliar associations of ideas cannot simply be introduced in a target text without giving the reader sufficient hints. A competent translator would take into consideration the horizon of expectations of the receptor in order to successfully transfer the cultural differences within the text.

Reception Theory offers an insightful perspective for cultural translation. Four categories of cultural expressions are listed here, of which the indeterminacy shall arouse the attention and deserve much efforts from translators.

- The first category includes those expressions related to geographical environment of a certain culture. While being the premise of life, geographical environment is naturally reflected in the fixed expressions of people's daily life. The most vivid examples usually shown in English come from the fact of being an island state of the Great Britain, like *to miss the boat* (错失良机). There might be no boat related expression in a target culture, which makes the translation hard to be fulfilled.
- The second consists of the expressions showing social customs. Most frequent quoted examples are those idioms with the attitudes to animals. A case in point is the far distance between the images of dogs in Chinese and in English, which contributes to considerable difficulties in the translation.
- The third refers to the expressions that comprise allusions. Allusions are originated from myths and legends, fables or fairy-tales, hence infer rich cultural connotations. Familiar cases come from Greek myths, like *Sisyphus's stone* and *Achilles' heel*, and *cat's paw* from Fables of

Aesop, etc. Special and ancient culture carried by such expressions is hard to find equivalent in another language.

- The fourth category involves expressions associated with religious beliefs. Such expressions also account for a large proportion in cultural expressions. Confucianism, Buddhism and Taoism in China have been influencing the life of Chinese ever since the nation is formed. Related value, norms are intensely shown in the language. On the other hand, expressions like *God helps those who help themselves* reveal the influential religion of Christianity in the western world.

Resolution

Having recognized and interpreted the culturally characteristic expression with linguistic knowledge and cultural awareness, the translator has to decide how to translate them into the target language. The difficulties involved in translating cultural expressions are different from interpreting them. The way in which cultural expressions are translated into another language depends not only on whether expressions of similar meaning are available in the target language, but the significance of specific meaning and the way in which such expressions are used in the source text as well. The appropriateness or inappropriateness of using the cultural expression in the given context in target language is of similar weight.

From the perspective of reception theory, whether the adoption of the following translation methods is appropriate and acceptable depends greatly on the translators' prediction of the target readers' horizon of expectations. The first resolution discussed below is to find an expression of similar meaning and similar form in the target language, which seems to be the ideal solution here. However, it is impossible for most cases, and is not necessarily always the case. Translators have to avoid the urge of searching constantly for equivalent expressions. Language style and rhetoric effects of the expressions shall be taken into consideration all the time.

Borrowing

Topping the list of translation strategy, borrowing serves as the most ideal resolution in translating culturally characteristic expressions. Since language belongs to culture of a certain group of people, and is the carrier of it, borrowing strategy would enrich target culture by introducing exotic languages from brilliant works from other cultures.

The strategy of borrowing is to use the original allusion to express the meaning. This method can maintain the style of the original text, and also bring in the culture notes to be part of the target language. As a matter of fact, there are lots of borrowed idioms from English, which have been rooted in Chinese language and culture. For example, there are some fixed expressions from Shakespeare's plays, like *brevity is the soul of wit* (言以简为贵), idioms from historical event, like *All roads lead to Rome* (条条大路通罗马), and others like *a friend in need is a friend indeed* (患难见真情), and *no pains, no gains* (不劳无获). Such expressions have been accepted by the Chinese readers.

From the receptive perspective, the strategy of borrowing in translation would definitely expand the horizons of target readers, and in the meantime, expressions in source language could be introduced into the target language and facilitate the communication among people of different cultural backgrounds.

Substitution

Substitution is a commonly used method in translating cultural expressions. Literal translation is more often than not insufficient for a fair understanding from the target readers. What's more, some of the literal translations are quite misleading or confusing. For example, the idiom *dead to the world* literally means as 与世长辞 in Chinese, but its real meaning is that the person is so sleepy or drunk as to know nothing about the outside world. In the sentence *I found him stretched out on the bed, dead to the world*, the translator should be very careful not to make any confusion of the meaning. Therefore, the more appropriate translation in Chinese could be “不醒人事”. Here, we use “人事” to substitute “世界”, and we change the word “dead” into “know” to better express the meaning in English.

From the example above, we can see that substitution serves as a great strategy in the sense of full manifestation of the expression's implications. Generally speaking, the strategy could be frequently adopted in the following situations: First, if the translator can understand the implications of the expression but cannot translate the image directly, substitution could be the best resolution. For example, *scratch the surface* can be substituted as 略知皮毛, *shoot the works* as 不遗余力 and *go through the motion* as 敷衍了事. Second, if the expression contains some implication that is hard to express in target language, the translator can use some cultural expressions in target language with similar implications but different images instead, so that the target readers can easily capture the meaning of it. For example, *to find a needle in a haystack* can be substituted as 大海捞针, and *to teach one's grandmother to suck eggs* can be “班门弄斧”.

The advantage of substitution lies obviously in the concept from reception theory. Such translation usually accords with the target language style and is closer to the expectations from the target readers, so it can be easily understood and accepted.

Extension

Translation is far more than a simple replacement of lexical and grammatical items between the two languages involved. The process of translation of culturally characteristic expressions could involve ridding of the basic linguistic elements of the original text to achieve an understandable reproduction of the message in target language.

Under some circumstances, it's difficult to find an exact substitution for an English expression, for there is no similar item in target language. In this case, the translator can try the method of extension to express the original meaning more exactly and fully. Sometimes, when using the method of extension, the translator has to change or give up the original literal message. For example, the idiom *to mind one's p's and q's*, can be translated into 谨言慎行. On one hand, the translation version is faithful in the meaning; on the other hand, the original images of *p's* and *q's* are abandoned. Another example is *to stew in one's own juice* (自讨苦吃). In this translation, the meaning is extended but the vehicle of image “juice” is left out.

Another kind of extension method is to further explain the expressions with the help of dash. For example, *a rolling stone gathers no moss* can be translated as 滚石不生苔——漂泊者不聚财, *to have all one's eggs in one basket* as 将所有的鸡蛋放在一个篮子里——孤注一掷, and *Tom, Dick and Harry* as 汤姆、迪科和哈利——普通人、无名小卒. The advantage of using dash lies in that it can put both the literal meaning and the implications of the expressions together.

Annotation

English has many allusions from the classic literatures, and has unique cultural background, so is Chinese. To translate these allusions, the translator can adopt the method of annotation by explaining the cultural meaning right after the translation, which is exemplified here:

The Chinese expression: 塞翁失马，不知是祸是福…

The English translation: When the old man at the frontier lost his horse, he thought it might be a good thing…

Note: An allusion to a story popular for more than 2,000 years in China. When an old man lost his horse, neighbors condoled with him. “This may be a good thing,” he said. The horse came back with another horse, and the old man’s neighbors congratulated him. “This may prove unlucky,” he said. When his son, who liked the new horse, rode it and broke his leg, once more the neighbors expressed their sympathy. “This may turn out for the best,” said the old man. And, indeed, just then the Huns invaded the country and most able-bodied men were conscripted and killed in the battle, but thanks to his broken leg the old man’s son survived (Li, 2009, p. 41).

By annotation, the target readers can have a better understanding about the cultural backgrounds and the allusion behind it.

Conclusion

The analysis above makes the difficulty in translating culturally characteristic expressions evident, as they are rich in cultural implications. However, the translation could possibly be fulfilled if the translator, while fully employs his/her linguistic ability and comprehensive culture awareness, takes a look at the text from the perspective offered by reception theory, and has a clear idea of the relations among culture, language and purpose of translation.

Conventions of cultural expressions, the contexts in which they are used, and the frequency of use shall all be different among languages. Translation requires the translator be not only accurate but also highly sensitive to the rhetorical nuances of the language (Fernando & Flavell, 1981). A better way to diminish obstacles in translation of expressions full of cultural connotation from the perspective of reception theory would help readers understand the original text and promote cultural exchange by expanding the readers’ horizon of expectations.

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How the Translator's Realization of Process Varies?

An Exploration of Grammatical Metaphor in Prose Translation

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[Abstract] *This article investigates the role of grammatical metaphor in translation, with its special focus on the different realizations of process meaning. Based on qualitative analysis of two prose translation in English and Chinese, this article explores the variation in process types and the functional shift of process at element level. Their underlying motivations are also discussed.*

[Keywords] *grammatical metaphor; translation; process*

Introduction

The notion of grammatical metaphor was initially introduced by Halliday (1985). It resulted from the stratal tension between semantics and lexicogrammar. In the past three decades, grammatical metaphor has been vastly studied within Systemic Functional Linguistics. Applied studies mainly focus on its role in language development (e.g. Derewianka, 2003), scientific discourse (e.g. Banks, 2003), and ESL/EFL writing (e.g. Byrnes, 2009). However, its application in translation has been less studied. It is argued that grammatical metaphor is related to the understanding of source text and recreation of the target text (Steiner, 2002). Huang (2009) applied the theory to interpret the different versions of translation in terms of congruence. Lin and Wang (2012) innovatively proposed a model for cross-linguistic grammatical metaphor based on semantic universalities and varieties of language forms.

There remains a paradox in the criteria judging good translation. On the one hand, it requires equivalence of form, as well as meaning, which is supposed to be the basic principle of translation. But on the other hand, it advocates innovation and recreation so as to be rid of traces in source text. Then how to maintain a balance between the two opposing force? This article tries to argue that it is grammatical metaphor that plays the vital role. The aim of this study is to explore the deployment of grammatical metaphor in translation to see how the expert translator successfully varies the realization of process meaning in the source text without undermining the whole ideational content.

Grammatical Metaphor: A Resource for Reconstructing Experience

The Nature of Grammatical Metaphor

One of the critical claims in functional linguistics is that language is a stratified semiotic system, comprising semantics, lexicogrammar, and phonology, with each level of abstraction realizing its higher level. Semogenetically, there exists a mode of realization between semantics and lexicogrammar, which takes the priority over others (Halliday & Matthiessen, 1999). Such a mode is called the congruent realization of meaning. Congruently, the semantic unit of sequence is realized by clause complex; figure, by clause; elements by groups; things, by noun, process, by verbs, etc. As opposed to the congruent form, metaphorical expression is regarded as “a realignment between a pair of strata: a remapping of the semantics onto the lexicogrammar” (Halliday, 1998, p. 192).

In the ideational strand of meaning, metaphorical realization involves two kinds of grammatical shift, rank shift and class shift (Yang, 2007). First, metaphorical realizations of sequence, figure, and group involve shift to a lower rank, and are respectively realized by clause, group, and words in the group. Second, there is shift in grammatical status of elements, such as the reconstrual of process or quality as fictitious things. In this sense, grammatical metaphor can be understood as a resource for reconstruing experience by combining features of category meanings. According to Halliday and Matthiessen (1999), it is transcategorization that leads to the evolution of grammatical metaphor.

Grammatical metaphor results in semantic compound (Ravelli, 1988) or junction (Halliday, 1998). It is, therefore, argued that metaphorical and congruent realizations bear different meanings. The added meaning includes that of other grammatical categories, as well as meaning in relation to textual and interpersonal metafunctions. However, there is also some loss of meaning in the metaphorical mode of expression. As illustrated by Thompson (2004), for instance, if a process is reconstrued as a noun, the lost information may be the finiteness of the verb, the participants or circumstances of the process.

A further point to mention is that the reconstrual of experience is not an either-or choice. There are intermediate expressions between the most congruent and the most metaphorical realizations (Halliday, 1994).

Types of Grammatical Metaphor

Grammatical metaphor can be observed in all the three metafunctional dimensions. Halliday (1985, 1994) explored ideational and interpersonal grammatical metaphor. Ideational grammatical metaphor is further discussed from two perspectives. The first concerns metaphors of transitivity. As the term suggests, it involves an incongruent representation of the process, participants, and circumstances. For example, we might say *the fifth day saw their arrival at the summit* instead of *they arrived at the summit on the fifth day*. Here, time adjunct (on the fifth day) and the goal (the summit) of a material process (arrived) is metaphorically construed as the senser and circumstance of a mental process (saw), and the derived nominalization (arrival) becomes the phenomenon of the mental process. Interpersonal and textual metaphor is not relevant to the present study, and consequently has not been introduced here.

From another perspective, grammatical metaphor is classified according to the metaphoric shift occurs between elements. Ravelli (1988) proposes nine basic categories based on transitivity analysis of clauses. In a similar fashion, Halliday (1998) groups thirteen major types of grammatical metaphor, each with its own finer sub-categories. Both of their classifications primarily focus on ideational metaphors, with only few categories related to interpersonal meaning. Metaphoric shift that involves Process include process → thing, process → quality, circumstance → process, relator → process, and [zero] → process. Halliday's elaborated taxonomy reveals another feature of grammatical metaphor, i.e. the syndrome of grammatical metaphor (Halliday & Matthiessen, 1999), which means instances of grammatical metaphor do not occur in isolation, but tend to cluster together. Due to space constraints, detailed illustration of different types of grammatical metaphor has not been taken into account in this article.

Data and Method

In order to observe the construal differences in English and Chinese, this study takes source texts of both languages and their translation equivalents as the data. The source texts are selected from Han Suyin Translation Competition, a top national translation contest in China. The sample translation provided by the official committee is regarded as the best works created by the competitors. The Chinese prose *Chang*

Xiang Yi Er, translated as *Dwell on One or Two* (labeled as C-to-E), is written by Lin Qingxuan. The English prose is *The Literature of Knowledge and the Literature of Power* by Thomas De Quincey, translated as *Zhishi Wenxue Yu Liliang Wenxue* (labeled as E-to-C). Both essays are popular and well-known for its insights in life and society. The C-to-E texts contain 994 Chinese characters and 745 English tokens, and the E-to-C texts contain 958 English tokens and 1,638 Chinese characters.

This study mainly adopts a qualitative approach to data analysis. It applies the notion of grammatical metaphor in the context of translation by investigating the modes of construal that are different from the original lexicogrammatical choice of the author. This study limits its focus on ideational grammatical metaphor, and mainly examines the different realizations of process because of its core status in a clause. The analysis is conducted from two dimensions. First, process types are compared between the source and target texts to see whether the translator's treatment is different. Second, reconstrual of process that involves shift in grammatical functions is observed, hopefully, for the purpose of investigating the different preferences for English and Chinese expressions.

Variation of Process in Translation

Different Construal of Process in terms of Transitivity

Different happenings are grammatically categorized by processes. According to Halliday (1994), there are three major processes, namely material, mental, and relational, as well as three minor processes, namely behavioral, verbal, and existential. As cases in the data suggest, there are multiple ways that the translator varies his choice of process types from the source text. Processes that are ideationally distant are capable to be a match to each other.

Case 1 E: in that great social organ which, collectively, we call literature, there may be
(E-to-C) *distinguished two separate offices*

C: zai na liangge bei women tongchengwei wenxue de pangda shehui meiti zhong, keyi
fenbianchu liangzhong butong de gongneng
'in' 'that' 'two' Part. 'we' 'collectively call' Part. 'great' 'social' 'organ' Part. 'can'
'distinguish' 'two' 'different' Part. 'functions'

In this excerpt, the main clause is an existential process, but it is translated into a material process in Chinese. This is achieved by transforming the derived adjective to the original verb stem. Such cross-linguistic transformation involves a metaphoric move from Quality to Process. The motivation that lies behind such variation is very likely to be the alleged preference for verbs in Chinese.

The following two cases are somewhat complicated because the source expressions are metaphorically constructed in the first place.

Case 2 E: one essential element is some relation to a general and common interest of man

(E-to-C) *C: wenxue huoduo huoshao douyu renlei pubian er gongtong de xingqu youguan*
'literature' 'more or less' 'be' 'human' 'general' 'and' 'common' Part. 'interests'
'related'

While the Chinese equivalent in Case 2 retains the same relational process as the English clause, it should be noted that the source belongs to an identifying process, and the target, an attributive one. The source expression is metaphorical because it constructs a congruently attributive process into an identifying one by nominalizing the Quality to be an abstract thing *relation*.

Case 3 E: *But would you therefore put the wretched cookery book on a higher level of estimation than the divine poem?*
(E-to-C)

C: *ke ni neng yinci er renwei na ben weibuzudao de pengtiao shu bi na bu shensheng de shizhuo geng gaoming ma?*

'but' 'you' 'therefore' Part. 'believe' 'that' Quan. 'wretched' Part. 'cookery' 'book' 'than' 'that' Quan. 'divine' Part. 'poem' 'more' 'wise' Part.

Likewise, the material process in English is reconstructed as a projecting mental clause and a projected relational clause in Chinese. In this case, the source expression is a metaphorical way of expressing the metal process *to estimate sth highly*. The similarities between the two cases are twofold. First, both metaphors of transitivity involve nominalizations. Second, when translating a metaphorical process, to demetaphorize or to unpack the expression to a congruent realization might be a useful strategy.

A further point that is worthy of mentioning is the treatment of four-character idioms in Chinese.

<i>jin shang tian hua</i>	<i>'brocade' 'on' 'to add' 'flowers'</i>	<i>to add to somebody's joy</i>
<i>xue zhong song tan</i>	<i>'snow' 'in' 'to give' 'coal'</i>	<i>to lend a helping hand in times of distress</i>
<i>luo jing xia shi</i>	<i>'to fall' 'well' 'throw' 'stone'</i>	<i>to hit you when you're down</i>
<i>zi tao ku chi</i>	<i>'oneself' 'to beg' 'hardship' 'to eat'</i>	<i>to be piling more hardship on ourselves</i>

These idioms are, above all, lexical metaphors because they use the same item to denote different content. For instance, *tan* literally refers to 'coal', but metaphorically, 'help' in the context. Usually, it is their implied meaning that is intended by the author. Grammatically, they are separate clauses with their own finite verbal group, and they can still function as independent clauses sometimes. Nevertheless, since their meanings are condensed and their usages are established, their status as a process could be contextually different. For example, in the Chinese source text, *luo jing xia shi* is used as a modifier in the nominal group *luojingxiashi de ren* (*de*, particle in Chinese; *ren*, 'person'). Thus, a process is reconstrued as quality. All in all, a strategy that applies to the translation of four-character idioms with metaphorical meaning, as far as the sample data is concerned, is to interpret their implied meanings in plain words in a separate clause, for few have their correspondence in English.

Different Construal of Process at Element Level

Although instances are limited in the data, they are representative to illustrate the reconstrual of process in relation to other semantic elements.

Case 4 E: *books, therefore, do not suggest an idea coextensive and interchangeable with the idea of Literature*
(E-to-C)

C: *youci kejian, shu zhi gainian yu "wenxue" zhi gainian buke xiangtiblinglun, huxiang tihuan*

'because of this' 'can know' 'books' Part. 'idea' 'and' 'literature' Part. 'idea' 'cannot' 'be compared' 'each other' 'interchange'

Case 4 demonstrates the reconstrual of quality *coextensive* into process *xiangtiblinglun* (a fixed four-character verbal group). There is, in a strict sense, no lexicalized equivalent for this word in Chinese, nor any words that share the same root meaning. As a result, the translator has to refer to the context to figure out a most approximant expression to substitute the original one. On the contrary, a literal translation of *interchangeable* is made here, for a verb with the same root meaning is available.

Meanwhile, such treatment also achieves the same parallel effect as the source sentence. A similar situation is shown in Case 5, where quality *wukenaihe* (a fixed four-character adjectival group) *de* is construed as process.

Case 5 C: *shenghuo yu ganqing xianru kujing, youshi shi wukenaihe de*
(C-to-E) 'life' 'and' 'emotion' 'fall into' 'hardship' 'sometimes' 'be' 'unavoidable'

E: *At times, we can't help it when we find ourselves in dire straits, materially or emotionally*

Furthermore, difference also lies in the grammatical function of clauses. A nominal subordinating clause is translated into an adverbial as Circumstance, accompanied by the change of common nouns into circumstantial adjunct. In this sense, we can say that grammatical metaphor in translation is also prone to occur in syndromes. In addition, this case, as well as Case 1, reveals an interesting effect of grammatical metaphor from a cross-linguistic perspective. The functional shift between process and quality in Halliday's (1998) taxonomy is unidirectional, i.e. process can be reconstrued as quality, but not vice versa. However, in translation, the direction can be reversed. Therefore, it may not be unreasonable to hypothesize that the direction of other functional shift can also be reversible.

The transformation of process in the next case is even more dramatic and complicated, for the sentence structure has undergone complete changes. The reconfiguration includes shifting the grammatical function of process and strengthening logical relations between clauses.

Case 6 C: *pengyou ting le, feichang huanxi, bao zhe "chang xiang yi er" huijia le*
(C-to-E) 'friend' 'heard' Part. 'very much' 'happy' 'carry' Part. '(the scroll)' 'go home' Part.

E: *happily my friend left, carrying the scroll in his arm*

The Chinese source sentence consists of at least four independent clauses. A literal translation would be like this: *After my friend heard (my advice), he felt very happy. Then he carried the scroll and went home.* The differences of construal and their effects are threefold. First, the omission of the first clause contributes to the simplicity of expression. It will not undermine the ideational content because, pragmatically speaking, it is the presupposition of the whole proposition. Second, the reconstrual of the metal process as circumstance *happily*, a comment adjunct modifying the whole clause, allows the combination of the second and the fourth clause. Third, the degradation of an independent clause to an adjoin adverbial ties up the logical relations between the two newly-construed clauses. Clauses in Chinese have loose connections in form, for paratactic and hypotactic conjunctives are not obligatory. But if translated into English, the implicated logical relations, therefore, need to be inferred and overtly expressed in the target language. So it is safe to conclude here that some aspects of restructuring are motivated, to a certain extent, for the sake of economy and naturalness of expression in the target language, but, of course, under the premise of ideational faithfulness.

Conclusion

In brief, the treatment of the original process in translation could be to reconstruct it into another process type, to unpack transitivity metaphor to congruent realization, or to shift its grammatical function as other semantic elements. The motivations are also varied. The translator has to take the following factors into consideration, including contextual factors, typological preferences, lexical gaps, rhetorical effects, and economy of expression. Due to limited size of the data, it should be noted that the conclusion reached in this study is only suggestive. Nevertheless, there is no doubt that this study could shed some light on translation studies as well as the study of grammatical metaphor from a cross-linguistic perspective.

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Discourse Cohesion in English-Chinese Translation: An Analysis of Wang Zuoliang's Translation of *Of Studies*

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[Abstract] This paper illustrates discrepancies of discourse cohesion in English and Chinese based on Halliday & Hasan's theory on textual cohesion, and generalizes the features and rules of cohesive devices. Strategies for English-Chinese (E-C) translation involving cohesive devices are elaborated with reference to the Chinese version of *Of Studies* translated by Wang Zuoliang.

[Keywords] Discourse Cohesion; E-C Translation; strategy; *Of Studies*

Introduction

The differences in syntactic and thematic structures between English and Chinese texts give rise to the differences in cohesive devices between the two languages. The hypotactic feature of English and the paratactic characteristic of Chinese lead to the differences in conjunction between the two languages. Different sentence structures result in dissimilarities in such cohesive devices as personal reference, verbal substitution, ellipsis and conjunction, etc. The analytic property of Chinese and the synthetic feature of English with many inflective forms also lead to the divergence in tense and aspect, and lexical cohesion. Due to the various cohesive dissimilarities between English and Chinese it is unrealistic and unacceptable to copy the original cohesive devices invariably into the target text since it goes against the different language conventions and cultural differences. Good translations should also avoid literal application of the cohesive devices in the transference from the source language of English into the target language of Chinese. Instead, reproducing the cohesive force or relation is necessary for translators to have efficient translation. Obviously, good translation entails both the translator's clear consciousness of the cohesive mechanism of the source text and that of the target text.

Discrepancies of Discourse Cohesion in English and Chinese

There are differences between Chinese and English language. The English language emphasizes the formal logic and separation of the subject and the object in sentences, which is called hypotaxis, while the Chinese language is called parataxis in discourse analysis. Hypotaxis is also called "explicitness", which includes lexical devices and formal devices and achieves linkage of words or sentences with language form. Parataxis can also be called implicitness, which applies the logic linkage within words or sentences to achieve the linkage within discourse, and not applies language form. As the discrepancies exist in English and Chinese languages, the cohesive devices between the two languages differ from each other. Halliday's classification of different ways to achieve cohesion is adopted here to illustrate this point. Cohesion can be classified into grammatical cohesion and lexical cohesion.

Grammatical cohesion includes reference, substitution, ellipsis and conjunction. Reference can be divided into personal reference, demonstrative reference and comparative reference. English applies more personal pronouns and demonstrative pronouns than Chinese, while the phenomenon that Chinese expresses the reference through zero-reference and the repetition of nouns is more than English. And if

not necessary, Chinese usually does not apply reference. English must express the reference clearly by the rule of grammar.

Substitution is comparatively less frequently used than reference. The substituted item could be a noun, a verb or a clause, thus the substitute may function as a noun, a verb or as a clause. Substitution can thus be divided into three corresponding types: nominal, verbal, and clausal substitution. Substitution is a relation between pro-form and antecedent. The textual functions of substitution are to avoid repetition hence making it more cohesive and compact.

Ellipsis occurs when something that is structurally necessary is left unsaid but understood nevertheless. Where there is ellipsis, there is a presupposition in the structure that something is to be supplied or “understood”, and the presupposed item in the great majority of instances is present in the preceding text, thus it has a cohesive effect. Being an important grammatical cohesion, ellipsis can be used to tighten the textual relation of the adjacent sentences for it can not only help to avoid repetition, but also help to project the new information, since the given information is often omitted when it is provided in the context, and what remains is the new or important information.

Conjunction is to use a pure conjunction or conjunctive adjunct to connect sentences, clauses or paragraphs. The role of this device, as Baker (1992) said, is that “Conjunction signals the way the writer wants the reader to relate what is about to be said to what has been said before.”(p. 190). In the text, conjunction can make readers know the process how the writer organizes the whole sentence and the semantic relationship between sentences. Moreover, readers can know the attitude and intentions of the writer about the information. Therefore, for translators, it is easy to master the author’s direction in order to make a good target text.

Lexical cohesion is the cohesive effect achieved by the selection of vocabulary. It includes lexical reiteration and lexical collocation. Lexical reiteration is a form of lexical cohesion which involves the repetition of a lexical item, at one end of the scale; the use of a general word to refer back to a lexical item, at the other end of the scale; and a number of things in between---the use of a synonym, near-synonym, or super-ordinate. Lexical collocation is the most problematical part of lexical cohesion, cohesion that is achieved through the association of lexical items that regularly co-occur. Lexical reiteration takes place not only through repetition of an identical lexical item but also through occurrence of a difference lexical item that is systematically related to the first one, as a synonym or super-ordinate of it. All lexical cohesion that is not covered by what we have called “reiteration” is treated under the general heading of collocation, or in a collocational cohesion.

An Analysis of Wang’s Translation of *Of Studies*

Of Studies, one of Bacon’s most popular essays has been translated by many translators in China. Wang Zuoliang’s version has been recognized as an authorized version, the language of which is vivid, concise and elegant, not to mention of the discourse cohesion. More explicit analysis of the discourse cohesion in his translation of the essay has been illustrated in the following parts.

Reference in Wang’s Translated Version of *Of Studies*

Reference can be understood that “instead of being interpreted semantically in their own right, certain items in a language make reference to something else for their interpretation” (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 31). These items, personals, demonstratives can be found in *Of Studies*. For example:

(1a) If a man write little, *he* had need have a great memory. (personal item)

(1b) Some books also may be read by deputy, and extracts made of them brothers; but *that* would be only in the less important arguments and the meaner sort of books, else distilled books are like common distilled waters, flashy things. (demonstrative item)

English is a hypotaxis-prominent language, and the subject and predicate form the axis of a sentence. It means the arranging of words should be in accordance with this explicit sentence. So there are great differences on personal reference between English and Chinese. For example:

(1c) Crafty men contemn studies, simple men admire them, and wise men use them ;for they teach not their own use; but *that* is a wisdom without them, above them, won by observation.

(1d) 有一技之长者鄙读书，无知者羡读书，唯明智之士用读书，然读书并不以用处告人，用书之智不在书中，而在书外，全凭观察得之。

From the comparisons between English and Chinese texts, it is easily to see that reference of English text is: studies-them-they, becomes lexical cohesion (reiteration) 读书—读书—读书. This kind of transfer is in accordance with the norms of Chinese discourse, which makes reference in Chinese discourse clear, succinct and fluent. Personals are used as necessities either as subjects, objects or as possessive adjectives for grammatical requirement and the creation of a semantic cohesion among sentences in English. However, they are often omitted when the omission does not pose any misunderstanding in Chinese.

Substitution in Wang's Translated Version of Of Studies

Substitution is the replacement of one item available in the preceding text by another substitute item that may be a noun, a verb, or a clause. Correspondingly, there are three types of substitution: nominal, verbal and clausal. The substitute has the same structural function as that for which it substitutes. It is usually realized by pro-forms of fill-ins, such as “do”, “one(s)”, “so” or “that”. For example:

(2a) ...and if he read little, he had need have much cunning, to seem to know, that he *doth not*.

More examples for the translation:

(2b) They perfect, nature and are perfected by experience: for natural abilities are like natural plants, that need pruning by study, and studies themselves do give forth directions too much at large, except they be bounded in by experience.

(2c) 读书补天然之不足，经验又补读书之不足，盖天生才干犹如自然花草，读书然后知如何修剪移接；而书中所示，如不以经验范之，则又大而无当。

In English, there are nominal substitutes “one/ones” and “that/those” which function as the Head. They are often employed as substitutes for any countable nouns. However, there is no equivalent to them in Chinese. In this way, “one/ones” or “that/those” is often rendered back into the noun or expression that is substituted.

Ellipsis in Wang's Translated version of Of Studies

Ellipsis is the omission of an item that can be understood from the preceding text, it is very similar to substitute; it can be defined as substitution by zero. As English is mainly hypotaxical, and the ellipsis in English mostly accompanies with forms or formal signs, which can be easily seen externally.

(3a) ...So if a man's wit be wandering, let him study the mathematics; for in demonstrations, if his wit be called away never so little, he must begin again.

(3b) 如智力不集中，可令读数学，盖演算须全神贯注，稍有分散即须重演。

From the above examples, it can be seen clearly that English highlights the subject, while Chinese highlights the topic of the sentence, Chinese readers can understand the meaning of the sentence without its subject. So when translating texts from English to Chinese, the subjects can be properly omitted to express the covert of Chinese cohesive. And sometimes the phenomenon of “zero-subject” in Chinese can be randomly omitted on predicates. English often use tense signals or auxiliary signals etc. grammatical devices to omit verbs. So when translating from English to Chinese, reiteration and other lexical devices can be used.

(3c) Bowling is good for the stone and reins; shooting for the lungs and breast; gentle walking for the stomach; riding for the head; and the like.

(3d) 滚球利睾肾，射箭利胸肺，慢步利肠胃，骑术利头脑，诸如此类。

In the texts, as a predicates in English, the V-P structure “be good for” is omitted to avoid repetition in the second and third clauses. That can make essays succinct. However, when translating in Chinese, the way does not accord with the express habits in Chinese if the predicates are omitted like English. Therefore, translators need repetition or make up the predicates to complete the translated text and clear the meaning of the sentence.

Conjunction in Wang’s Translated Version of Of Studies

Conjunction is a type of semantic relation. Conjunctive elements consist of conjunctive adjuncts (adverbial groups or prepositional phrases) and a small set of conjunctions (and, or ,nor, yet, so, then, etc.) The latter can be subdivided into four categories: additive, adversative, causal and temporal according to Halliday and Hasan (1976). The elements of English sentences combine with each other with proper conjunctive words or various cohesive devices, so that it is clear to understand its semantic relation. The elements in Chinese sentences or sentences are expressed by logic relations as well as the sequence of these sentences. That is to rely more on semantic associations, and less on conjunctives.

(4a) And therefore, if a man write little ,he had need have a great memory; if he confer little, he had need have a present wit; and if he read little, he had have much cunning to seem to know that he doth not.

(4b) 因此不常做笔记者须记忆特强，不常讨论者须天生聪颖，不常读书者须欺世又术，始能无知而显有知。

In English discourse, the “if”, which expresses the conditional relations, makes the relations between sentences clearly. However, the inner logic in Chinese sentences acts as the linkage of various sentences. Therefore, when translating English, translators need to rebuild the logic, and turn the surfacial logic into the inner one, showing the Chinese paratactic linkage.

Strategies for English-Chinese Translation Involving Cohesive Devices

Based on the contrastive studies between the English texts and their Chinese renditions, two general tendencies are found with regard to the translation of cohesive devices: (i) equivalent or non-equivalent translation; (ii) non-equivalent translation with necessary changes to achieve both faithfulness and expressiveness. Equivalent translation here is not in a strict sense. As we know, the loss of meaning is inevitable in translation. One hundred percent equivalence is just an ideal. Thus equivalent translation refers to the fairly rare situations where there are lexical, structural and cultural overlap regarding cohesive devices between the two languages so that the approximate transference is possible. So when

there is structural overlap between English and Chinese texts, and the situation provides the lexical and cultural similarities with regard to the translation of cohesive devices, equivalent translation of cohesion can be adopted or achieved. With clash of norms of cohesive devices between the English and Chinese languages, changes are necessary for achieving expressiveness, closeness, and logical coherence in both ideational and textual aspects.

Omission

In the process of translation, some types of cohesive form are sometimes completely lost in the rendition. Based on the contrastive study in the previous part, it can be found out that omission is a technique often employed in dealing with cohesive devices, such as in translating personal and demonstrative reference, substitution, and conjunctions. The italicized cohesive ties in bold face in the following English extracts do not appear in the Chinese renditions for the conformity with the Chinese paratactic syntactic feature or for the principle of economy.

Amplification

When we translate from the typical tree-type structure of English to the bamboo-type structure of Chinese, we should reconstruct the Chinese sentence structure and rearrange the sentence order, so we need to amplify some necessary cohesive ties in order to attain closeness to the SLT cohesive relations and enhance the readability of the TLT. In addition, the Chinese language does not have the tenses and aspects, so when we deal with this complicated English feature in translation, amplification is inevitable, especially the amplification of adverbials indicating the essential temporal relations between events, which supplies cohesive means or necessary words that have been syntactically omitted in English. Amplification for stylistic effects is mainly concerned with the translation of such cohesive devices as co-structure and ellipsis. Ellipsis is always employed in English co-structure to project the new information, whereas, to reproduce the same stylistic effect, the Chinese texts usually adopt amplification and restore the omitted parts.

Conversion

Conversion is one type of cohesive device that is converted into another. By “conversion” the author does not mean the conversion between “parts of speech”, but means the conversion between cohesive devices. The conversion between cohesive devices in translation is necessary owing to different cohesive strategies in the two languages. What we should reproduce in the translation of cohesion is the cohesion relation, not the actual type of cohesive device or the cohesive tie adopted in the source text. So when the frequency of occurrence of the actual type of cohesive device is different, to the original cohesive tie is not suitable in the target context, then it is advisable to use another type of cohesive device to create the same cohesive force in the target text. For instance, reference and substitution used in English are often converted to lexical cohesion in the Chinese renditions, the purpose of which is either to conform to the Chinese language norms or to reproduce the original stylistic effect.

Therefore, three aspects are to be concerned in E-C translation. Firstly, the transference from a combination of both synthetic and analytic language to a sheer analytic language, the omission or substitution of some morphological characteristics is inevitable, for instance, the omission or substitution in reference. Secondly, the transformation from a hypotactic language to a paratactic language also entails the desirable omission of some conjunctives to meet the norms of the target language. Thirdly, translation from a language with tree-type structure to the one with bamboo-type structure also involves essential

sentence reconstruction or amplification of some cohesive means in the TL structure so that the translator can attain expressiveness and readability to enhance the textual coherence in his translation.

Conclusion

From the discussion in the previous parts, we have come to the conclusion that cohesion plays a crucial role in both text creation and text translation since translation is text-oriented and cohesion is one of the focal points in text translation. Cohesion covers such a wide variety of aspects in a text that the awareness of the differences in cohesive mechanism is of great importance for translators to render one language into another efficiently. Plenty of examples in *Of Studies* have been cited to show that the two languages operate on different principles in maintaining cohesive relations between sentences. Transplanting the English cohesive usage into the Chinese texts is not appropriate in most cases. Unaware of English cohesive devices, translators may fail to appreciate the subtleties meant by the speaker or writer, and sometimes may even misinterpret and mistranslate the meaning of the original text. Applying English cohesive devices unconsciously to Chinese we may run risk at making our Chinese texts redundant and lack of readability.

It is noted that there are many differences in cohesive devices between English and Chinese. For translators, mastering these differences is necessary. Whatever devices they adopt, they have to not only be faithful to the original author, but to convey the original attitude and thought to the target audience, but also make the target text accurate and natural. Accordingly, translators are required to make natural adjustments for cohesive patterns in the process of translation on the basis of the cohesive preferences of different languages for the sake of the production of a smooth and coherent translated version for readers.

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Effects of Computerized Dynamic Assessment of English to Chinese EST Translation Instruction

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[Abstract] *In recent years, SCT translation courses prevail in college English-to-Chinese translation courses in Mainland China. With uniform contents and teaching criteria, the normal assessment modes focus mainly on the learning results, ignoring the detailed learning process. Dynamic assessment based on Vygotsky's social cultural theory of mind, is an integration of instruction and assessment. Students may acquire linguistic abilities through assessment and reach their zone of proximal development. With the guidance of computer software, a dynamic assessment mode was constructed for college SCT translation courses in the study. The study lasted for approximately 10 weeks. The results of the study showed that students had a positive perception of computer mediation in their translating courses. Computerized dynamic assessment contributes to the development of students' translating potentials.*

[Keywords] *SCT translation courses; EST*

Introduction

According to *College English Curriculum Requirement* (2007) issued by Ministry of Education of the People's Republic of China, students should be able to translate essays on familiar topics from English into Chinese and vice versa. EST (English for science and technology) translation plays an important role in college English teaching. As knowledge of science and technology is generally constructed and provided with the form of written texts, EST learners should be capable of understanding and interpreting the written knowledge, which exemplifies the importance of translation instruction. In China, students of science and technology are required to translate scientific literature, which is relevant to their graduation designs. To complete their designs, students are expected to understand related scientific literature (most are written in English) for its academic excellence and demonstrate these in their graduation designs. Their performances are partly assessed on the basis of their translation work. EST translation instruction is essential for undergraduates of science and technology, though limited facilities and faculties have hindered learners' acquisition of EST translation skills and abilities.

Dynamic assessment (DA) integrates instruction and assessment into an interactive and ongoing teaching process. This blending of instruction and assessment promotes language development by providing guidance that is tailored specifically to an individual student's or group of students' needs and abilities (Lantolf & Poehner, 2004). In a real translation classroom, learners' development is a dynamic process focusing on skills and strategies such as collaborative translation, which permits instructors' assessment in the midst of learning. However, one critical dilemma in a DA classroom as is that only a minority of students in the classroom are chosen to respond actively to instructor assessment, which actually hinders a majority of students' cognitive engagement from benefiting from instructors' assessment.

Based on the above, this study tries to develop a computerized teaching method of EST translation instruction, which could benefit a large number of students at the same time. We conclude that DA can

serve as an effective teaching methodology in EST translation courses for more targeted learners through computer assistance and relevant mediation.

Theoretical Framework

ZDP (the Zone of Proximal Development), first introduced by Russian psychologist Lev Vygotsky (1896-1934) in 1933, can be defined as “the distance between the actual development level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers” (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 86). According to Vygotsky, children’s actual development entails two aspects – children’s actual capability and the ZDP. A child may achieve the ZDP and fulfill the assigned task with the assisted guidance or the mediation provided by superiors. ZDP is chief to learners’ development. ZDP introduces the function of assisted guidance or mediation on learners’ psychological development, which leads to further studies on DA. The achievement of ZPD is a one-way assessment to find out learners’ actual and potential abilities, while DA is an interactive process to reveal learners’ current abilities and to help them realize their potentials.

Dynamic Assessment focuses on learners’ reactions to instructors’ mediation that directly or indirectly develops learners’ potentials. Mediation is integral to DA. Mediation in DA is a dynamic process that proposes errors, transforms cultural concepts and intensifies learners’ conceptual understanding on specific words or particular sentence structures, etc. Interactive mediation proposed by instructors prompts learners to develop potentials and to reach the ZPD.

Most DA studies consist of a pre-test, a psycho-educational intervention and then a post-test. These studies are all in a face-to-face context, in which instructors deliver mediation. In most DA studies, instructors play the integral role of assistance. External assistances from instructors are internalized in learners. To our knowledge, few studies have investigated how to turn the instructor-centered perspective into a student-centered perspective in dynamic assessment, which may free instructors from the classroom.

The Study

In this study, we shed some light on turning dynamic assessment to a student-centered perspective with assistance of computers. The study is mostly qualitative. Learners’ psychological achievement is evaluated in the study.

Participants

The participants of the study are 10 students from a Chinese university of science and technology. They were all college undergraduates who have learned basic translation skills from a one-semester English-to-Chinese translation course. Chinese was their mother tongue and English was their second language. In order to make the sampling homogeneous in terms of their level of proficiency, the participants are selected from 50 students whose non-dynamic scores on CET-4¹ fell one standard deviation below or above the mean, which showed that the selected students were at the same level of language proficiency. All participants are proficient in computer operation.

¹ CET-4 stands for College English Test Band 4, which is a national English test, targeted at non-English major college students in China.

Instrument

The instrument used in this study was the software – CDTT, which stands for the Computerized Dynamic Translation Test. The CDTT, is designed for English-to-Chinese translation courses. The software has been developed and applied in the authors' previous studies on teaching methodologies. The following is a brief introduction to the designing process of the software.

The fundamental step of software design is to select translation materials. English-written scientific and technological documents and journals are the main targets of selection. Under the criteria of not being biased against or in favor of particular groups of students, the chosen translation materials cover diverse fields of science and technology, namely, information technology, meteorology, astronomy, medical science, food safety, business communication, automobile engineering, environmental preservation, city planning, space exploration, nanotechnology, oceanography, wildlife protection, sports science, energy and health and nutrition.

Having selected appropriate passages, we then set out to design the translating items of each passage. The items are intentionally designed with hints (mediation proposed by computers) of translating requirement (faithfulness, smoothness and concision), and translating techniques such as nominalization, passive sentence, addition and omission, etc.

Each selected passage was followed by 5 detailed translation assignments. Each assignment was given 5 minutes to be conducted in non-dynamic form and 10 minutes in dynamic form. In non-dynamic forms, students are required to translate the selected materials directly. In dynamic forms, each assignment is in line with four translation choices, with hints consisting of basic translation techniques of EST and relevant linguistic knowledge. In dynamic form of tests, hints are provided in students' mediation process. Hints are arranged from the most implicit one to the most explicit with icons.

These icons act as expressional interventions of computers. Normally, the first hint is the most implicit one with the aim to stimulate students' active psychological development. Students are given chances to understand the passage and try to translate it again. The last hint is always fixed, which provides the correct answer. Other hints are strategy-based, with varied formats and compositions, which are determined by the translating skills involved in the passage. Locations of error are also emphasized through repetition and capitalization. The correct translation accompanied by explanation is given in the last hint.

Procedure

Phase 1: In the pre-test stage, students were given a non-dynamic test and their scores were graded by instructors. The data collected in the pre-test stage were further compared with the post-test data. Their errors are analyzed without correction and confirmation.

Phase 2: The second stage was a dynamic assessment of students' behavior in the translating process. Computers provide mediation to participants with assistance of hints on EST knowledge and translation skills. Computers pointed out the participants errors directly.

Phase 3: In this section, a post-test and a post-test survey were given. The test was also non-dynamic. The outcome of DA was clearly shown from differences of results of the pretest and the posttest. Students' ZPD are presented with Learning Potential Score (LPS), which shows the difference between the learners' pre-test and post-test scores. The results are detailed in the next section.

Data Collection

In order to make the data effective, we applied two principles in data collection: instructor observation and computer rating. Each participant is equipped with a computer in which the translation software has been installed. Students were required to speak out what they were thinking while doing the dynamic translation work. The detailed psychological status of each student has been taken down by observers, who are all instructors of EST translation courses.

Findings and Discussions

In this analysis, the statement focuses on the connection between Dynamic Assessment and translation instruction with computer software working as the role of instructors. Both learners and instructors' mediation are integrated by the computer software. Students are the center of the study.

Computer Mediation

Hints designed in the software function as instructors' interventions in the study. The instructor in the classroom played the role of observers, who took down data of students' reaction on computer interventions. The computer software has provided the information about students' experience of DA, which is helpful to categorize the data, types and frequency of computer mediation, which are derivate from Poehner's tutor mediational moves, including "Helping Move Narration Along, Accepting Response, Request for Repetition, Request for Verification, Reminder of Directions, Request for Renarration, Identifying Specific Site of Error, Specifying Error, Metalinguistic Clues, Translation, Providing Example or Illustration, Offering a Choice, Providing Correct Response, Providing Explanation, Asking for Explanation" (Poehner, 2005, p. 160).

The software installed in the computer prompted students to mediate and to learn more independently. Observers have recorded the frequency of computer mediational moves. Figure 1 is the frequency of mediational moves computers made in a single translation work.

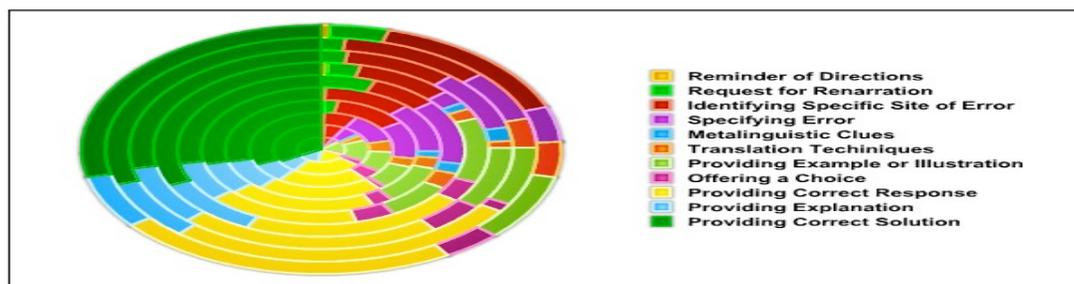


Figure 1. Frequency of Computer Mediational Moves

Obviously, Figure 1 demonstrates various mediational moves that the computers employed in the translation process. Participants used the mediation hints to identify and specify detailed errors.

All the participants have checked out correct answers to questions provided by the software, which shows that computers acting as the role of instructors have the function of providing correct solutions. As all participants have been trained for translation techniques, the result shows that the participants have mastered the translation skills flexibly, as only a few hints on translation techniques and metalinguistic clues are reviewed in the test. The test also shows students desire for learning translation, as most hints on explanations were reviewed in the test.

Learner Reciprocity Moves

According to Liz (1991), the participants' mediational moves are defined as learner reciprocity. Since the mediation stage is interactive and dialogic, it is essential to study the learner response to computer mediational moves, which actually indicates improvement of learners' translation abilities. The data were analyzed with principles on learner reciprocity moves proposed by Peohner (Poehner, 2005, p. 183).

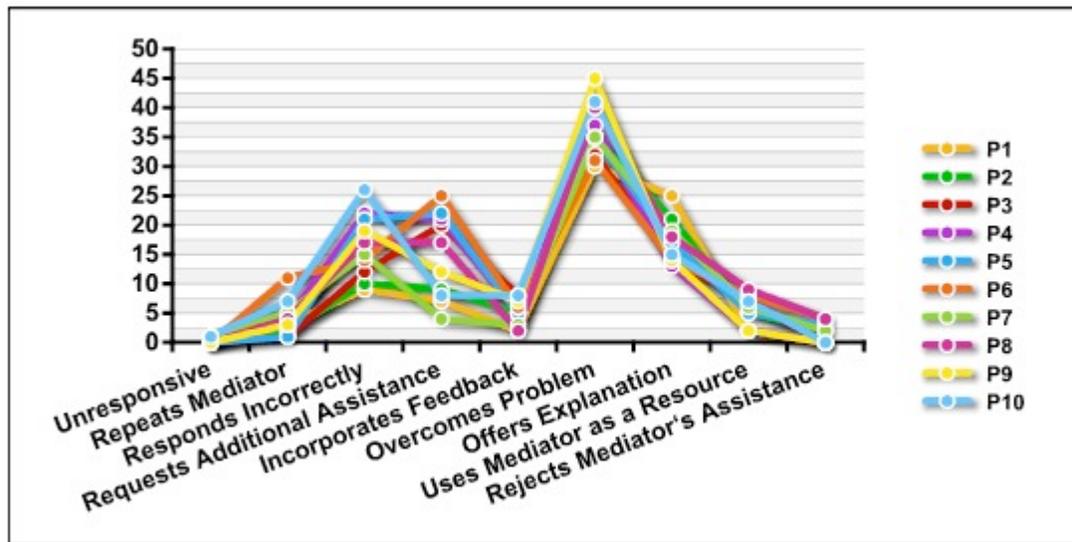


Figure 2. Frequency of Learner Reciprocity Moves

As shown in Figure 2, most students have overcome problems they met in the DA process, which also showed their improvements in translation. The progress students made are varied as differences of their ZPD. As evidenced in the reciprocal moves shown in Figure 2, with the guidance of computer software, participants have self-assessed their translating abilities in DA process. Participants are more aware of their linguistic abilities. Despite that 5 students were unresponsive and 3 students rejected mediator's assistance; most students have developed their translation potentials.

Table 1. T-Test Results

Two types of test	Number	Mean	SD	T	Significance Level
Non-dynamic test	66	73.4	6.5	2.52	0.014
Dynamic test	70	82.3	5.8		

Computer mediation contributed a lot to the improvement of students' translation skills and meanwhile to the improvement of students' text comprehension. The difference between means on pre-test and post-test is shown in Table 1. The result of t-test indicates that there is an obvious difference between NDA and DA (value of significance level < 0.05), which shows that participants in the study have outperformed in dynamic test.

Conclusion

From the perspective of DA, instruction and assessment are inseparable part of learning process. Learners' assessment is achieved through interventions of instructions. In this study, we prove the view of

DA, which integrates instruction and assessment via the software, which provides learners with pre-designed hints as mediation moves. The study has demonstrated effectiveness of the software in students' EST translation learning process. The study has also shed some light on investigating mediational moves concerning students' learning potential.

As is shown in t-test results, participants of the study have made great progress in EST translation. Computerized DA has changed the linguistic input in teaching process, as instructors play the role of observers. Students are forced to mediate, which may cultivate their thinking and enhance the learning effects. ZPD of students are constantly explored and teachers are freed from the classroom, which may benefit more students. The learning process is mainly learner-centered.

In the end, we hope our work may have made some contributions, however little, to the current studies on DA in relation to translation instruction. Recognizing that preparations and the analysis of a dynamic test is really demanding and labor-intensive, only ten participants are interviewed in the study. Further studies should be made with participations of larger numbers of students. Through the study, we find that though the software was effective and easy-to-comprehend, there are still several students who rejected to use computer mediation. More hints in response to the errors students would make on the original non-dynamic test should be provided. In the study, human mediation was given only when electronically delivery of mediation does not work. Given in this way, computer mediation is effective when it is well designed, which may enable more students to benefit from DA.

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Inter-Textuality and Inter-Subjectivity: A New Perspective for Comparative Study of the Translator's Subjectivity in the English Versions of *Dream of the Red Chamber*

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[Abstract] Translators are undoubtedly the most active factor in translating activity. According to the theory of inter-textuality and inter-subjectivity, translators play an important role bridging translation and source texts. They themselves are readers, interpreters and writers. It is the complicated identity of translators that confirm their subjective function in the translating process. Based on the two complete English versions of *Hong Lou Meng* (*Dream of the Red Chamber*) translated by Yang Xian-yi & Gladys Yang, and by David Hawkes & John Minford, this paper makes comparison in the representations of translators' subjectivity from the perspective of inter-textuality and inter-subjectivity.

[Keywords] comparative study; *Hong Lou Meng*; inter-textuality; inter-subjectivity; translator's subjectivity

Introduction

Translators, as the subject of translation, are the most active element. But under the traditional views on translation, faithfulness is highly praised but translators and the subjectivity of translators have been neglected for a long time. Translators' subjectivity can be represented in the whole course of translation, either in his/her reproduction of the source text in the sight of interpretation and transformation or in his selection of the original text, the translating strategies and translating purpose and cultural orientation. But in this paper translators' subjectivity are discussed only from translators' relationship with the source text, the author and the target text readers.

Representation of Translator's Subjectivity in the Inter-Textuality Between the Original Text and Translation

Introduction of the Inter-Textuality

Inter-textuality, proposed by Julia Kristeva, means that each word (text) is an intersection of words (texts) where at least one other word (text) can be read . . . any text is constructed as a mosaic of quotations; any text is the absorption and transformation of another. Specifically, the theory of Inter-textuality contains three meanings: a) the rewriting of the text; b) the completing of the text; and c) the interpreting of the text. Wolfgang Iser points out that Inter-textuality is that the writer creates a text by integrating the information that he absorbs from other texts (such as social, historical, cultural, literary and so on) and that of his own according to his writing purpose.

According to the theory of Inter-textuality, the relationship between translated text and the source text is inter-textuality. The source text is treated as an existed text, and translation a new one derived from it. Luo Xinzhang in his article "Some Views on Resemblance and Equivalence in Translation" pointed out that just as there exists an author between life and literary works, there exists a translator between the original and the version. Translator as the bridge of translation and source text plays a very important

role: the reader — the interpreter — the writer. That is to say, the translator is a reader to read the source text first, then an interpreter to interpret the source text and most important a writer to rewrite the source text, which perfectly reflects the inter-textuality theory.

That is: exited text – reader, interpreter, writer – new text
source text – translator – target text

It is the complicated identity of translator that confirms the translator's subjective function in the translating process.

Translator as a Reader to the Original Text

The first role of a translator is a reader before making his translation. He must first read the original text which is the first stage according to the inter-textuality theory. Wolfgang Iser strongly argues that the text comes to life only when being read; that is, the meaningful existence of the literary work depends on the involvement of the reader (Zhu, 2001, p. 175). That is to say, a text is valuable and has a meaning only when it is being read and its significance is given by the reader. During reading the reader is restricted and affected by his social, cultural and historical background as well as his own experience. The reading process is a process of appreciating and interpreting. Being appreciated and interpreted, the source text comes in to life with its rich meanings. For the great classic masterpiece of Chinese novel *Hong Lou Meng*, one translator's viewpoint may be quite different from that of others, but they must distinguish from each other in details or even the writing styles.

For example :百足之虫,死而不僵. (Cao, 1990, p. 65)

The beast with a hundred legs is a long time dying. (Hawkes' version, 1973, p. 73)

A centipede dies but never falls down. (Yang's version, 1994, p. 24)

“百足之虫”in the original is also called Malu in China, commonly known as a multi-foot insect. The quotation of it in the original is to imply that although the Rong and Ning mansions have declined, in a period of time, they can still maintain prosperity on the surface just like centipede. Hawkes tries to retain the image and the semantic meaning of the original by literal translation but unfortunately, he does not understand the image of“百足之虫” and mistakes “虫” in the original as the ancient “大虫”, which refers to tigers and other beasts, resulting in a mistranslation. The couple of Yang also adopts literal translation, and select “centipede” for the version which is similar with the original image and is well known for any reader. Centipede by which the original image is well-preserved fits with “百足之虫” literally as well, thus it successfully conveys the original implicit metaphor. To both content and form, the Yangs reproduce the beauty of the original. It may be concluded that the reason the target texts vary from each other is that the translator as a reader of the source text may get different understanding with dissimilar background which causes them to read the original and the author from different perspectives.

Translator as an Interpreter to the Original Text

Then the second stage of inter-textuality theory requires that translator should also be an interpreter at the meantime of being a reader. Interpreter is expected to read the text from a higher level than a reader does, and take the responsibility to convey all that in the original and then evaluate it. And the Interpreter is asked to be faithful to the text, to distinguish the meaning on the surface and that between the lines, and to do his most to express the hidden meaning of the text. To get this the translator as an interpreter should reconstruct the world in which the author lives, by collecting the entire associated datum about the social, political, historical information of the author's time and the author's personal experience, value and

competence, which will help to promote a better understanding. Only from the macro view can the translator set a correct tone for the text, consequently as an interpreter of a literary text, it is not enough if a translator only has linguistic competence without literary competence. Thus the request of a literary reader is much higher than that of an ordinary. With the help of all the elements above translator can faithfully convey the connotation of the source text. In the following examples Xiren is shown very differently in Hawkes and the Yangs versions, and the translator's initiative has been brought into full play.

Example 1:

袭人因笑道：“真真的这话越发说上我的气来了。那晴雯是个什么东西，就费这样心思，比出这些正经人来！还有一说，他纵好，也灭不过我的次序去。便是这海棠，也该先来比我，也还轮不到他。想是我要死了。”（《红楼梦》第七十七回）

‘You really make me angry,’ she said, ‘comparing Sky bright with all those famous people! What sort of creature do you think she is anyway? And even if she is so wonderful, you seem to forget that I have precedence over her among your maids. If the crab-apple is connected with any of us, it ought to be me...’ (Hawkes, 1973, chap. 8, p. 541).

“You’re getting more and more outrageous,” she protested. “How can you rack your brains to compare Qingwen, a mere nobody, with those great figures? Besides, however good she may be, she’s lower in status than I am. You should compare me, not her with the begonia...” (Yang, 1994, chap. 8, p. 1683).

This example vividly portrays one aspect of Xiren, which is her superiority and contempt for Qingwen. As for translation, “笑道” Yang chooses “protested” and through a rhetorical question “how can you”, an imperative sentence “You should ” which sounds peremptory to show her dissatisfaction with Baoyu. Hawkes portrays a more refined image of Xiren by adding the words “anyway”, “you seem to forget”, “If the crab-apple is connected with any of us” which sounds more euphemistic. Translators’ different attitudes to Xiren can be shown clearly.

Translator as a Writer to the Target Text

After accomplishing his tasks as a reader and an interpreter, translator has to perform his third role: writer. A translator, who rewrites the source text in another language, is the bridge of the source text and target text, which reflects a direct inter-textual relationship between the source and target languages.

Lefevere (1995,p.7) Andre also points out that translator can not only give a fresh life to the original, but also determine to give what kind of life and how to integrate the source language into the target smoothly. In other words, they have created a new original image which can be accepted by their readers and their times. He also points out translator is a creative artist, whether he can create a text similar to the source text in his own culture is the first thing for him to consider. And whether he can re-create and meet expectation of the reader lies in his skills as an artist (Luo, 1996, p. 199). During this period, the subjectivity of the translator was brought to the utmost. In the translation of this poem of the First Chapter of *Hong Lou Meng*, the two translators fully play their initiative.

满纸荒唐言,一把辛酸泪!都云作者痴,谁解其中味?(第一回)

Pages full of fantastic talk,

Penned with bitter tears;

All men call the author mad,

None his message hears. (Yang's version, 1994, chap. 1)

Pages full of idle words

Penned with hot and bitter tears,

All men call the author fool;

None his secret message hears. (Hawkes' version, 1973, chap. 1)

Translating poetry is thought to be impossible, but these two translations are good demonstrations of translators' outstanding "skills as an artist". In the two translations, the second and fourth lines are rhymes hard to get, so both versions are rare excellent works. But for translation of "荒唐言", Yang chooses "fantastic", meaning imaginary and absurd while Hawkes uses the "idle", meaning leisure and slothful. So Yang's translation is more faithfully fit for the original, and "fantastic" can better express Cao Xueqin's thought. In translation of "谁解其中味" one more word "secret" is used in the Hawkes' version. It can be seen clearly that Hawkes' translation is better, in conveying the secret implications the author wants to say. Both versions have their own merits. So as a writer, just for one word the translator has to scratch his head to translate, by adding, by omitting or by subtly changing etc. There is relatively free space for them during rewriting as long as they can vividly express the original. Therefore, in this stage, translator's subjectivity is shown to the utmost.

From the Inter-textual point of view, the main function of the translator works as the Reader – the Interpreter – the Translator. As a reader and interpreter, translator's subjectivity comes into full play based on the correct understanding and interpretation of the original, while as a writer, translator's subjectivity lies in how to integrate the target language by his inter-textual knowledge.

Representation of Translator's Subjectivity in the Inter-subjectivity of the Author and Implied Readers

Relationship between the Translator and the Original Author

Another aspect that reflects the translator's subjectivity is the relationship between the translator and the original author. In certain areas, both translator and author are the subjects of translation activity so they are worth discussing from the point of inter-subjectivity. Inter-subjectivity is the communication of subjects and the main part of subjectivity. Subjects exist in the way they interact with each other and present individuality in essence, so inter-subjectivity is the coexistence of individuals or the different subjects. Translation, in this sense, becomes the platform for them to interact; source text of course is their topic; translation is the whole process of dialogue; the target text is the result they come to. In this way they accomplish the translating task together, and they are the two subjects that can communicate equally. Thus the target text is a duplex structure in which both the voice of the author and that of the translator can be heard. If they reach agreement, "faithfulness" would be reached in the version, but if the translator refutes the author and stands for his own culture and times, "creative treason" is formed. Consequently, the translated text has two meanings: one is that the translator dedicates to introduce the foreign culture, which results in the case that the author's voice is louder, and the other is that translator translates with his own culture consciousness, which causes the opposite.

For example:

那薛老大也是吃着碗里的瞧着锅里的, ... (《红楼梦》第16回)

Hawkes' version: You know what Cousin Xue is like: always "one eye on the dish and the other on the saucepan" (Hawkes, 1973, chap. 16, p. 309).

Yang's version: Hsueh Pan is another of those greedy-guts who keep "one eye on the bowl and the other on the pan" (Yang, 1994, chap. 16, p. 215).

Here "bowl" is a container commonly used by Chinese people but is rarely known by western readers unlike dish. Hawkes initiatively changes the original "bowl" into "dish" in order to let the western readers understand better. However, he cannot reach a consensus with the author if he translates with the recognition of his own culture. Therefore, "dish" is a representation of translator's creative treason. In Hawkes' version the translator's voice is louder. Whereas the Yangs want to introduce the Chinese culture to the Western country and what they choose is faithful to the author and the original, so in Yang's version the resonance of the author and the translator can be heard. Therefore, the translator is not only to imitate what the author says, but he also exercises his own rights to reproduce a new version.

Relationship between the Translator and the Implied Readers

Still the relationship between the translator and implied readers is another important part of inter-subjectivity. According to the view of Reader Criticism, "The reader in the Reader Criticism differs from the previous readers, in that he has a special identity. He is endowed with certain characteristics and performs special functions, for instance, and he also serves to reveal the nature of reading process and reading experience" (Zhu, 2001, p. 173). Terry Eagleton points out that reception is a part of the literary work itself. The construction of every literary work comes out of the author's consciousness of its potential and possible readers and each one contains the image of those for whom it is written. Each work internally converts into code Wolfgang Iser's "the implied reader" implicitly suggests the receivers it expects (Eagleton, 1996, P. 105). The practical significance of a version lies in to what extent the translator concerns his implied reader, and to what extent the implied reader agrees with the translator. In a word, the significance of translation lies in whether they interact well with each other.

There has been quite a bit of commentary about Hawkes' version in our country. But from perspective of image recreation, it can't be called a good one for it conveys an air of mistranslation to some extent. Hawkes hopes conform to the idiomatic usage, and to convey the source spirit. Hence one can see that whether the initiative of inter-subjective between the translator and implied reader can be brought into full play lies in to what extent the translator can reveal source text, the linguistic tension that the translator chooses to express the figurative meaning, and lies in whether the subjects communicate well with the texts. Such as translating "怡红院" into "the Green House", "癞蛤蟆想吃天鹅肉" into "A case of 'the toad on the ground wanting to eat the goose in the sky'", this is not mistranslation, but a kind of solipsism beyond subjectivity. Thus through the interaction, manipulation and deconstruction of the source text, the expectation of the implied reader has been fulfilled and the interaction of the inter-subjectivity is bound to be accomplished.

Conclusion

As an intermediary of the source text and target text, translator plays a unique important role in the course of translation. He has never been a high powered transform machine but an initiative subject with his own value and concept. Certainly, the identity and subjectivity of the translator become very important components of this research. Translators, to realize the translating purpose, transform the foreign literary work into the one that bears the characters of the culture of target language with his creative treason.

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Study on the Transitivity of *The Art of War* and Its Translation by UAM Corpus Tool

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[Abstract] *With the assistance of UAM Corpus Tool, the study investigates the distribution, collocation, progression and changes of factors in the system of Transitivity of The Art of War and its translation, in order to explore the norms in the translation of military strategies and tactics.*

[Keywords] *The Art of War; transitivity; UAM corpus tool; visualization*

Introduction

The Art of War, with *Art of War* written by A. H. Romini and *The Theory on War* by Carl von Clausewitz, is regarded as one of the three most important military strategies. The thoughts in it have played an important role not only in fields of military, but also in politics, foreign affairs, management and communication, and so on. As a Chinese traditional military strategy and classical literature work, *The Art of War* has been translated into Japanese, French, English, German, Russian, and other languages. With transitivity system theory of functional linguistics, this paper targets on three most renowned translations and uses UAM Corpus Tool to tag the texts before carrying out a comparative analysis on original Chinese version and its English translations, in order to investigate the functional stylistic features and help literature translation of the special style through a new aspect.

Translation of *The Art Of War* and Its Translation Studies

The Art of War is publicly regarded as the most philosophical and influential military strategy. In 1772, J. J. M. Amiot, a French father, for the first time, translated *The Art of War* into French, which brought the book into Europe. It has attracted a lot of attention since it was published. Since then, *The Art of War* has been re-translated for many times and several excellent versions appear as well, including that one by Lionel Giles in 1910 and one by Samuel B. Griffith in 1963. Domestic scholars and translators, such as Yuan Shibin and Lin Wusun, also translated it into English. Accordingly, there are as many as 33 English translations of *The Art of War* in 1905-2010 (Tu & Wu, 2011).

However, there have been few translation studies until now. The translation studies in the early stage mainly placed attention to the quality of translation such as translation mistakes, and missing information, etc. Pan & Liu (1991) analyzed, in detail, Griffith's translation and praised that he imparted his features of a military officer to the text. Bao (1996) compared Lin's translation with Giles's and Griffith's translation, which underlines Lin's excellent Chinese. In the 21st century, more and more scholars started to devote themselves into the translation studies of *The Art of War*, from different aspects, in order to find out their features and influences. There is a study that, from the aspect of Normative Ethics, analyzed Mair's translation with Hybrid Theory (Huang, 2009). Assisted by corpus, Chen & Li (2009) carried out a study on English-Chinese translation of special words in *The Art of War*. Focusing on the wide influence of *The Art of War* in the world, some scholars analyzed its cultural effects (He & Liu, 2007) and put forward some other advice on re-translation of *The Art of War* Zhang (2013). It seems that few studies

notice the specialties of the military discourse and the translation of the Chinese classic, *The Art of War*, which is of significance for the transmitting of the world cultural heritage. This study is aimed at investigate the military discourse features of *The Art of War* from the perspective of the transitivity by aid of the UAM Corpus Tool.

Research Tool

The study uses UAM Corpus Tool 2.8.14 to help tag and text analysis. UAM Corpus Tool, developed by Mick O'Donnell from Universidad Autónoma de Madrid, is a corpus tagging and analyzing software that mainly aims to system functional linguistics studies. Currently it can be installed on MS Windows and Mac OSx. Researchers can tag, automatically or semi- automatically, more than one layer and analyze several texts in a program. The tagging scheme can be modified by users as well.

The corpus software has helped many studies, including studies on discourse analysis (Hommerberg, 2011), discourse flow, engagement system of appraisal theory, stylistic analysis (Baklouti, 2010), English education (DeCoursey, 2012), etc. There are, however, a few domestic studies, with the exception of Peng, et al. (2012). These studies, unfortunately, only focused on the tagging and searching of UAM Corpus Tool, instead of visualization, which is paid more attention by O'Donnell. Hence, this study emphasizes more on visualization result of the translations of *The Art of War* for the discovery of the norms of military discourse translation.

Research Process

Research Background and Target

As a classic military text, *The Art of War* plays a significant role in not only military field but also in Pre-Qin Dynasty Literature. Scholars or soldiers all over the world continuously learn and study it since it came to the Europe, which means translation in the process has played a very important role. The quality may help or limit the transmission of the theme, thoughts and spirits from source text (ST) to target text (TT). The reproduction of the original guidance in practice is the key to determine translation quality of a military text. Transitivity system, which mainly reflects objective material activities hidden between lines, links the "combat" in text and actual fight together.

The study, thus, tagged the ST and TTs on UAM corpus tool according to transitivity system and analyzed the data calculated by the software and its visualization. We compared the differences between ST and TTs and those among TTs, in order to find out the translation norm of the military text.

Texts and Tagging

We selected *Eleven Annotations of Sunzi* (Yang, 2009) ST, Lin Wusu's, Griffith's and Giles's translations as 3 TTs. All of these three are excellent representatives and translators, including a professor, a General and a sinologist with different backgrounds. This paper only chose one chapter, *Laying Plans*, as the target because of the features of the software: for the first, the content of 13 pieces of essays in *The Art of War* are relatively independent to each other though they have connections and form a continuous part; secondly, the Transitivity flow diagram produced by UAM Corpus Tool cannot be a totally continuous figure so linking 13 diagrams together may result in more difficulties.

Before tagging on the UAM Corpus Tool, a scheme is needed. The scheme is slightly modified on the basis of Halliday (2004, pp. 266-276).

Results Analysis

The software produces the diagram automatically. The study mainly analyzes differences in transitivity processes and participants, and then compares the stylistic differences in ST and TTs and those among TTs. Here smoothing value ranges from 0-9 which may affects diagram's smoothness. 0 is the lowest and 9 is the highest. See Figure 1.

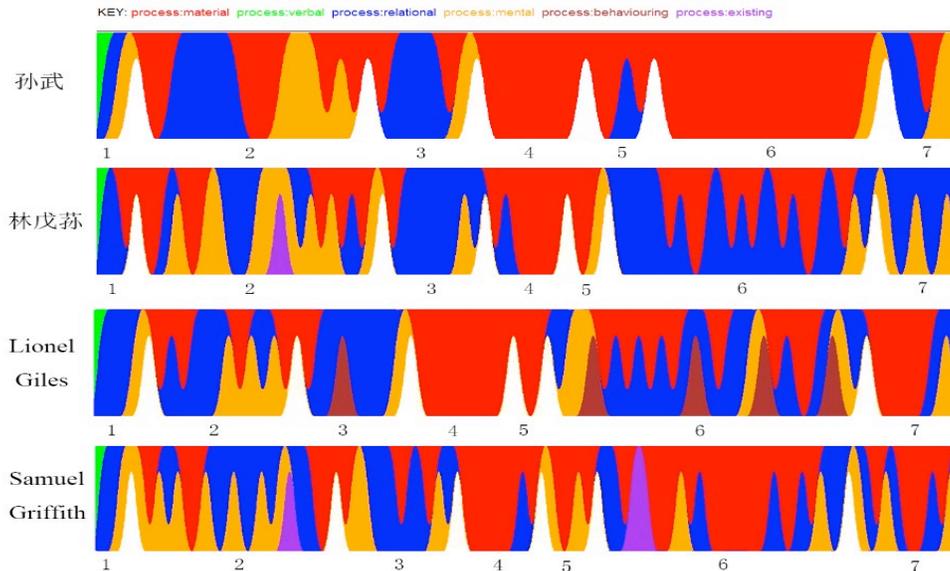


Figure 1. Transitivity Flow Diagram of ST and TTs (smoothing=0)

From left to right the diagram indicates the transitivity system of the whole text. Here every wave means that a transitivity process and the area and height signify the sentence length. Hence after several tests on choosing smoothing value, we set smoothing=0, which is the best value for understanding and backing to ST. We added another item when tagging, "BORDER" for description. It is the white wave in the diagram and means the border of clause groups. According to *Eleven Annotations of Sunzi*, each text has been separated into seven parts.

The diagram shows that all texts mainly consist of material and relational process, with few verbal, behavior, mental and existing processes, which, we believe, is caused by the function of military strategy. It is for a "doing" process. And in ST material process locates in the later part of the text. In TTs, the percentage of material process is less than that in ST and Lin uses least material processes but adds more relational processes. ST usually uses only one process but TTs tend to combine processes together into one group to describe the ST. Here are the analyses in detail.

Comparison of General Transitivity between ST & TTs

All 13 essays in *The Art of War* are about the teaching of Sunzi to King Wu so all texts start with "Sunzi says" or familiar expressions. All of them are verbal processes, with the three TTs keeping this special style as well. In ST, however, it is followed by relational process and the wave here contains a mental process. A relational process and a mental process together form a wave, which means that in the sentence relational process is the main clause and mental process is the subordinate one. Lin uses a combination, "relational process + material process", but they are not in the same wave crest. The height of material process is low, which shows material process is in the subordinate clause. Being different

from Lin's, the transitivity here, "relational+mental", in Gile's and Griffith's translation is the same with ST. The area of Griffith's relational process is smaller. We back to the TT and find out that he uses several short clauses so his language here is more concise and lucid. ST aims to talk about the importance of war. Hence keeping the original mental process is better in the context, which can transfer the cognitive process from people to material world (See Tab.1).

Table 1. Comparison of Transitivity between ST & TTs

	"兵者，国之大事，死生之地，存亡之道，	不可不察也。"
	Relational Process	Mental Process
Lin's	War is a question of vital importance to the state, a matter of life and death, the road to survival or ruin.	Hence, it is a subject which calls for careful study.
	Relational	Relational / Material
Giles's	The Art of War is of vital importance to the State. It is a matter of life and death, a road either to safety or to ruin.	Hence it is a subject of inquiry which can on no account be neglected.
	Relational	Relational / Mental
Griffith's	War is a matter of vital importance to the State; the province of life or death; the road to survival or ruin.	It is mandatory that it be thoroughly studied.
	Relational	Relational / Mental

Contrast of Transitivity Process Between ST and TTs and Among TTs

Figure 1 shows that Sections 2 and 3 in TTs have significant differences from the ST. The ST here illustrates some important factors: 天, 地, 道, 将 和 法. The transitivity process progression can be found in Figure 1. From material process and mental process, it argues Generals should know five factors and explains them through relational processes. Relational process is always used in static description and displays relation between things. Section 3 is on five questions put forward by the ST to the five factors and material processes are also used, demanding General a specific observation of the condition. Then it is followed by a relational process for question and a mental process for answer and evaluation. Both of section 2 and 3 use the progression of “material–relational–mental” which link readers, the author and objective world together. The progression transfers from active to static description and back to the whole sentence with readers' subjective mental activities. This combination connects them well.

Three TTs also use three processes above but the combinations are different. Lin’s and Griffith's in section 2 mix up mental process, material process and relational process, which combines the active and static, subjective and objective description together. The height of mental processes in Lin’s is not the same and it appears both in main and subordinate clauses. We back to ST and find that Lin puts five factors under the mental processes led by “I mean”, which strengthens the argument of Sunzi but reduces objectivity of narration and authority of a military strategy. Being different from Lin’s, in Griffith’s translation mental processes are followed by relational process whose construction is relative simpler and it uses less words, which, to some extent, shows the style of army. Gile’s translation, however, closely follows the ST. It keeps most transitivity progression pattern, “material–relational–mental”.

Gile’s and Lin’s translations, which mainly use relational process and material process to introduce the argument and relational process for specific discussion, are similar to each other. But after observation we find syntactic differences between them. Gile keeps original interrogative mood but Lin adapts them into object clauses led by “find out”. The modification is to make the texts clearer and enhances its value

in practice. Griffith's diagram is relatively orderless. He uses relational processes and other processes as addition. Most of the processes in Griffith's are in the if-clauses, which may have a better accuracy in narration but the text becomes longer as follow. In the diagram we also may find section 3 here is longer than others'. Redundancy does not belong to military instruction.

There is quite a difference between ST and TTs in Section 4-6 but TTs here are similar. The flow diagram mainly consists of red area, that is, material process. The author narrates from five factors on victory to the specific methods. This part is on training and uses more material processes for the introduction of "doing" such as "计利以听, 乃为之势, 以佐其外", "故能而示之不能, 用而示之不用", etc. Differences in Section 6 are the most significant. Section 6 is on the thought of "兵者诡道 (On Deception)" and the author argues attacking surprisingly. Style features here are shown in 2 groups of parallelism sentences. Material process here is for the transferring from static to active condition. Figure 1 shows TTs use "material – relational": in Gile's, the TT starts with "All warfare is based on deception" and many "When+NP, we+VP", the construction, for expanding the ST. The if-clause uses relational process while the correspondent strategy uses material process. We can find Gile's uses few behaving processes as well, such as "be prepared", "take ease", etc. These colloquial expressions influence continuity of the argument, to a certain extent. But the metaphor expression, "War is a game of deception" is very good in Lin's text. And "material–relational" make "doing" process foregrounded. On syntactic level, there is much ellipsis in TTs, for example, "feign incapability when in fact capable; feign inactivity when ready to strike". The concise expression is very helpful in military strategy. In Griffith's translation, material processes occurred in the later part of section 6 is in concordance with the ST. Here Griffith changed if-clauses in ST and Lin's translation into parallel imperative sentences. The mood becomes stronger, which is also suitable to express Sunzi's eager to be employed by King Wu (Yang, 2012, p. 13).

Conclusions

Assisted with UAM Corpus Tool, we tagged ST and TTs followed by the analysis and comparison of stylistic features of them through flow diagram. The analysis of flow diagram shows ST and TTs of *The Art of War* have many differences in dealing with the factors of the transitivity in terms of military instructions. Material process is the most frequent process used in the ST but it is different in TTs. As a Chinese translator, Lin Wusun has a better understanding of the ST so there are many process transformations. The sentence form of Gile's translation is the most similar with ST for progression. In addition, Griffith, a General, always uses concise language so the area of material process is larger, which is convenient for argument. The flow diagram indicates Lin's is the most accurate and Griffith's is the most concise and clearest. As a military strategy, a special style for battle guidance and army training, Griffith's version is better in practice.

Through our study, we find that UAM Corpus Tool, a good platform for corpus studies, still has some shortcomings: high error rate when auto-tagging, software optimization. Moreover, its text subjectivity, lexico-heat chart, etc. need much further studies as well.

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Analysis of Translation Strategy of Dialect

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[Abstract] *As a kind of linguistic variation, dialect plays an important role in forming and indicating the character's personality, social status, gender, occupation, etc. In translation, the translator should be constantly alert to its functions and rendering strategies. This article, through analysis of specific examples, has a tentative look into the ways of choosing matching dialects in the target language as well as other related strategies.*

[Keywords] *geographical dialect; temporal dialect; social dialect; idiolect; translation strategy*

Introduction

Generally speaking, two dimensions are recognized in the description of language variation. One dimension relates to the use to which a user puts language. These use-related varieties are known as registers. The other dimension has to do with the user in a particular language event. These user-related varieties are called dialects (Hatim & Mason, 2001, p. 36). One dialect may differ from another in terms of its vocabulary, grammar or pronunciation. As R. A. Hudson puts it, "every utterance may be seen as an act of identity by its reader" (Hudson, 1981, p. 233). These linguistic features will undoubtedly add to the vividness, reality and artistic effect in literary works. The translation of dialects is also regarded as an important standard in the assessment of translation quality. In this article, a tentative analysis will be given to the following four categories of dialect translation: (1) Translation of geographical dialect. (2) Translation of temporal dialect. (3) Translation of social dialect, including variety of social status, variety of race and variety of age. (4) Translation of idiolect. Due to the linguistic, cultural and social differences between the source language and the target language, the translatability of dialect is quite limited, and some information and artistic flavor will be inevitably lost. But partial compensation can still be made through some effective rendering strategies. It is quite necessary to make a study of the strategies employed by some experienced translators.

Translation of Geographic Dialect

"Language varieties correspond to geographical variation, give rise to different geographical dialects" (Hatim & Mason, 2001, p. 40). Geographical dialect, also called accent, remains a very tough subject to deal with in dialect translation. The reasons are as follows: firstly, there are no similar or corresponding geographical features among the countries which use different languages, and consequently there are no corresponding and functionally equivalent geographical dialects among these different languages. Secondly, the most common and conspicuous marks of geographical dialect are phonological features. These features are mostly impossible to be reproduced in the target language. And there are also many

lexical and syntactic variations that must be taken into consideration. Some versions of geographical dialect translation will be seen in the following part. For example:

“Since I’ve been away?” Tess asked.

“Ay”

“Had it anything to do with father’s making such a moment of himself in **thick** carriage this afternoon? Why **did’er**? I felt inclined to sink into the ground with shame!”

Version 1: “是俺不在家的时候，抖落出来的吗？” 苔丝问。

“可不是”

“今儿过晌儿，俺见俺爹坐在大马车里，出那样的洋相，他那是怎么啦？是不是叫这档子事折腾的？那阵子把俺臊的，恨不得有个地缝钻进去。”

(Zhang R. G., 1984)

Version 2: “是我不在家的时候发生的吗？” 苔丝问。

“没错”

“今天下午爸爸坐在马车里那模样活像个稻草人，是不是跟这件事有关系？他那是在干什么呀？当时我都觉得羞死人了，恨不得地上有个洞赶紧钻进去。”

(Zheng D. M., 2011)

In Tess of the D’urbervilles, the heroine Tess is an ordinary village girl who hasn’t received much education. When talking with her family members, she uses the dialect which is spoken by the people in the south-western part of England. The linguistic features in the original text remind readers of Tess’s regional and social conditions. Readers could also sense the character of Tess: naïve, candid and rustic. The character is also quite similar to that of Tess. Though the artistic effect could not be totally equivalent, the Chinese version reflects the original intimate atmosphere and rustic flavor successfully. Version 2 substitutes standard Chinese for the English dialect. The informal and colloquial style is changed into formal and elegant style. The words “我”, “发生”, “今天下午”, “事情”, “关系”, “羞” might give the Chinese readers a false impression that Tess is an well-educated urban girl. The original tone has been totally changed, though the translation could be understood by readers from different parts of China.

Through these discussions, we could tentatively make a conclusion that there are mainly four translation strategies employed in geographical dialect translation:

- Geographical dialect in ST→geographical dialect in TT
- Geographical dialect in ST→standard language in TT
- Geographical dialect in ST→colloquial and vulgar style in TT
- Geographical dialect in ST→zero, (or eclipsed) in TT.

Translation of Temporal Dialect

“Temporal dialects reflect language change through time” (Hatim & Mason, 2001, p. 41). People live in different times have different linguistic fashions. While translating a text written in archaic language, translators encounter the problem of choosing classic language or modern idiom. In literary translation, there is the consideration of aesthetic effect and readability. In this part, some examples of temporal dialect translation will be given and discussed. For example: To some scholars, instruction emanates from lecture or laboratory; to others it radiates from within. No scholar is so well taught as he who can teach himself.

Version: 学人中有受教于讲堂，实验室者，亦有教之发于内者。能自教自学，则学人之中最上乘矣。

(Wang Z. L., 1999)

The English text was written in the English Renaissance period. The words “emanates” and “radiates” are formal, elegant and exact, the sentence structure is brief and compact. In the Chinese version, some typical classical words such as “之”, “者”, “亦”, “矣” are used to reflect the temporal characteristics of the SL. And, the translation is not too abstruse and pedantic to be understood by modern readers. For example:

忽忽三年，红尘永隔；盈盈一水，青鸟难通。结想为梦，引领为劳。茫茫篮蔚，有恨如何也！顾念奔月嫦娥，且虚桂府；投梭织女，尤怅银河。我何人斯，而能永好？

Version: Three years have slipped quickly away while we have been separated by the ocean, with no blue bird to carry our messages. I long for you in my dreams, gazing in brief at the azure sky. Yet even the goddess of the moon pines in loneliness under the cassia tree, and the weaving Maid grieves as she watches the Milky Way which separates her from her love. Why should I alone enjoy wedded happiness? (Yang, X. Y., 2010)

The original text was written by Pu Songling in Qing Dynasty. Its parallel style is concise and elegant. The most striking characteristic is the use of four-character phrases and antithesis. The parallel construction and counterbalance of tonal patterns make the whole paragraph rhythmic. Due to the great differences between SL and TL, the translator has to rewrite the classic Chinese in modern and formal English. Though the sentences are still very concise and the original meaning is also clearly expressed, it is impossible to convey the original aesthetic effect and cultural information, as well as the parallel construction mentioned above.

Translation strategies of temporal dialect could be tentatively summarized as follows:

- Temporal dialect in ST → temporal dialect in TT
- Temporal dialect in ST → modern, formal and standard language in TT

The second strategy is commonly employed in the translation of classical Chinese works such as *Confucian Analects*, *Moral Intelligence* and so on.

Translation of Social Dialect

“Social dialects emerge in response to social stratification within a speech community. Principles of equivalence demand that we attempt to relay the full impact of social dialect, including whatever discursal force it may carry” (Hatim & Mason, 2001, p. 42). Social dialect is quite sophisticated; even people from the same social class speak differently in different situations. Each kind of social dialect has its own distinctive linguistic features by which the receptor can distinguish. For this reason, in translating different social varieties, the translator should try his or her best to match them with corresponding varieties in TL. Most social dialects are partly translatable because there are roughly corresponding social groups in different countries. While some other types such as variety of race in one language has no equivalent variety in another, and consequently the linguistic features are different to be represented. In the following part, three varieties of social dialect: variety of social class, variety of race and variety of age will be discussed.

Variety of Social Class

Generally, the people from lower class are inclined to use casual and colloquial words. People of middle and high class speak in formal and standard language which is in accordance with their social status and prestige, as seen in the following examples.

北静王见他语言清朗，谈吐有致，一面又向贾政笑道：“令郎真乃龙驹凤雏，非小王在世翁前唐突，

将来‘雏凤清于老凤声’，未可量也。”贾政陪笑道：“犬子岂敢谬承金奖，赖藩郡余恩，果如所言，亦萌生辈之幸矣。”

Version: The clarity and fluency of Pao-yu's answers made the prince turn to observe to Chia Cheng, "Your son is truly a dragon's colt or young phoenix. **May I venture** to predict that in time to come this young phoenix may even surpass the old one?"

"**My worthless son** does not deserve such high praise," rejoined Chia Cheng hurriedly with a courteous smile. "If thanks to the grace of **Your Highness** such proves the case, that will be our good fortune" (Yang, X. Y., 2010).

Though the example could also be classified as temporal dialect, here the discussion is carried out in perspective of social dialect. This dialogue is very formal because it is between an imperial prince and a middle-rank official in the feudal period of China. The prince belongs to the imperial family and his rank is superior to Chia Cheng's position. But he is much younger than Chia Cheng, so he chooses words as “小王”, “世翁”, “令郎”, “龙驹凤雏” to show his accomplishment and politeness. The highly refined language also reveals his position as a prince and maintains his dignity tactfully. It is neither overbearing nor servile. Chia Cheng, though he is from one of the four distinguished families, is socially inferior to the prince. Therefore, he intentionally makes the social distance obvious in his utterance. First, Chia Cheng denigrates himself as “萌生辈” and his son as “犬子” to show his modesty and respectfulness. Second, he uses words as “金奖” and “赖藩郡余恩” to flatter the prince and at the same time to show his loyalty to the emperor. In the translation, phrases as “May I venture”, “my worthless son”, “the grace of Your Highness” indicate their social relationship clearly and reflect their different tone appropriately.

刘姥姥对凤姐诉苦：“我们家道艰难，走不起。来到这里，没的给姑奶奶打嘴，就是管家爷们瞧着也不像。”

Version: “We are too hard to gad about. And even your ladyship didn't slap our faces for coming, your stewards might take us for tramps (Yang, X. Y., 2010).

Granny Liu is an old country woman, and her social status is almost at the bottom of the society. She comes to Rong mention for alms from this distinguished family. Hsifeng, the receptor of the message, is in charge of the financial power of the whole family. So Granny Liu deliberately takes servile attitudes to show her pitiable situation. Her tone is conveyed vividly in the English version.

From these examples, we could see that the variety of social class in the SL could be substituted by a correspondent variety in the TL, and the artistic effect is reproduced mostly.

Variety of Race

Linguistic features differ in terms of race, which is confirmed by the research on Black English Vernacular (BEV) in America. BEV is different from Standard English in pronunciation because some phonets are “swallowed” or eclipsed, such as po=poor, 'spected=suspected. Apart from the variations in pronunciation, BEV also assumes some variations in grammar. For example, the different forms of the link/auxiliary verb “be” are often dropped. The sentence patterns “there is...” is replaced by “is...”; the infinitive form of “be” denotes frequent, habitual or repeated action. All these features cannot be reflected in other languages.

The following is the speech of a Negro slave named Old Jim in the *Adventures of Huckleberry Finn*:

“pooty soon I’ll be a-shout’n for joy, en I’ll say, it is of on accounts o’ Huck. I’s a free man en I couldn’t ever ben free ef it hadn’ben for Huck; Huck done it. Jim won’t ever fprgit you, Huck; you is de bes’fren. Jim’s ever had en you’s de only fren’ole Jim’s got now.”

Version 1: “再等会儿，我就要高兴的使劲喊了，我就说，这都是哈克的功劳；我成了自由人了，要是没有哈克，我永远也得不到自由，这都是哈克做的好事。我吉姆一辈子也忘不了你的好处，哈克；你是我顶好的朋友；你也是我老吉姆一辈子的朋友” (Zhang Y. S., 2009).

Version 2: “布（不）用陀久（多久），我就会快活的跳起来，我约（要）说：这陀跪（多亏）赫克。我史（是）过（个）自由人啦，要布史有赫克，我这一攀（辈子）也布想自由；赫克帮了我的忙，杰姆我永远也忘不了你赫克；你史我杰姆顶好的奔（朋）友；我劳（老）杰姆此刻只有你这奔友。” (Cheng. S., 1989).

The Missouri illiterate Negro’s speech is full of variations in pronunciation and grammar, such as en=and, ben=been, ef=of, de=the, I’s=I’m, you’s=you are. None of these could be reproduced in the TL, and much of the vividness and additional background information of the speaker’s race are unavoidably lost. These are the disadvantages of version one which is wholly written in smooth and fluent Chinese. In version two, in order to reproduce the daily speech of uneducated blacks, Cheng Shi uses homonyms of standard Chinese such as “布”for “不”, “约”for “要”, “史过”for “是个”. To some extent, this transformation reflects the linguistic features. But the Chinese version cannot be understood at first look, and it sounds quite awkward.

Translation strategies of race dialect are:

- Variety of race in the ST→standard language in the TT
- Variety of race in the ST→colloquial or ungrammatical language in the TT.

Variety of Age

Variety of age results from the change of linguistic features over time and the age gap between the young and the old. The teenagers and the senior people speak quite differently. Generally speaking, the variations in the utterances of the children seem more interesting and conspicuous as they are more naïve, candid and energetic.

This is an example from the *Adventures of Tom Sawyer*:

“I can **lick** you!” / “I’d like to see you try it!” / “well, I **can** do it.” / “No, you can’t either.” / “Yes, I can.” / “No you can’t.” / “I am.” / “You can’t.” / “Can.” / “Can’t.”

Version: “我有**本事**揍你一顿。” / “我倒想瞧瞧你怎么个揍法。” / “哼，我还**敢**动手。” / “谅你也不敢动手。” / “我敢。” / “你不敢。” / “我就敢。” / “你就不敢。” / “就敢。” / “就不敢。” (Yan W. M., 1998)

This dialogue is between Tom and a well-educated urban kid. Readers can perceive the strong flavor of childishness. By translating “can” into different Chinese words “本事”and “敢”, the Chinese version preserves childish tone and also reflects the children’s psychology. Readers can even see the scene that two naughty boys are quarrelling in a tit-for-tat struggle.

Because there are more shared features of different languages spoken by people of roughly the same age, the linguistic variety of age is mostly translatable by choosing the corresponding varieties in the TL.

Translation of Idiolect

Idiolect is the individuality of a text user. “It has to do with the idiosyncratic ways of choosing language, favorite expressions, different pronunciations of particular words as well as a tendency to overuse specific syntactic structures,” and the “uniqueness of an individual’s speech represents an important aspect of language variation in general” (Hatim & Mason, 2001, p. 44). Idiolect plays an important role in the portrait of literary figure’s character, as in the following case of *A Dream of Red Mansions*:

湘云走来，笑道：“爱哥哥，林姐姐，你们天天一处顽，我好容易来了，也不理我一理儿。”黛玉笑道：“偏是咬舌子爱说话，连个‘二’哥哥也叫不上来，只是‘爱’哥哥‘爱’哥哥的。回来赶围棋儿，又该你闹‘么爱三四五’了。”
……湘云笑道：“这一辈子我自然比不上你。我只保佑着明儿得一个咬舌儿林姐夫，时时刻刻你可听‘爱’呀‘厄’的去！阿弥托佛，那时才现在我眼里呢！”

Version 1: “Naturally I will never come up to you in this lifetime. I just pray that you will marry a husband who talks like me, so that you hear nothing but ‘love’ the whole day long. Amida Buddha! May I live to see that day!”

(Footnote: “erh” means “two” or “second” and “ai”, “love”.) (Yang, X. Y., 2010)

Version 2: “I shall never be a match as long as I live,” Xiang-yun said to Dai-yu with a disarming smile, “All I can **thay ith** that I hope you marry a **lithping** husband, tho that you have ‘**ithe-withe**’ ‘**ithe-withe**’ in your ear every minute of the day. Ah, holy name! I think I can thee that **blethed** day already before my **eyeth** (Hawkes, D., 1973).

In Version 1, the ironic meaning of “爱” is conveyed at the cost of the original witty and sarcastic atmosphere. In version two, the lisping Chinese pronunciation of /ai/ and /e/ is replaced by lisping English phonets /θ/ and /s/. The artistic effect is better in terms of the reproduction of Xiang-yun’s innocent and lovely character. But the meaning of “爱” which is used by Xiang-yun to make fun of Dai-yu is not reflected in the English version. These two strategies have their respective advantages and disadvantages.

Conclusion

In this article, four major categories of dialect translation are discussed and the related translation strategies are briefly analyzed. People of different times, regions and social classes will demonstrate quite different linguistic features and habits, which could indicate their personality, social background, race, gender, occupation, educational degrees, etc. The translatability of dialect is limited and dialect translation remains a tough subject to deal with in both theory and practice.

However, in spite of the various factors of untranslatability, partial compensation is still possible by the employment of some effective strategies. The translator should exert his utmost to discern and convey the original information as much as possible, and come up with valid and ingenious solutions to problems in dialect translation.

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On Lexical Gap and Its Translation Approaches

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[Abstract] *Generally speaking, lexical gap refers to the phenomenon that cultural information carried by words of source language doesn't have equivalence or parallelism in target language. This paper starts with the definition of lexical gap, and then tells the categories of lexical gap caused by different cultural factors, finally introduces the approaches to the translation. The author argues that foreignization, in translating words laden with cultural connotations, should take priority over other translation strategies, hence enhancing target readers' appreciation of source texts and promoting intercultural exchanges.*

[Keywords] *lexical gap; translation approaches; foreignization; intercultural exchanges*

Introduction

As we all know, there exist numerous distinctive features between a foreign language and one's native tongue. Such diversity may be the result of differences in environment or tradition; or the differences may reflect disparity in level of industrial and technological development, or dissimilar political and social systems, etc.

Lexical gap is the term linguists use to describe a situation in which no single word exists in a language to denote a particular concept (Crystal, 1995). It occurs whenever a language expresses a concept with a lexical unit whereas another language expresses the same concept with a free combination of words. For a suitable evaluation of lexical gaps, we first need to distinguish idioms and restricted collocations from free combinations of words. While idioms and restricted collocations can be considered as composite lexical units, free combinations do not belong to a language lexicon or imply a lexical gap. We adopt the following definitions (Cowie, 1981):

An *idiom* is a frozen expression; its meaning cannot be built compositionally from the meanings of its component words. Also, the component words cannot be substituted with synonyms.

A *restricted collocation* is a sequence of words which habitually co-occur and its meaning can be built compositionally. They allow only a limited substitution of their component words, which have a kind of semantic cohesion mainly due to use.

Collocations spring to mind readily, and do not usually have a literal translation in other languages

A *free combination* is a combination of words following the general rules of syntax: the elements are not bound specifically to each other and so they occur with other lexical items freely.

In practice, the boundaries between idioms, restricted collocations and free combinations are not clear-cut. In many cases, a distinction can be drawn relying on knowledge contained in dictionaries that explicitly mark idioms and collocations. Also, the three sets exhibit certain structural regularities that can be exploited to automatically distinguish them from each other with a certain degree of confidence.

Most translators agree that languages are translatable, whereas, there must be some loss of information in the process of translating from the source language to the target language. There is no absolute equivalence as far as translation is concerned.

Causes of Lexical Gap

Lexical Gap Caused by Ecology

If a certain thing does not exist in people's living environment, lexical gap will exist in the language. For example, “竹子” (bamboo) does not grow in Britain, so English lacks original words in this respect. In fact, the word “bamboo” itself is a loan word. Thus, “bamboo-shoot”, the English version of “笋”, is not a good equivalence. In addition, in Chinese, “竹子” is often used to describe a person's nobility and moral integrity, but “bamboo” does not contain this kind of meaning in English.

Different geographical conditions in China also bring about many special words that cannot be found in English. Many words or phrases related to places, such as “人心齐，泰山移”，“不到长城非好汉”，“福如东海”，“楚河汉界”，definitely do not have corresponding equivalence in English. Moreover, China is a country with large territories, whereas Britain is an island country in the ocean; and early since the ancient time, Chinese people's life has been closely linked to land. In Chinese, “挥金如土” is a vivid description of someone who is very extravagant, which is equally expressed as “spend money like water”. Although the two phrases have the same meaning, they are not literally equivalent because the referents of them are not exactly the same.

Lexical Gap Caused by Material Culture

Chinese and English-speaking people live in different material world, and all the materials created by people are the material reflections of culture. Clothing, food, shelter, and transportation, the main aspects of material culture, are the direct reflections of people's economic situation and thoughts in life. Words about Chinese unique clothes are often translated liberally or just in *pinyin*, because there are no equivalent words in English. “旗袍” (qipao), “唐装” (Tang suit), “长衫” (Cheongsam) are good examples.

Lexical Gap Caused by Social Culture

Social culture plays a much more important role in the cause of lexical gap in that social culture covers too many things developed and preserved in the society. In everyday conversation, lexical gap caused by cultural differences is very prevalent and obvious. For example, when a guest leaves, it is very customary for the host to say to his guest “慢走”; which should not be translated directly, since both “stay here” and “walk slowly” sound very strange. Similarly, due to the difference of traditions and customs, relevant lexical gap may exist between Chinese and English. Typically “磕头” is a unique behavior in Chinese tradition, which definitely has no equivalent in English.

Lexical Gap Caused by Religious Culture

Religion, as an indispensable part of culture, plays an important role in the formation of some unique words or expressions in a language. Generally speaking, Buddhism, Daoism, and Confucianism have exerted a great influence on Chinese people. Many words in them, such as “正果”，“阿弥陀佛”，“西天”，“苦海”，“罗汉”，“太上老君”，“王母娘娘” and “菩萨”，have no equivalents in English. And Chinese people always call themselves “龙的传人” (descendent of dragon). However, to westerners, the “dragon” is often a symbol of evil. It is clear that “龙” and “dragon” actually are not the same thing.

Lexical Gap Caused by Linguistic Culture

Chinese and English belong to different language family, one is the Sino-Tibetan, and the other is the Indo-European. Because of the linguistic differences, many Chinese words cannot find equivalents in

English, and some words are even non-translatable. For example, a compound Chinese word can be divided into more words by radicals, Chinese people get used to introducing themselves in this way: “我叫张斌, 弓长张, 文武斌”, this sentence has to be translated by omitting the part “弓长张, 文武斌”.

Translation Approaches to Lexical Gaps

In the course of translation, how to deal with the problems of cultural factors is always a challenge to translators. The translation of words is to a great extent the translation of culture. In the light of this consideration, the following approaches to the translation of cultural-loaded words are recommended.

Ignoring the Conceptual Nuance and Using the Nearest Equivalent

Translators frequently come across cultural barriers, in which words are so foreign and distinctive that it is almost impossible to find conceptually equivalent ones in the target language without impairing their original meanings. In these cases, translators have to resort to certain adjustments in order to give birth to the functional equivalents of these heavily culturally-loaded words.

For example:于是小旦唱, 看花旦唱, 看老生唱, 看不知什么角色唱.....

Translation:Then I watched a heroine and her maid sing, next an old man and some other characters I could not identify..... (Lu Xun: Village Opera)

In Chinese culture, “小旦” doesn't necessarily refer to a heroine; it might be a female character in disguise of a man. So the translation unavoidably involves some loss of information, a sort of under-translation, and the receptors, suppose they are not quite familiar with this peculiar product of Chinese culture, will not comprehend it to the full. It is better to borrow a word in the source text and not to bother to exhaust all its cultural implications. More often than not, in situations where major misunderstandings might not occur, it's quite enough to achieve the formal equivalence instead of the dynamic equivalence, for the dynamic equivalent translation by its very nature is a less accurate translation according to some translators.

Employing Free Translation to Achieve Best Comprehensibility

Some words in the target language are so ethnic that literal translation is by far insufficient to communicate message to the second reader, especially in cases where allegories, figurative terms, metaphors, and parable appear, which become meaningful, only if they are recreated in the allegories, figurative terms, metaphors and parables of the target language and their culture. If not, they should be reduced to their senses.

Under such circumstances, a translator usually refers to free translation. For example:

差不多二十年了, 生活在贫困线以下或温饱问题还没有解决的人口仍有几百万。

Translation: Several million of people have lived near or below the breadline for almost two decades.

“温饱问题” is a peculiarly Chinese term, which appears frequently in the media. If translated semantically, it would sound somewhat misleading, making target readers nowhere as to the degree of this feeding problem. As it happens, there is a word in English, *breadline*, meaning a line of people waiting for food given by a charity or relief, which is just dovetailed into the source text. Such a translation is very effective in transferring the accurate information.

Using Compensation Means to Achieve Clarity

Compensation means are employed in situations, where loss of meaning, sound effect or metaphor in one part of a sentence in the target language text may occur. The importance of compensation is self-evident. Translators and interpreters in translation practice quite often use this skill. Cultural terms are teemed with profound meanings such as allusions, innuendoes, metaphors, euphemisms, ironies, historical figures, etc. It is not an unusual case that there is a long story even behind a single word. To make target language readers understand the text more fully and drink in more different cultural excellences, translators have to come to terms with translation principles and himself, and adopt some compensation means to achieve a better result. Compensation can be roughly divided into three kinds: (i) literal translation plus footnotes or endnotes, (ii) literal translation plus intra-textual explanation, and (iii) free translation plus notes.

Literal Translation plus Footnotes or Endnotes

Literal translation alone sometimes cannot meet the requirement of translation. To fill the gap caused by cultural disparity, necessary exegeses are the good way to iron out the curb. Exegeses here mainly include two forms, footnotes and endnotes. This is particularly so in the translation of historically loaded words, which contain intricate connotations and implications. For example:

我孩子的时候，在斜对门的豆腐店里确乎终日坐着一个杨二嫂，人都叫伊“豆腐西施”。

Translation: When I was a child there was a Mrs. Yang who used to sit nearly all day long in the bean curd shop across the road, and everybody used to call her Beancurd Beauty.

(Lu Xun: My Old Home)

Semantically speaking, putting “豆腐西施” into Beancurd Beauty is not ideal or natural enough. The translation has, to some degree, undermined the original flavor of the term. To be more exact, Beancurd Beauty is a mixture of literal and free translation. In Chinese culture, if a lady is said to be Xishi, it means her beauty is beyond description. So the image of Xishi, whenever it is mentioned, would ignite people's rich and remote imagination and elicit abundant cultural associations. “西施” is actually a stock cultural metaphor in Chinese. That is to say, the name of this beauty acts as a connection between present and past; and its implied meaning is apparent. In order for the receptors to have a deep understanding of the charm of the original language, it is absolutely necessary to add something more besides the translation, for instance, footnoting, which compensates for the loss of cultural meaning and seemingly leaves to regret. So in translation, free translation plus footnotes or endnotes (※) is an effective compromise.

Literal Translation plus Intra-Textual Explanation

This method is especially useful in translating allusions. For example:

她是一个林黛玉式的人物。

Translation1 (T1): She is very sentimental.

Translation2 (T2): She is a Lin Daiyu, sentimental, knowledgeable and rebellious.

T1 is a completely free translation; T2 is a literal translation with follow-up explanation. Clearly, the original text contains an allusion. If translated freely or communicatively, the allusion is gone and the exotic flavor is accordingly deprived of. To retain the cultural and aesthetical value, the literal translation plus a short follow-up intra-textual explanation is quite to the point. From this point, T2 is better and

more informative than T1. It reserves both foreignness and freshness, introduces a cultural image, and also lives up to expectations of easy understanding.

Free Translation plus Notes

This is the least favorable way to translate culturally-loaded words in terms of keeping the original flavor or the cultural otherness. If this translation is employed, the loss of cultural identity will be inevitable, and coherence is likely to be achieved, but cultural connotations are sacrificed.

However, untranslatability does exist. Some peculiarities in one culture are hard to translate into the other. For example, to translate “麻子照镜子——个人观点” literally into English is hardly possible and almost unintelligible, for this allegory is much too heavily loaded with cultural connotations. Thus under this circumstance, a translator usually refers to free translation for help while brushing aside the original frame.

Conclusion

What can be concluded clearly is that lexical gap is a real big problem to Chinese-English translation due to the plentiful Chinese words with distinctive Chinese cultural connotations. Accordingly, in the course of translation, understanding the lexical gap caused by cultural differences proves to be very meaningful and necessary. To fully transfer the message into another language both denotatively and connotatively is no easy task. In the process of translation, many factors must be taken into account such as the readability of the translation, the receptor's knowledge of the source language and its culture, the aesthetical value, the context, etc. so that the culturally-loaded words can be transferred meaningfully into the target language while retaining their cultural peculiarities.

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Application of Adaptation Theory in Trademark Translation

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[Abstract] *With the globalization of world economy, more and more Chinese products are exported to western countries. To make our products popular in foreign markets, the translation of trademark, which is the symbol of a product, is emphasized by most translators. This paper analyses the features of trademark translation and discusses the application of adaptation theory in trademark translation. According to Verschueren's adaptation theory, in trademark translation, translators should adapt to the culture of target language, consumers' psychology of target language, product characteristic, and consumers' cognitive competence. To some extent, trademark influences marketing directly, so people cannot afford to neglect the trademark designing, nor its translation.*

[Keywords] *trademark; translation; adaptation theory*

Introduction

Pragmatics is the study of language usage and its rules. In the late 1930's, American Philosopher Charles Morris first introduced the term "Pragmatics" in his works on semiotics. He defines semiotics as the use of signs governed by syntactic, semantic and pragmatic rules. He holds that Pragmatics is the study of relation of signs to interpreters" (Morris, 1938, p. 6); it deals with "the origin uses and effects of signs within the behavior in which they occur" (Morris, 1938, p. 218). Pragmatics, as a new branch of linguistics was established after publishing *Journal of Pragmatics* in 1977.

Nowadays, pragmatics is one of the rapidly growing fields in contemporary linguistics. It studies particular utterances in particular situations and especially deals with understanding and using languages in various social contexts of language performance. However, in 1999, Verschueren proposed the adaptation theory in his book *Understanding Pragmatics*. He regarded that "pragmatics constitutes a general functional (cognitive, social and cultural) perspective on linguistic phenomena in relation to their usage in the form of behavior" (Verschueren, 1999). In Verschueren's new book *Understanding Pragmatics*, he holds the view that using language must consist of the continuous making choices, for language-internal (i.e. structural) linguistic or language-external reasons (Verschueren, 1999, p. 55). And according to Verschueren, using a language is a process of "making choices" from the "variability" through "negotiability", then come to "adaptation". Variability is the property of language, which provides the possibilities from which users can make choices. Negotiability is the property of language that implies the principles and strategies of making choices are rather flexible and negotiable. Verschueren's adaptation theory is not only applied for studying pragmatics but also applied for the study of translation. It provided sufficient descriptive theoretical framework for studying the rules of language use, and provides a new method of achieving the societal pragmatics equivalent effect. Adaptation theory plays a role of guide in the process of translation. Translation is a dynamic process of making choices, in

which the translators continuously make adjustment and negotiation to the context (Song, 2004, pp. 21-25).

Trademark Translation

The Significance of Trademark Translation

Trademark, the definition from the dictionary is a special name, sign, word, etc., which is marked on a product to show that it is made by a particular producer and which may legally only be used by that producer (He, 2007). To some extent, trademark reflects a product's practical value and excellent quality. Then, a good product should have a good trademark. Trademark is the logo of a product. It is a symbol of product quality, image of a company and assurance of intellectual property. As part of language, trademark is also the most active factor, which sensitively reflects the changes of social life and thoughts. Trademark reflects the soul of language; contains rich culture information including culture background and features; has the characteristic of nation and area. Therefore, trademark translation is featured as simple, vivid, common, refined and deep in meaning. So trademark translators must widely and exactly understand the other culture's belief, customs, value and so on and honestly convey their value and soul to different culture.

From the perspective of linguistics, trademarks are composed of one word or one phrase. Trademark translation is always neglected because it is quite different from other translation. The process of trademark translation will not be affected by sentences, paragraphs and texts. However, with the increasing globalization of the world economy, more and more commodities are exported to other countries. To open the market in another country, besides good quality the commodity need to have a popular, acceptable trademark, for the trademark leaves the consumers the first impression of the commodity, especially some exported commodities. Trademark translation becomes more and more important. A good translated trademark can lead the sale to a success, while a poor translation will lead to misunderstanding of the commodity. And in view of social functions of trademarks (advertising and promoting), the translated trademark should be easy for reading, spelling and memorizing. Meanwhile, the translated version should overcome the culture conflict and cater to the aesthetic views and consumer psychology. Translation plays a very important role in whether the product and its trademark. To get a more idiomatic version, trademark translation cannot do without translation theories. A good translated trademark should fulfill the pragmatic functions of the original one, that is to say trademark should be equivalent to the original one. Considering pragmatic translation is a kind of equivalent effect translation, it is useful in the process of trademark translation. In the light of pragmatics, the author holds the view that pragmatic functions of the original trademark can be conveyed to the target market successfully. In return, the study of trademark translation can develop the pragmatic translation as well.

Features of Trademark Translation

Be simple and easy to remember. Language is the signal that people use to communicate with others. Though there is no fixed standard of naming a product, there are basic principles in aspects of language, culture and market, such as the general linguistic principle, the principle of adapting to the market environment and the principle of legitimacy (Zhang, 2011, pp. 91-94). In order to be easier to memory, trademark should be simple, fresh and special, which can arouse people's purchase desire. For example, the trademark *Sony* (electric instrument), and *Nike* (sports wear). etc. They are translated as 索尼 (*Suo Ni*), 耐克 (*Nai Ke*). It is likely for most Chinese to remember the two simple Chinese letters at the first

sight.

Reflect the characteristics of the product. No one product is the same as others in size, quality and usage. Each product is unique in material and market, and has certain groups of consumers. So trademark translation should reflect the characteristics of the product. When the consumers read the trademark, they can get some ideas of the functions of the product and will easily accept the product. For example, 固特异 (*Gu Te Yi*) in Chinese instead of English trademark *Goodyear* (tire) reflects the characteristic of the tire – indurative, which is the original expectation of the consumer.

Up to the consumers' aesthetic standard. Trademark is not only the reflection of material, but also the reflection of a culture. People's recognition angle, ways of thinking and aesthetic standard differ from country to country. Therefore, trademark translation should reflect the characteristic of different culture and be up to the consumers' aesthetic standard. Trademark should be designed beautifully in sound, meaning and image. E.g. 佳能 (*Jia Neng*) which may get consumers to think of its excellent function and arouse people's purchase desire. Another example of a cosmetic trademark 美宝莲 (*Mei Bao Lian*) the three Chinese words may lead the consumers to have the imagination of beautiful ladies. Such a product is irresistible for anyone who is eager for beauty.

Application of Adaptation Theory

Adaptation to Phonic System of Target Language

Language, originated from life, is partly limited by customs and life. In every aspect of life, language is performed differently according to its culture. As a language phenomenon, trademark is undoubtedly limited by language, while excellent trademark will take advantage of the phonic, rhetoric of target language. Properly translated trademark adapting to phonic of the target language, is easy to pronounce and up to the aesthetic standard of target language.

For example, *Tecmix* (shoe) has similar pronunciation to 天美意 (*Tian Mei Yi*), which may be associated with good wishes and lucky. People who wearing these shoes will imagine better future and fortunately be protected by god. *Ford*, trademark of an American car is translated into Chinese as 福特 (*Fu Te*) which sounds like happiness. *Pampers* (kind of diaper) when firstly introduced into China, people will not enjoy the advantages of the product for different traditional ways of wrapping a baby. But the translation 帮宝适 (*Bang Bao Shi*) iconically illustrates the merits of the product: to help mothers to take care of their babies; to make the babies comfortable.

Adaptation to Culture of Target Language

Custom is rooted in every aspect of people's daily life. Different culture has different custom, which reflects a certain characteristics of a nation, or at least parts of the country. It is inherited through generation to generation. And during the inheritance, some customs are merged into the other while there are still much typical and unignorable customs, which may cause conflict in translation. For example, in China, there is a kind of wine, named 女儿红 (*Daughter's Wine*), which is produced in Shaoxing, Zhejiang Province. In China, there is a saying that when there is a girl was born, the parents will bury some jars of wine under the ground until the girl grown up. On the girl's wedding, the wine will be taken out to entertain the guests. It is a way to share their happiness with the guest and convey the parents' best wished to the new couple. So the trademark 女儿红 (*Nv Er Hong*) is widely accepted by Chinese together with its cultural meaning implied by the three Chinese words. But for western countries, it is

meaningless if the trademark is translated word by word. Hence, it is very important to convey the cultural information with the trademark in the process of translation. There was a battery 白象 (*Bai Xiang*) when introduced to foreign market, was directly translated into *White Elephant* without considering the implied meaning in different culture. Such product named *White Elephant* won't be popular in the market because white elephant means useless and cumbersome thing. How can you imagine the trademark *White Elephant* will arouse people's desire to purchase. A famous man's suit 报喜鸟 (*Bao Xi Niao*) enjoys reputation in home market. When introduced abroad, the translator translated word by word as *Bao Xi Niao*. Few people can associate these words to the high quality of the suit and gentlemen image with such suit. With the development of globalization of business, the company changed the trademark into *Saint Angelo*, which symbolizes dignified angels. It adapted to the culture of target language and got excellent results.

Adaptation to Consumer's Psychology of Target Language

A good trademark influences consumers' psychology profoundly, so trademarks and their versions should promote favorable association to adapt to consumer's psychology. It is human being's common desire to get happiness, good luck, and good fortune especially for Chinese who prefer the similar pronunciation to *Fu, Lu, Shou, Xi*... According to investigation, the Japanese prefer 诚 (*Cheng*), 梦 (*Meng*), 爱 (*Ai*), 愁 (*Chou*), 美 (*Mei*)....., while in English the popular words are chime, golden, lullaby, melody, murmuring and so on (Liu, 2005, p. 114) The translated trademarks should be oriented to such consumer psychology.

World known automobile trademark Bayerische Motoren Werke has no meaning to Chinese if literally translated. But adapting to consumer's psychological needs for vanity, the Chinese trademark 宝马 (*Bao Ma*) can easily be associated to noble steed which symbolizes the top functions of the car and honor of owning such a car. *Marlboro* in Chinese 万宝路 (*Wan Bao Lu*) indicates thousands of ways to wealth; *Goldenlion* 金利来 (*Jin Li Lai*) means gold and benefits will come continuously.

Adaptation to Product Characteristics

Adaptation to product characteristics aims at the indication of the product's attributes such as its property, functions, effect, etc. The translator should emphasize the characteristics of product to adapt to the expressive function of trademarks. This method makes full use of the translated trademark's reflective and cultural meaning to indicate the product's characteristics. Actually, this adaptation maximally shows the information of the product such as high quality, the effectiveness, or the outstanding performance. This means the consumers consciously or unconsciously expect the product to satisfy their requirements. The products will be popular in the target market if the translated trademark is acceptable and appealing to consumers.

Successful translated trademark of 奔驰 (*Ben Chi*) indicating speed and quality of the car, ingeniously avoided the pronunciation of *Ben Si* (likely to die) in Chinese based on the adaptation to product characteristic.

Adaptation to Consumers' Cognitive Competence

Trademark is the first impression of the product to consumers. Good first impression is a short cut to success. What if a translated trademark beyond the consumers' cognitive competence? It will be a meaningless signal to the consumers. As a result, no purchase desire will be aroused.

Various examples of translated trademark adapted to consumer's cognitive competence. E.g. *Legalon* (medicine for treating liver illness) – 利肝灵 (*Li Gan Ling*) meaning benefit to liver; *Decis* (kind of farm chemical) – 敌杀死 (*Di Sha Si*) meaning to kill all the pests on the farm. If translated literally, consumers will have no idea what the products probably will be. That is obviously beyond the consumers' cognitive competence.

In addition, *Nike* (sports wear) is translated into 基娜 (*Ji Na*) at first. In western countries, Nike is the goddess of victory. But for Chinese 基娜 is meaningless except for a female name. Such translation is beyond the Chinese consumer's understanding of the western culture. Chinese people will not accept such a product though it has good quality. From this example, we can infer that an improper translation may destroy an excellent product.

Conclusion

The trademark often captures the central theme or key associations of a product in a very compact economic world. A successful product partly depends on its trademark since the trademark is so closely tied to the product. It is the first impression of a product, left to the consumers, which symbols the quality, functions, and characteristics of a product. Successfully translated trademarks can easily convey the information to consumers and arouse their purchase desire.

In trademark translation, people should consider many factors, such as culture, history, custom and so on. And according to Verschueren's adaptation theory, in trademark translation, translators should adapt to the culture of target language; consumers' psychology of target language; product characteristics; consumers' cognitive competence and so on.

With the development of world economy, there will be some new methods of trademark translation, but the main methods discussed are still practical in business life. No matter what method is used, the basic principles cannot be neglected. And the real good translated trademark is the one that conveys all the information carried by the trademark. To some extent, trademark of product influences marketing directly, so people cannot afford to neglect the trademark designing, nor its translation.

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On the Translating Skills of the Tourism Brochures on Chinese Famous Scenic Spots

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[Abstract] Today, tourism, as a new industry, plays an important role in the world's economic development. China also takes great advantages of resources to develop tourism. It attracts more and more foreign customers to visit our country, which means more communication between China and the world. Therefore, the English introduction to scenic spots becomes more and more important. The English versions of tourism brochures show the scenic features and introduce Chinese splendid culture to the world. It helps foreign customers to understand Chinese scenic spots, people and history better. The cultural differences, the language differences and different ways of thinking between China and Western countries and describes how to translate the Chinese tourism brochures into English by giving some suggestions were analyzed, hoping it's helpful for the development of Chinese scenic spots translation.

[Keywords] tourism brochure; culture; skills of translation

Introduction

Being one of the four ancient civilizations, China has splendid tourism resources, with so many foreign tourists' attractions. It is quite important to introduce China to the world, and make foreign friends understand Chinese culture. Because the different backgrounds and customs between China and western countries, it's a little difficult to understand each other. The quality of the English versions of tourism brochures is very important to our countries' tourist development. This paper analyzes the translation situation of the Chinese current tourism brochures, finds out some problems in translation, and explores some ways of how to translate them well. It is helpful to promote Chinese tourism and introduce Chinese culture to the world, making the world understand our Chinese culture much better.

The Situation of Chinese Tourism Brochures and Their English Versions

In 1981, the International Association of Scientific Experts in Tourism defined tourism in terms of particular activities selected by choice and undertaken outside the home. According to Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary, tourism is "the business of providing services such as transport, places to stay or entertainment, for people who are on holiday" (Hornby 2009). According to Cambridge Advanced learner's Dictionary (2008): Tourism is "the business of providing services such as transport, places to stay or entertainment for people who are on holiday". Tourism English is the English language used for tourism. With the development of tourism industry, tourism English appeared which belongs to a branch of English for Specific Purposes, just like Medical English, Business English, etc. Tourism English involves many disciplines such as linguistics, aesthetics, psychology, history, culture, literature, art, folklore, ethnology, religion, etc. Correspondingly, tourism English has become the most important medium of communication when international tourist activities are involved, which serves as a means of attracting tourists and enhancing their interests in traveling (Liu, 2010).

"Language serves as informative function when it is used to tell what the speaker believes, to give information about facts, or to reason things out (Hu, 1988). For tourists, they all hope to get the relevant

information and background knowledge of the tourist destination before and during the tour. Tourism texts are directed at helping tourists arrange their tours and make it effective. When they are informed the details of their tours, they can receive most of the directions or guidance from the tourism texts. Informative tourism texts can share and exchange knowledge, or talking “about” something, including precautions, ideas, feelings, sightseeing, etc. So tourists can get the relevant information from different tourism texts when they tour to a new place through this function. Tourism is becoming more and more important in the world. World tourism organization indicates that, to 2020, China may attract 140 million foreign tourists, and become the top tourism country in the world by its splendid culture and natural resources. Industry can promote national economy development. The tourism industry is important for building a spiritual civilization. It is a good way to promote Chinese cultures. Therefore, it is quite important to translate tourism brochures more accurately to foreign tourists, for a better understanding of Chinese culture.

The Problems in the English Versions of Chinese Scenic Spots' Names

China has rich natural resources, vast territory and splendid culture. These resources and landscapes contributed to different dialects and minority language domains, which are our linguistic features in tourism whereas causing many misunderstandings and difficulties for communication. Especially when foreigners do not understand the spots' names, it not only spoils visitors' mood and we must pay attention to them.

There are many problems in the translation of scenic spots' name. First, a scenic spot's name is often translated into different kinds of names in different tourism brochures. For example, we can see “TAI LAKE” and “TAIHU LAKE” in brochures. This always makes foreigners not know which the right place that they want to visit is. Second, translate just according to Chinese names, without considering the origin meanings of the names. For example, at the railway station, the place where we go to ask information can be translated into “Information Desk” or “Customer Service Counter”. These translations are understandable to Chinese but in fact the right translation is “Information”. Third, just use Chinese spellings and pronunciations instead of English translation. For example, in tourism brochures we can find some famous spots' names such as “Sandie Waterfall” and “Wuxie Waterfall”. When foreigners see these names they can't understand what they really are, because these names are only translated literally. In fact, the correct translations are “Three-cascade Waterfall” and “Five-cascade Waterfall”. There are so many problems in the brochures that we can't pass on information correctly to foreigners, so we should try our best to solve these problems.

The inadequacies in tourism brochures translation. Tourism plays a very important role in Chinese economic development, so the quality of tourism translation is the key to attracting foreigners to visit our country, but there are still some problems in brochures. We must take them into consideration and try to solve them. Here are some major inadequacies.

Miss-spelling. In the market of tourism, there are many different kinds of tourism brochures, but they still cannot meet foreigners' needs. Because of many miss-spellings in them, it misleads foreigners to have a better understanding about Chinese culture. It is very hard to help foreigners get right information from brochures because of some miss-spellings in them. For example, when tourists want to visit “Summer Palace”, they will choose to read the brochures to find how to get there. But because of the carelessness and some miss-spellings in the tourism brochure, the foreigners go to a wrong place. And another

example is the scenic spot in Shenzhen called “Windows of the World Station” which is always written into “Window of World Station”. All of the above are caused by translator’s miss spellings. Moreover, some workers usually write “ShenZhen” instead of “Shenzhen” which is caused by the mistakes of worker’s typewriting instead of translator’s fault. In order to ensure that tourists have a good and happy journey, as a translator, we should try our best to make the tourism brochures much better and better, and avoid miss spellings in the brochures.

Grammar errors. In the tourism brochures, because of the translator’s incompetence, there are always some grammar errors in it, which makes the foreign tourists misunderstand the information correctly, consequently, spoiling a good journey. What a pity! As we know, the grammar is the most difficult part in studying English, so we usually make some mistakes. There are many tenses, sentence patterns and some other knowledge about grammar. If we cannot study them correctly, only a small mistake about tense will lead to different understanding, which will influence a foreigner normal journey. The following is an example:

There are many ways foreigners get to know Chinese culture.

There are many ways for foreigners to learn about the Chinese culture.

There are grammar errors in the first sentence, because it has two complete meanings in it. One meaning is “there are many ways” and the second is “Foreigners get to know the Chinese culture.” Only adding them up is not proper, which will make foreigners not know what the main idea is and lead to misunderstanding, while people can understand the second one correctly. So we should study hard and try our best to make the translation of tourism brochures much better and easy to understand.

Chinglish. Due to the language differences, when translating English brochures, we sometimes use Chinglish, which leads to foreigners’ misunderstanding.

The following is an example:

Welcome You to Tour Bamboo Sea in South Sichuan.

Welcome to Bamboo Sea in South Sichuan.

From the two sentences we know that the first is Clingfish, and the second is western English. What made the difference is the customs, which makes it hard to communicate. It is hard to change people’s living customs and ways of thinking, so learning about western customs is a way to reduce mistakes in brochures.

Complicated and disordered sentences. Complicated and disordered sentences are another main errors in tourism brochures, which are caused by the limited knowledge of the original language and their meanings. The following is an example: Original translation: Any actions to bring harm to the animals such as beating hitting or hunting are strictly prohibited. New translation: Any actions to bring harm to the animals are strictly prohibited. From the above two sentences we can find that the second one is much shorter than the first one, with the same meaning. At the same time the second one is much easier to understand by Chinese readers. In the first sentence the mistakes are mainly caused by the limited knowledge of original language and their way of thinking. So when translating a sentence, we should try our best to translate it into a simple sentence, and avoid using complex words and grammar to help readers know the main meaning easily.

The Analysis of Tourism Brochures' Inadequacies in Their English Versions

Cultural Differences

Language is the carrier of culture; culture is the soil of the language. Translation is a cross-cultural communication. So the culture plays a very important role in translation. At the same time, the translator's competence will directly influence the quality of tourism brochures. Sometimes, cultural foundation is much more important for a successful translate than language skills. If we translate only according to skills of translation while overlook cultural importance, it will obscure the meanings, cause misunderstanding and bring some troubles to tourists.

Understanding and using of color words is a special example to illustrate Chinese and western countries' cultural differences. In western countries, "black eyes" refers to eye socket after a beating, "dark eyes" means black and brightly eyes. When describing a famous painter's work in tourism brochures, the translators often can't express exactly these color words. For example, "In the paintings the woman who standing by the Xihu Lake is so beautiful with a long hair and black eyes", Chinese people can understand that the translator wants to describe how beautiful the woman is. But western people can't understand and will become amazed. They will think the woman was beaten just now and led to her "black eyes", instead of any sense of beauty. This mistake is caused by culture differences. We should translate it into "The woman is so beautiful with long hair and dark eyes".

As translators, we should try our best to learn about western cultures, know about different professional knowledge and try to make sure the tourism brochures' translation can be helpful to foreign tourists.

Different Ways of Thinking

China and some other western countries have different customs. And these differences lead to different ways of thinking. Usually the west thinks universally while the east thinks intuitively. And the westerners take differences seriously while overlook unify the easterners thinks contrarily. Just these different ways of thinking lead to misunderstandings in translation.

For example, for the word "Spring Festival", the foreigner will interpret it as a festival in spring instead of an important and meaningful festival as it. This is caused by westerners' national thinking. At the same time, the different ways of thinking also influence the translation of sentences. For example, when we introduce a scenic spot in Sichuan province, foreign translator will correctly translate it into "One of Sichuan finest scenic spots is Hunghong (Yellow Dragon) which lies in Song pan Country just beneath Xuebao, the main peak of the Min-shan mountain. Its lush green forests, filled with fragrant flowers, bubbling streams and songbirds are rich in historical interest as well as natural beauty." But in Chinese it will be changed into another sentence, such as "In Sichuan province, there are a mountain behind the Xuebao which is the main peak of the Min-shan mountain and there are so many flowers and bubbling around it, the streams and songbirds are all rich in historical interest as well as beauty of natural." The reason why there are differences between two sentences is the different ways of thinking for the two countries. In order to improve the quality of tourism brochures' translation, help our country to introduce its scenic spots to foreigners, we must try to think as westerners' thinking when translating.

The Translating Skills of Tourism Brochures

The Translating Skills of Scenic Spots' Names

The correct translation of scenic spots' names is good for foreigners to know about Chinese tourism resources, and helps them to decide where to go and which spots meet their needs in the precious holiday.

As we know, English-Chinese translation is a process of bilinguistic translation, influenced by two ways of thinking and different culture backgrounds. Languages deeply rooted in the history and social lives. It clearly shows people's lifestyle, customs, culture traditions and psychological characteristics. Regarding the different cultural background between English and Chinese, it is rather difficult to achieve accuracy in translation, which sometimes causes the misunderstandings of Chinese culture and the foreigners cannot understand what the real meaning of the scenic spots is. It greatly discourages Chinese tourism industry, undermines its attraction to foreigners. With proper way of translating, we can reproduce the original thinking and styles.

There are some skills of translating the names of scenic spots. First, because there are different names of the same spots, which make tourists go to the wrong place, we should unify the spots' names to make sure one spot has one name. For example, there are three names of "Overline Bridge", they are "Overline Bridge", "Platform Bridge" and "Overhead Walkway". And the three names appears in different brochures but foreigners only know one of them so when they see the other names they will not know what it is. So in order to avoid it, we should unify spots' names. Second, we should combine literal translation with free translation. For example, there are two famous scenic spots in West Lake. They are "Fishing Terrace" and "XiChun Terrace", but these two words refer to different structures. The "Fishing Terrace" actually refers to a square pavilion, so "Fishing Pavilion" is much proper. Third, choose a proper synonym according to the scenic spots' characters. For example, when translating the names of mountains, there are "Wutai Mountain", "Wudang Mountain", and for the hills there are "Fragrance Hill", "Elephant Hill". When we translate names of mountains we can translate according to whether the mountain is high or not. Usually for some famous scenic spots, we use mountain, and for small one we translate it into hill. For the names of waters there are different kinds of translation, such as "East China Sea", "Xihu Lake", "Yongding Rive". Usually we translate the water according to how big the water is. For the wide water we call it sea, for the narrow water we call it lake, and for the small one we translate it into river. We should not exchange these words willingly, but to translate according to the common rule of English expression and the characters of the scenic spots.

The Translating Skills of the Contents of Tourism Brochures

The tourism brochure is a window of Chinese tourism, a guide for foreigners and a major way to introduce China. So the quality of tourism brochures will influence the spread of Chinese culture. In order to make the brochures correct and credible we must master some skills of translation and improve our competence of translation.

The method of addition. It is a very important way in translating tourism brochures, it can bridge the gap between different cultures, and help foreign tourists know about the real meaning of our oriental culture.

It means we should add some related vocabularies, structures and expressions to make sure the translation become correct and smooth, which helps to reduce the misunderstandings caused by stiff translation. This method is used widely in English translations, so does in tourism brochures translation.

For example, when we introduce arhat to the foreign tourists, we can translate like this “This is a newly built temple to arhats. In stone caves or Buddhist temples there are 16 Arhats 18 Arhats or 500 Arhats”. This translation might make foreigners only remember the figure instead of the real concept of the arhat. So for this situation we should use add method. And now we can add “The arhat is a Sanskrit term which means a Buddhist who has reached the stage of enlightenment” to the word “arhats” of the first sentence. The added information explains the concept of arhats, which really helps tourists understand it impressively.

Appropriate modification. Appropriate modification is used when translating between Chinese and English, especially when there are differences in the expressions of different customs and logical sequences. So in order to meet westerners’ needs we usually adjust and transform the sequence of sentences and do some appropriate modification, to make people understand much better.

There are so many vocabularies and expressions describing Chinese scenic spots. We can choose a proper word from them in translation. When translating a sentence, we can grasp the main information to translate instead of translating word by word, which always destroys the original meaning. For example, “(Baofenghu) the Verdant Lake like mirror and have thousands peaks, valleys, is very beautiful.” We can modify it into “Baofeng Lake is like a mirror, embellished all around with green hills and deep caves of enchanting beauty”. This method is widely used. It often helps translators to make tourism brochures become easy to understand for foreigners.

Implication and Conclusion

With the development of the world, tourism becomes more and more prosperous. It not only promotes economy of our country but also promotes the communication between different countries. So the quality of tourism brochures is very important. It will influence the introduction and promotion of Chinese scenic spots. As a translator we must improve ourselves and constantly enrich our knowledge. When we translate tourism brochures, we should make full use of translating skills and consider the foreign tourists’ taste and the differences between Chinese culture and the western cultures, so as to make foreigners know about China much better and give publicity to Chinese sceneries.

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Ambiguous “And-construction” and the Strategies for English-Chinese Translation of Legal Text

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[Abstract] English conjunction “and” cannot be fully matched with the equivalent “hé” in Chinese. Because of the different legal system and different semantic fields both the “and-construction” and the “hé-construction” contain potential ambiguous meanings in legal context. The paper discusses the possible sources of the ambiguous meanings of the conjunction “and” in English-Chinese translation of legal text, analyzes the different forms of ambiguous meanings, and then explores the better solutions for reducing ambiguous meanings of “and-construction” in the legal English-Chinese translation, which can be the help for better interpreting English-Chinese legal text.

[Keywords] legal text; and; ambiguity; translation

Introduction

The relation between the certainty of legal text and the uncertainty demanded by judicial practice requires that there should be the process to eliminate language ambiguity (Du, 2004). Linguistically, there are at least three kinds of ambiguity. Firstly, semantic ambiguity refers to the confusing caused by word meanings. Secondly, syntactic ambiguity means the confusing caused by sentence structures. The phrase “a green bay tree” is a typical example. Does the “green” modify the “tree” or the “bay”? Is this tree a “green-bay-tree” or a “green bay-tree”? Thirdly, pragmatic ambiguity is the confusing caused in a certain context. For example, what is the exact meaning of the sentence “The President shall be a member of the Board”? Does it mean the President is selected from members of the Board, or he becomes a member of the Board because of his position, or he must be a member of the Board? This kind of issue can be taken as a typical pragmatic ambiguity.

The forms and words to express the meanings of conjunctions in Chinese and English are very close. The English “and” can be the meanings of several, joint, combined several and joint conjunction, or the same meaning shared by two words, including transition. The Chinese “hé” can express the meanings of coordinating relation, pause mark, and, together, with, while, along with, as well as, again, the same time, and too. This shows that there exist some ambiguities in expressions and annotations of “and” in Chinese and English. The English “and” can conjunct more meanings than that of Chinese. That is, the Chinese content expressed by “hé” is so limited. What’s more, the English “and” can indicate the meanings of several, joint, combined several and joint conjunction, even including transition. What can fully convey the meanings of English “and” should be “hé”, “jí”, “yǐjǐ” in Chinese, and the equivalent “yǔ” and “tóng” may deliver a limited meanings of English “and”. The Chinese “hé” can be taken as English “and” or “or” in some cases. Of course, the style of a text should be considered when choosing a conjunction to match a context. In Chinese there are more common forms to express the meanings of “hé”. For example, the “and” in an English text, especially an English text translated from Chinese, is used much more frequently than that of “hé” in a Chinese text, because more equivalent Chinese words can be used to express

conjunctive relations, such as “jí” or “yǐjí”. That is to say, there are more expressions for Chinese language to indicate the conjunctive relations.

In a legal text, only knowing the potential ambiguity of coordinate conjunction “and” and translating it correctly can a reader better understand laws and regulations or interpretations of legal cases (Wu, 2002). The syntax role of “and” is to conjunct subordinate clauses, phrases, words or word groups with the same grammar position, or to conjunct words and phrases. But in legal translation, different understanding may lead to different legal interpretation. Ambiguity caused by “and-construction” is not only shown from semantic aspect, but also from syntactical aspect.

Potential Ambiguity of “And-construction”

In legal English the meanings of “and” and the causes of the ambiguity can be traced reasonably. If all the possible forms of “and-construction” in legal English texts can be discoursed logically, then a reader can better understand and interpret the laws and the regulations.

Three Possible Ambiguous Meanings of “and”

The three possible ambiguous meanings of “and” can be logically discoursed as following formula: the meaning of “several” equals A and B and C, or the meaning of “several but not joint” equals adding the ABC together; the meaning of “joint” equals A and B, or the meaning of “joint but not several”; the meaning of “combined joint and several” equals adding the ABC together, or the meaning of “joint or several”.

According to the discourse formula above, the phrase “charitable and cultural institutions” can be translated into different versions. The first version is “institutions that are either charitable or cultural”. Here the “and” is interpreted as “several”. The second version is “institutions that are both charitable and cultural”. The “and” here is interpreted as “joint”. The third version is “institutions that are charitable, cultural, or both”. Then the “and” is interpreted as “combined joint and several”. From the different interpretations, it is clear that the phrase “charitable and cultural institutions” may cause ambiguity.

Now if “A and B may do X”, then more different meanings may be deduced from the sentence. The meaning of “several” can be explained as: if A may do X, then B may do X. The meaning of “joint” can be explained as: A and B jointly may do X. The meaning of “several” and “joint” can be explained as: if A may do X, then B may do X, or A and B may jointly do X.

Doublets

Doublets here mean “and” combining two words with one meaning only, which is a form of compounding. Two words with one meaning is that the fixed two words together express a single meaning or concept (Lian, 2010), such as rock and roll and bread and butter. Doublets are also commonly applied in legal English text, such as null and void, acknowledge and confess, act and deed, do and perform, final and conclusive, make and execute, place and stand, free and clear, etc. Those collocations express a single conception with two words connected by “and”.

The conception of doublets can also be found in Chinese. Almost all the verbs, adjectives and nouns in modern Chinese can be combined with two different characters with the same meaning after combination, which is like the word formation of English compounds. What’s more, it’s common in modern Chinese that a phrase composed with two words which are shortened from a long phrase. For example, “shěn pī” (approval) is combined by “shěn chá” (examine) and “pī zhǔn” (authorize). Then does it express one single meaning or two meanings? If two meanings are required, they should be reflected in

English version by connecting two words with “and”. Otherwise, there can be just one word in English version.

“And-construction” with a Negative Adverb

The ambiguity from the “not (no) and-construction” always cause confusion in translation, which can be solved by De Morgan’s Rules. In English, “not (A and B)” is often described as “not A or not B”. The word “and” in affirmative sentences would turn to be “or” when used in negative sentences. The “and” in the affirmative sentence “There were lawyers and judges in the car” can be understood as the parallel “and”. However, the “and” in the negative sentence “There were no lawyers and judges in the car” has to be interpreted as “or”. The two comparative examples show that “no (not)...or...” structure should be used if the “and” is of the meaning of “several”. Therefore, the phrase “not consistent with laws or regulations” should be understood as “or”. The word “and” in the English sentence “We have not found any provisions in laws and regulations” should be translated into the Chinese word “huò” which means English “or”. Factually, the examples are all translated according to the logic of “De Morgan’s Rules”. The formula of “De Morgan’s Rules” can be: “not (A and B)” equals “not A or not B”; “not (A or B)” equals “not A and B”. This rule shows that meaning of “and-construction” with the meaning of “several” is the same as that of “or-construction” with the meaning of “including” when two or more parallel structures connected by “and” are in a negative form (Olsson, 2004).

Of course, the interpretation of ambiguity caused by “or” and “and” in negative concept can be solved by preposition repetition, signifying “not A and B” or “not A or not B”. Then “without knowledge and consent” can be the meaning of “without knowledge or without consent”, or the meaning of “without knowledge and without consent”.

Analyses of “And-construction” in Translation

If there is a series of adjectives in a sentence and the last two adjectives are connected by “and”, then every adjective is dependent. Therefore, “a bequest for benevolent, charitable and religious purposes” means that the bequest can be used for any purpose among these areas. If we define “helping the poor and the old” as “charitable”, these words should be understood differently. However, if there are two adjectives for modification, the first one is usually functioned as the controlling role and the following one as modifying. Then “a bequest left for charitable and deserving purposes” is effective because this collocation only takes “charitable” as the objective, and this word modifies the whole phrase. This example emphasizes the differences between “and-construction” with the meaning of “several” and “and-construction” with “joint” from the view of dependent meaning and modifying meaning.

“And-construction” with the Meaning of “Several”

There are four situations for “and-construction” with the meaning of “several” as following.

- Connecting non-synonym – The expression “connecting non-synonyms” indicates that “and” used in the text of adjudication actually means “several”. The testament phrase “sell and convey” is a typical example because the “sell” and “convey” are not synonyms, and the “and” means “or”. This “or” expresses the “and” with the meaning of “several”.
- Mutual implications among meanings of conjunctions – The “and” in the legal phrase “person or persons interested in, and owning such property” can be understood as “or”. However, the “interested in” is understood as a different meaning from the “owning” because no one can

claim the more important relation than the owner. If the ownership is actually regarded as the key factor to get the compensation according to laws, there is no need to add more words referring to endowing “people who have stakes with property” with compensation right. Laws here can’t be interpreted as the repetition of the specification for the same content. So the “and” in the phrase between “interest in” and “owning” means “several”. The “and” in a contract clause “without the written consent of the said party of the first part, and upon such terms as will indemnify the said party of the first part” here should be interpreted as “or”, otherwise, words following “and” will lose their meaning. Here “lose their meaning” refers that it’s unnecessary to simply repeat them. The reasoning of avoiding unnecessary details becomes the source to explain that the “and” means “several”.

- Enlarging the lexical meaning scope – A testament stipulates that the inheritance was left for “religious, charitable and philanthropic objects”. Here “and” is used to express transition in order to increase object choices, aiming at broadening object numbers in choosing range, with a selecting and transformational choosing condition. At the same time, more conditions and features means more choices of object class within the range, which does not mean the increasing conditions and reducing numbers of objects in choosing range through using adjectives and connecting with “and”.
- Equity factors – The United States of America belongs to common law legal system, which is quite different from the legal system of the mainland China. Equity factors often affect the court decisions. American divorce suit shows that a husband’s fault may let a wife have the priority to apply for divorce, and then the wife should give evidence to prove that she is ill treated (Tao, 2004). According to the legal practice it seems that the wife’s alimony should meet two conditions: the husband’s fault for the divorce and his refuse for the support. However, all American judges usually don’t interpret that “and” as the meaning of “joint”, but as the meaning of “several”, which results that a wife can get the alimony as long as a husband does the either of the two (Tao, 2004). The key reason for the interpreting “and” as the meaning of “several” should be relevant with the equity law. So even if a husband only commits one of the two, but not the two, the judge will decide that the husband should take the responsibility for the divorce. This is a typical example to interpret “and” as “several”, not “joint” in legal text.

“And-construction” with the Meaning of “Joint”

Lexical construction of “two words with one meaning” is often used when “and-construction” means “joint”. The first example is the provision formulated in the eighth amendment to the American constitution that a police cannot treat a suspect with any “cruel and unusual punishment”. Then the interpretation from courts is that any “cruel and unusual punishment” should be illegal because judges always take the “cruel and unusual punishment” as a whole for any illegal punishment. From traditional legal definition, neither “cruel” nor “unusual” is explained as a dependent word. The word “and” in the phrase “cruel and unusual punishment” is explained as a “joint” meaning at first, even more than “joint”, as “cruel and unusual punishment” is a fixed phrase. In fact, it is inferred as “two words with one meaning”.

The second example is that the clause in contract law formulates that “The invitation and submission of tenders to a construction project shall be openly, equally and fairly according to the provisions of

relevant laws”. The “equally and fairly” here is factually “two words with one meaning” for showing equity in laws.

Effective Ways to Eliminate the Potential Ambiguity

After the above discourses that why “and-construction” can cause potential ambiguity in legal text and legal translation, it is found that “and” can actually express either “joint” or “several”, and it also can combine the two into one which is “two words with one meaning” or doublets. Thus it’s very important to identify and judge the accurate meaning among the three in legal context. There are possible solutions to solve the potential ambiguity of “and-construction” as following.

Using Widely Accepted Conventions

In legal English translation, following conventions are the premise for better understanding and correct translation of legal text. If a convention which is completely accepted is asked to express “joint” meaning, then “and” can be used, such as “every individual who is both aged and blind”. If “several” meaning is required, then “or” can be used, such as “every individual who is aged, or every individual who is blind”. So if there isn’t any specific requirement for the context, then “Every aged and blind individual” can be “every individual who is both aged and blind”. If we want to express “expenses arising from a hospital visit and expenses arising from burial”, then “hospital expenses and burial expenses” is used, but not “hospital and burial expenses”.

When there are more than two unnecessary paralleling conditions or options, or “both” can be used to replace “and”. The sentence “The buyer may rescind or claim damages or both” expresses that the buyer can rescind or claim damages, or he can both rescind and claim damages. So it’s not so proper to translate it into “The buyer may rescind and claim damages”.

Using Grammatical Regulations

Using restrictive clauses can make legal conceptions and explanations more accurate. For example, the “and” in the phrase of “charitable and educational institutions” cannot simply be understood as “and”, but it can be translated into different versions in different context. The meaning can be the “institutions that are charitable and that are educational, or the “institutions that are charitable and institutions that are educational, or the “Institutions that are both charitable and educational.

Hyphens connected “and-construction” can reduce the ambiguity caused by “and”. For example, the meaning of “black-and-white horses” is more specific than “black and white horses”.

The ambiguity of “and-construction” between the meaning of “joint” and “several” can be distinguished by adding definite articles before nouns. When the meaning of “joint” is needed, a definite article can be added before a group of nouns. Then the noun phrase “the British, French and German figures” indicates that a group of jointly definite numbers is required. When the meaning of “several” is needed, then a definite article can be added before every noun in a group of nouns. So the “and” in the phrase of “the British, the French and the German figures” indicates the meaning of “several”.

Using plural forms of nouns can express the meaning of “several” in “and-construction”. Although it is common to use singular form, but not plural form in drafting legal documents to reduce ambiguity, it seems that using plural form can better express the meaning of “several” in “and-construction. Then the “and” in the phrase of the “husbands and fathers” can be the meaning of “several”.

Conclusion

The essential function of conjunction “and” is to express the meaning of connection, especially connecting nouns in legal text. The English “and” can’t be fully equivalent to “hé” in Chinese. The more modifiers the “and” connects, the more specific meaning it indicates. When an “and” connects nouns or adjectives especially overlapping in meaning scope, it’s more difficult to distinguish whether the “and” means “joint” or “several”. How can we determine the meanings of “and” in the sentence that “every person who is a wife and mother”, or, the sentence that “every person who is a director and employee”? In such situation we should identify the meaning according to context or through legal background. “And” connecting adjectives usually means accumulating but not scattering. A reasonable interpretation of the sentence that “red and white skirts are beautiful” is not “red skirts are beautiful and white skirts are beautiful”, but “skirts that are both red and white are beautiful”.

Based on the different analyses and strategies for legal translation, “and-construction” is proved to express the meaning of “several”, “joint”, and “both several and joint”, which helps a lot for better understanding of legal meanings and judicial interpretations. Possible strategies can be applied to solve ambiguity caused by “and-construction” in legal text in practical translation. De Morgan’s Rules can also be applied to eliminate ambiguity in “not (no) + and-construction”. Therefore, some rules can be deduced from the potential ambiguity of “and-construction” in legal text even though America and China belong to different legal systems in different languages.

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On the Retention of Culture Image in Translation

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[Abstract] The culture image is a key in intercultural translation. The translatology of dealing with the culture image depends on the success communication. Retaining the culture image that contains rich culture connotations and connotative meanings is the requirement of the nature of communication and the translator's responsibility.

[Keywords] culture image; loss; retain

Introduction

Translation is a kind of intercultural communication activity that is a kind of culture transplanted into another culture. In 1954, Mao Dun at the National Conference of Literary Translators said: "Literary translation is to reproduce the original artistic images in another language so that the reader of the translation may be inspired, moved and aesthetically entertained in the same way as one reads the original" (Liu, 1991, p. 104).

Translation standard is generally considered the core of translation theory and it has remained a hot topic among translators both at home and abroad. In China, the most influential standards for translation include Yan Fu's faithfulness, expressiveness and elegance, Fu Lei's likeness-in-spirit and Qian Zhongshu's realm of transformation, In a word, a good translation should first of all be faithful to the original in content and style including the culture (Hu, 2001). In the West, Alexander F. Tytler puts forward three principles of translation, they are "the translation should be a complete transcript of the ideas of the original; the style and manner of writing should be of the same character with that of the original; the translation should have all the ease of original composition" (Tytler, 2006, p. 48). In *Approaches to Translation*, Peter Newmark presents Communicative and Semantic translation. "Communicative translation attempts to produce on its readers an effect as close as possible to that obtained on the readers of the original. Semantic translation attempts to render, as closely as the semantic and syntactic structures of the second language allow, the exact contextual meaning of the original" (Newmark, 2001, p. 39). It is better to use Semantic translation in culture translation and Newmark is against using annotation to deal with the culture image.

With the development of international politics and economy, cultural exchanges become unprecedented frequent. Translation is no longer just a language conversion, and it is also a cultural transformation. Retaining the culture image completes the mission of translation and is a full expression of the nature of translation.

The Definition of Culture Image

In West, Wilss (1996) says that an image brings about a kind of feeling or consciousness and it represents and implies something inner or invisible. "In the form of written and spoken, culture image is widespread. It belongs to one of the culturally-loaded words. The language expresses, embodies and symbolizes culture reality." C. Day Lewis points out that an image is just a picture expressed through words (Yan, 2003, p. 6). In China, the term "image" is usually associated with poems. According to Zhu Hui, an image is a picture permeated with a poet's subjective feelings and expressed in language after being appreciated aesthetically by a poet, so it is a combination of "feeling" with "objects". Besides, a Chinese aesthete, Zhu Guangqian, defines image as the reflection of an object in an aesthetic subject's mind. He explains: "When you are looking at a plum flower ... (You) do not have time to think about its meaning and its relationships with other objects. However, it will leave a sensual impression on you. That is to say, the form of the plum tree forms an image in your mind"(Yan, 2003, pp. 6-7). As a symbol of culture, image is endowed with stable and peculiar cultural connotations. Whenever people talk of a culture image, sympathetic responses will be aroused among people from the same cultural community. Physical image and connotation are the two important sections of image. Physical image, the carrier of the information meaning, is the objective fact that can form the connotation. Under a language and culture environment, connotation is the extended sense of physical image. The function of image is to represent abstraction via concreteness under different contexts. Thus culture images are collectively unconscious.

The Expressions of Culture Image

Culture images are usually permeated in allusions, idioms, proper names, metaphors, proverbs and so on. And they have some expressions such as a plant, an animal, a number, a color, a natural phenomenon and so on.

The expression of culture image can be an animal in reality or legend. For instance, in Chinese, dragon is a symbol of nobleness, sanctity, stateliness. Happy bird stands for good luck. Bat symbolizes good luck, health and happiness. Donkey is a token of folly. Pig is a symbol of greedy and sloth. In Europe and United States, owl symbolizes wisdom. Dog is a symbol of loyalty.

The expression of culture image can be a number. In Chinese, "san"(three) as a culture image is a symbol of "numerous", and "ba" is not only means "eight", but "good luck and good fortune", because it is homophonic with "fa". In Europe and United States, "seven" has similar associative meaning with "san" in Chinese such as "at seven-league stride". And "thirteen" implies unlucky meaning. For example, some books in western countries don't have the "Page Thirteen" and some hotels don't have the "Room Thirteen".

The expression of culture image can be a color. In Chinese, "red" is a symbol of "loyalty" and "luck". "Yellow" stands for "majesty" and "rich". "Gray" symbolizes "oppression" and "ponderousness". "Green" is a token of "full of vigor". In Europe and United States, "red" is a symbol of "angry" and "blood" such as "see red" means "angry". "Blue" symbolizes "gloom" and "ribaldry" such as "look blue" means "unhappy". "Black" stands for "terror" and "mystery". For example, "black magic" stands for "witchcraft".

The expression of culture image can be a natural phenomenon. "Moon" is a symbol of "homesick" in Chinese in the poem. "East wind" stands for "full of vigor". In Europe and United States, "west wind" symbolizes "strength" and "hope". For example, in Shelley's "Ode to The West Wind", "west wind" is

invented to act as “strength”, and it is able to destroy everything and awaken the sleeping earth at the same time.

The Loss of Culture Image

Some translations are not for conveying the cultural image analyzing from three aspects: the skewing of culture Image in translation, the vacancy of culture image in translation and the clashes of culture image in translation.

The Skewing of Culture Image in Translation

Due to different ethnic customs, religious beliefs and cultural traditions, translators often put image and culture isolation in English-Chinese translation. Even worse, the translators only pay much attention to the meaning and lose some images so that the result is the skewing of culture image. What’s more, some words and expressions that contain culture images can not convey cultural connotation exactly. For example, an idiom can be translated to “*Two heads are better than one*” or “*Collective wisdom is greater than a single wit*”. The translation has the same meaning with the original text, but is not indicative of the symbols of “Chou Pi Jiang” and “Zhu’ge Liang” in Chinese culture. It is better to translate it into “*Even three common cobblers can surpass Zhu’ge Liang*”. Maybe some readers will question about this translation because there is no such a person in English and they can not understand this translation. But at first every translation shall be faithful and render exactly the idea and form of the original. With the development of globalization, the culture exchanges among different countries become more and more frequent. The readers are not only able to accept foreign culture image, but also have great interest in it, so it is no need to worry about the acceptance of “Zhu’ge Liang”.

The Vacancy of Culture Image in Translation

Because of different religious beliefs, political systems, as well as the humanities and history, different nations have some “culture vacuum” that is the vacancy of culture image in translation. For example, people are affected deeply by the Christian in the USA, Britain and other Western countries. Thus, there is strong Christian culture in these places. However, China is greatly influenced by Buddhism. The word “He Shang” is a well-known concept and widespread. But in Christian countries, “He Shang” is a strange concept and the proverb is also unfamiliar for Christian people.

The Clashes of Culture Image in Translation

Sometimes, different nations have the same culture images, but the connotations of culture images are different or even diametrically opposite. That is to say the clashes of culture image in translation. For example, in Chinese, the dragon is a totem with many royal associations. However, the associations of “dragon” to Westerners are horrible, disgusting monsters. In English literature “Beowulf”, the dramatics persona fights with a dragon that stands for evil at the last time. In Bible, “dragon” also links with evil and terrorist. Moreover, “bear” stands for “wimp” and “inability” in Chinese.

Methods of Retaining the Culture Image

Retaining culture image can be faithful to the source text and prompt the cultural exchanges. Therefore, translators must adopt some methods to avoid the loss of culture image. Usually, translators can use the following three methods to avoid the loss of culture image.

Literal Translation

In culture image translation, some general images in the original language and target language have close or same connotative meanings. Translators can use literal translating method to convey these culture images. For example, “to cross the Rubicon”, “to burn one’s boat”, and “The die is cast” The three English idioms originated in 49 BC in ancient Rome, and equivalent (exactly is “similar”) to Chinese idioms, is related to the Chu overlord Xiang Yu. Caesar desperately led his troops through Ruby Ken river, Xiang Yu in the same combat commanded his army crossing the river, and after crossing the river they burned ships for breaking retreat (that is, “pofuchenzhou” or “muyichengzhou”). Both of the historical behaviors are determined to have a final fight.

“A Red, Red Rose” was written by English poet Robert Burns:

*And I will love thee still, my dear, Till the seas gang dry. Till the sea gang dry, my dear,
And the rocks melt wi' the sun; And I will love thee still, my dear, While the sands o' life
shall run.*

“Till the seas gong dry” is a common culture image in both Chinese and Western countries. It set up at the basis of human experience, so that even after thousands of years and separating thousands of miles, it will not influence the understanding.

Interpretive Translation

An image cannot be directly translated into the target context when the readers lack the cultural knowledge to understand and appreciate it. Under this situation, interpretive translation can be used to translate the culture images. For example:

*The one hundred and fifty! The one hundred and fifty! What a door to an Aladdin's cave
it seemed to be.*

In this sentence, “Aladdin” is a figure in charge of the magic lamp in the myth of “Thousand and One Night”. “Aladdin’s lamp” usually refers to a good object that can satisfy people’s desire. Here, 150 Yuan was known as “Aladdin’s lamp”. Therefore, the translators should make an explanation of “an Aladdin’s cave”, which stands for a place in possession of a large number of treasures, creating material wealth.

There is a sentence in translating a Russian novel:

*The whole sky spangled gay twinkling stars, and the Milky Way is distinct as though it
had been washed and rubbed with snow for holiday.*

The Chinese translator Zhao Jingshen translated “Milky Way” into Chinese “niunailu” Literally, but once it is popular translated as “tianhe”. According to the analysis of cultural context, both seems to be far away from the source language culture that connects with traditional Greek and Roman culture. Because the Milky Way is not cow’s milk, but milk from Queen Hera. So it is better to be translated as “shenlutianlu” (Tan Yong, 2011, pp104-105), which does not only lose the concept of road, but also convey the source language cultural background.

Literal Translation Combined with Notes

When a culture image contains abundant cultural image, the literal translation combined with note can be used in translation. For example,

*The planners were busy bypassing the Gordian knot. (Collins Cobuild English Language
Dictionary)*

In order to help the readers to understand “the Gordian knot” and transfer the culture image, the translator makes a note as followings: “Greek mythology”(king of the Phrygian tied a knot, only the future ruler of the Asia can solve, later Alexander cut it open by a sharp sword). It is turned into a metaphor for the intractable issue. In order to keep the alien taste, it can be transliterated with the note.

When translating Chinese idiom “tianfuzhiguo” or “yumizhixiang”, the Chinese flavor translating is: “The land of abundance”, and “the land full of fishes and rice”, similarly in the Bible, “the land flowing with honey and milk” is the home that God gave to Abraham's descendants. Then it can be translated as following:

*Sichuan Basin – the land of abundance, Jiangnan Plain – the land full of fishes and rice.
(Both similar as the land flowing with honey and milk)*

Such translation can keep the source language culture image concept, and add the target language cultural factors, the translation reduces cultural gap, and help the readers understand the true cultural meaning of the source language works.

Implications and Conclusion

The loss of cultural image is due to the different location, custom and traditions among various nationalities. Translators should not be satisfied with the transference of general sense of the original cultural image, as their own responsibility, they should convey the culture image of the original language. At the same time, translators should trust the readers’ acceptance ability. With the development of culture exchanges between different nations, readers are not only able to accept foreign culture image, but also have great interest in it. Therefore, it is not a necessity translating the bread to Mantou (or vice versa) and then inflict them on readers.

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An Empirical Study on the Effect of Schema on Consecutive Interpretation

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[Abstract] With the trend of globalization speeding, China has witnessed increasing international communications in various fields, for which the importance of study on the effect of interpretation is highlighted. The thesis sets out to study theoretically and empirically the effect which schema has produced on teaching English-Chinese consecutive interpretation in a systematic way.

[Keywords] empirical study; consecutive interpretation; schema theory

Introduction

Schema theory is a theory used in cognitive psychology to explain the mental process of comprehension. The Gestalt Psychologist, Frederic Bartlett, defines a schema in his work “Remembering” as an active organization of past reactions and experiences, a building block for mental structure and a unit in which knowledge is represented (Bartlett, 1932). Schema theory holds that “any text, either spoken or written, does not carry meaning by itself, rather a text only provides directions for listeners or readers as to how they should retrieve or construct meaning from their own previously acquired knowledge” (Carroll, 2004). The organization of the text helps the reader select among these conceptual complexes. The goal of schema theory is to specify the interface between the reader and the text – to specify how the reader’s knowledge interacts with and shapes the information and to specify how knowledge can be organized to support the interaction (Howard, 1987). When applying schema into interpretation, we find it can help interpreter improve interpreter’s comprehension of information, generate predictions and facilitate information retrieval (Chernov, 1994). This thesis aims to study the effect of schema on consecutive interpretation performance by using a systematic study, and also to answer the following questions:

1. Does schema have any effect on consecutive interpretation performance? If there is any, how further does it go?
2. Can linguistic schema (linguistic proficiency) reduce the negative effects caused by lack of cultural schema in interpretation? If so, what is the difference from the phenomenon that occurs in English-Chinese interpretation?
3. Whether or not students with different language ability, with or without schema, employ the top-down or bottom-up information processing model in the same degree? If not, which model is more frequently employed?

Research Design

Subjects

36 subjects from four-year English majors are selected from different classes to participate in the experiment, who have learned the course of consecutive interpretation for one year and have been familiar with the process as well as the necessary skills of doing interpretation. The author divided all the subjects into three groups, 12 subjects in each one, according to their English proficiency levels which take in to consideration the score for Band Four examination, an objective judgment on students’ basic language

proficiency, score for intensive reading course, a better expression of the current language ability of the samples and the score for consecutive interpretation course, a symbolization of the interpreting talent.

Experimental Materials

Six interpretation passages have been chosen from related studies (passage one and two), interpretation textbooks (passage three, four, five and six) and are grouped into three pairs, two passages for each one. The first passage of each pair is familiar to every one with different kind of schemata, while the second is unfamiliar at all. The author chooses passages with different content and different schemata rather than the passages with the same content and different schemata on purpose, because if these were with the same content, subjects would be affected by what they heard and misled the results of the experiment. The purpose for this exercise is to see whether formal schemata influence people’s understanding and interpretation performance. The second pair of passages includes the third one and the fourth, which is for English-Chinese interpretation. The first passage is the brief introduction to People’s Republic of China and the second is a description of the geographical zone in London. It is necessary to choose one passage on which subjects have much background knowledge while the other is totally new, so the function of content schema and cultural schema in interpretation can be observed. Passage five and six compose the last pair as a Chinese-English interpretation test. They are chosen to see whether schema can play the same role as in English-Chinese interpretation. They have almost the same type to describe traditional customs. The passage we assume everyone is familiar to is the description of the dragon boat festival, and the sixth one gives an introduction to an Indian festival namely Rakish Bandhan unfamiliar to everyone.

Inferential Statistical Analysis

Software SPSS is adopted in this part because of its accuracy, authorization and convenience. The next three tables are gained by operating SPSS, and we use them as the basic descriptive data for analysis.

Table 1-A. Description of Passage One and Two

Y		N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
1.00	X	36	19.00	34.00	28.3889	3.91537
	Valid N (listwise)	36				
2.00	X	36	11.67	28.64	19.4153	4.91452
	Valid N (listwise)	36				

Table 1-B. Description of Passage Three and Four

Y		N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
1.00	X	36	25.00	45.00	35.3611	5.98165
	Valid N (listwise)	36				
2.00	X	36	17.07	40.78	28.5014	6.46728
	Valid N (listwise)	36				

Table 1-C. Description of Passage Five and Six

Y		N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
1.00	Score	36	6.00	21.00	14.5833	4.02403
	Valid N (listwise)	36				
2.00	Score	36	4.62	21.23	12.0256	4.67803
	Valid N (listwise)	36				

Pre-conditions for Hypothesis Testing

- Two pre-conditions must be satisfied before we make the inferential statistical analysis.
- Two populations in each pair must be in normal distribution.

The first pre-condition is satisfied in the study because firstly the sample size of the present study is 36 which has 6 more subjects than normal distribution requires, and secondly the subjects’ performances on the six passages, no matter from English to Chinese or Chinese to English and no matter there are relative schemata already installed in mind, do conform to normal distribution.

To test the second pre-condition, we first need to know the exact numbers of variance. Here we use S to symbolize variance, x the score subject get, m the mean score and n the number of subjects. According to the formula of variance in statistics, we can get variances of each passage. After that, F distribution ratios are available.

$$S = \frac{\sum (x - m)^2}{n} = SD^2, F = S1^2 / S2^2$$

If $1/F_{\alpha} (n^2 - 1, n^1 - 1) < F < F_{\alpha} (n1 - 1, n2 - 1)$, we should say F falls between the confidence interval at a confidence level of α ($\alpha = 2.5\%$), and the two populations in each pair have the same variance at a confidence level of F0.025 (35, 35) can be found from the F- distribution table attached in every statistics textbook attached as an Appendix.

Data are summarized in the following table.

Table 2. Summary Variance Ratios of Samples

		SD	S	S2	F-ratio	Confidence Interval	Confidence Level
Pair One	Passage 1	3.915	15.331	235.040	0.430	0.425-2.00	0.025
	Passage 2	4.915	24.152	583.319			
Pair Two	Passage 3	5.982	35.780	1280.208	0.732	0.425-2.000	0.025
	Passage 4	6.467	41.826	1749.414			
Pair Three	Passage 5	4.024	16.193	262.213	0.548	0.425-2.000	0.025
	Passage 6	4.678	21.884	478.909			

In the above table, it shows that variance ratios of every pair of passages fall between the confidence interval at a confidence level of 0.025. It means we are 97.5% sure that the two passages in each pair of the experiment have the same variance. Consequently, the two pre-conditions are tested with positive results.

Relevant parameters and indicators involved in this study should be listed before conducting the hypothesis testing.

The two populations and samples in the study have already been listed in the above section, so there is no need to repeat them.

N stands for the size of sample. In our study, the size of sample participating in the experiment in each passage is 36 respectively. Therefore, $N_1=N_2=N_3=N_4=N_5=N_6=36$

\bar{X} : The mean score of all the subjects' performance for passage. Therefore, \bar{X}_1 represents the mean score of subjects' performance for the first passage in each pair and \bar{X}_2 for the second passage in each pair.

μ : The mean score of population. μ_1 refers to the mean score of population one in every pair of passages and μ_2 refers to the mean score of population two in every pair of passage.

H0: there is no significant difference between the two populations, namely $\mu_1 = \mu_2$;

H1: there is significant difference between the two populations, namely $\mu_1 \neq \mu_2$;

α : the level of significance. Here, we use 0.025, which means we are 97.5% sure that our conclusion is correct.

Hypothesis Testing

Step One. Make statement of the null hypothesis and the alternate hypothesis.

In the current study, the null hypothesis is that there is no significant difference between the performance of the senior students majoring in English at CUST on passage without relative schemata in mind and on passage with schemata already installed in mind. Correspondingly, the alternate hypothesis is that there is a significant difference between them.

H0 : $\mu_1 = \mu_2$ ($\mu_1 - \mu_2 = 0$); H1: $\mu_1 \neq \mu_2$ ($\mu_1 - \mu_2 \neq 0$)

Step Two. Select the level of significance.

In conducting hypothesis testing, there are three significance levels in convention, namely 0.05, 0.025 and 0.01. If the probability calculated is lower than 0.05, the result is significant; if the probability calculated is even lower than 0.01, we say the result is extremely significant. The level of significance is represented as α . We choose 0.025 as the level of significance in the study in order to reduce the probability of making the study inaccurate. Therefore, $\alpha = 0.025$

Step Three. Use Independent-Samples T test and Paired –Samples T test to conduct the study.

T test is widely used in social sciences to testify a hypothesis. If the T-tests show the significant difference (two- tailed) is smaller than the significant level $\alpha = 0.025$, the H0 is rejected and H1 is adopted which means there is a significant difference between two groups of performance in the pair. Here, by applying SPSS to the study we make the T-test for each passage respectively.

Independent-Samples T Test

Independent-samples T test is used to compare the means of two samples and get the conclusion whether there is a significant difference between the means. The following table 3-A is the result of independent samples T test. Here we can find that in Levene's Test for equality of variances, $F=1.752$, $P=0.190$, therefore, the variances is equal. In the second part of result, T-test for equality of means, $t=8.569$, $v=70$, $P=0.00 < 0.025 = \alpha$.

Table 3-A. Independent Samples T-Test for Passage one and Two

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
score	Equal variances assumed	1.752	.190	8.569	70	.000	8.97361	1.04725	6.88493	11.06229
	Equal variances not assumed			8.569	66.671	.000	8.97361	1.04725	6.88310	11.06413

Table 3-B is the result of independent samples test of passage three and four. In Levene's test for equality of variances, $F = 0.81$, $P = 0.777$ which reveals the variances is equal. In the T-test for equality of means, $t = 4.72$, $v = 70$, and $P = 0.00 < 0.025 = \alpha$.

Table 3-B. Independent Samples T-Test for Passage Three and Four

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
score	Equal variances assumed	.081	.777	4.672	70	.000	6.85972	1.46824	3.93142	9.78803
	Equal variances not assumed			4.672	69.578	.000	6.85972	1.46824	3.93111	9.78834

Table 3-C is the result of independent samples test of passage five and six. Variances of the two passages are also equal. And in T-test for equality of means $t = 2.487$, $v = 70$, $p = 0.015 < 0.025 = \alpha$

Table 3-C. Independent Samples T-Test for Passage Five and Six

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
score	Equal variances assumed	.775	.382	2.487	70	.015	2.55778	1.02844	.50662	4.60894
	Equal variances not assumed			2.487	68.470	.015	2.55778	1.02844	.50581	4.60974

It is evident to find that Probability, short for p, in each passage is smaller than α . Consequently, H0 is rejected in every pair of passages. The Independent-samples T test proves that there is great significance between subjects' performance on passages with and without schemata in mind.

Paired-Samples T Test

Paired-samples t test is used to compare the mean difference of paired samples. DG should be used in the test to stand for the individual difference between two samples compared:

$$DG = X1 - X2$$

SPSS is used for the third time for Paired Samples T test. The following 3 tables are the output of the results for pairs 1 to 3.

Table 4-A. Paired-Samples T Test for Pair 1

		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
					Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	score1 - score2	8.97361	2.04268	.34045	8.28247	9.66476	26.358	35	.000

Table 4-B. Paired-Samples T Test for Pair 2

		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
					Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	score1 - score2	6.85972	1.59427	.26571	6.32030	7.39915	25.816	35	.000

Table 4-C. Paired-Samples T Test for Pair 3

		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
					Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	score1 - s2	2.55778	1.58280	.26380	2.02224	3.09332	9.696	35	.000

Here, the significant differences (2 tailed) are all 0.00, which is smaller than the confident level 0.025. Therefore, we can say that the Paired-Samples T test rejected H0 and in this way, the alternate

hypothesis is that there is a significant difference between the consecutive interpretation performance of the seniors majoring in English at CUST on passage with and without schemata in mind. Since we have already verified that schema is the only factor influencing the performance of subjects, the significant difference indicated by the hypothesis testing on the two samples can be attributed to the role of schema. Now we are confident to draw a conclusion that schema does play a significant role on subject's consecutive interpretation either from English to Chinese or from Chinese to English.

Conclusion

After the analyses we can draw the following conclusions: Linguistic, content, cultural, and formal schema all pose a great influence upon English-to-Chinese and Chinese-to-English interpretation, but the influence on the later is relatively weak. The effect of content and cultural schema on the subjects with extreme language proficiency levels (extremely good or very bad) – is trivial. Linguistic schema can shadow the negative effects due to the lack of related content schema in Chinese-English interpretation, which is far more significant than that in English-Chinese form. The subjects with schemata in their minds prefer to use top-down processing when interpreting passages, while those subjects who have no schemata are more likely to adopt bottom-up processing in their interpretation. The results of the experiments coincide with that of the theoretical analysis.

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The Strategy of Domestication and Foreignization Applied in the Translation of Academic Papers on Shamanism

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[Abstract] Domestication and foreignization are popular strategies that translators usually apply for their translating. There has been a heated debate over the proper translation strategy chosen for the transmission of different cultural contents. With the translating experience of the academic papers on Shamanism, the author tries discussing the appropriate application of domestication and foreignization for the translation of academic papers. Based on the translated work on Shamanism from English into Chinese, the author proposes that two principles should be taken in translating academic papers, foreignization first and domestication second, i.e., foreignization, the source-culture-oriented translation, is always used to preserve the foreign flavor as much as possible, while domestication, the target-culture-oriented translation, is sometimes used to make the translated work intelligible and easy for the target readers.

[Keywords] academic papers on Shamanism; foreignization; domestication

Introduction

Just as what Mr. Zhang Peiji says in his translation book “Translation is just how to use one language to express another language ideologically and accurately” (Zhang, 1983, p. 2). Therefore, translation is not only the conversion on language level, it is also the translators’ rewriting of the original on cultural level. It involves two or even more different cultural contexts between or among several cultures in many complex factors, such as different cultural factors, political factors, ideological factors, and other purposes. However, in translation, whether the translators should focus on foreignization or domestication is still a controversy question confusing translators home and abroad.

Foreignization focuses on the original culture, it requires the translator to move closer to the author, to adopt the primitive expressions to transfer the original content. While domestication focuses on the target language, it requires the translator to move closer to the target readers, to adopt the expressions accustomed by the readers to convey the source content. Generally speaking, domestication designates the type of translation in which a transparent, fluent style is adopted to minimize the strangeness of the foreign text for target language readers, while foreignization means a target text is produced which deliberately breaks target conventions by retaining something of the foreignness of the original (Shuttleworth & Cowie, 1997, p. 59).

Actually, in translating, whether we adopt foreignization or domestication should be based on different historical periods, different translation texts, different purposes and different languages. Sometimes, the former is the better choice, sometimes the latter is the better one, sometimes, we will take both.

Foreignization and Domestication

American scholar Lawrence Venuti criticized the fact that a translator is an invisible figure, in his seminal work, *The Translator’s Invisibility: A History of Translation*. He laid out his theory of foreignizing and domesticating translation, and claimed that legal and cultural constraints made it so “‘faithful rendition’ is

defined partly by the illusion of transparency”, such that foreignizing or experimental types of translation are “likely to encounter opposition from publishers and large segments of Anglophone readers who read for immediate intelligibility” (Venuti, 1995, p. 8). He believed that the purpose of translation was to express the differences in language and culture, but not to eliminate the differences. He felt that the most important quality for a translation and all traces of foreignness or alterity tended to be purposely erased alienation. Because of the differences between cultures, it will inevitably lead to the language and cultural differences between the language communities, thereby affecting the exchanges between languages. Venuti advocated domesticating translation; he proposed the “resistancy” and “minoritizing translation” concept.

In *The Translator's Invisibility: A History of Translation*, Norman Venuti cited Norman Shapiro’s words: “Translation is to be transparent, don't seem to be a translation. A good translation should be like a piece of glass; small flaws such as scratches and bubble will let you notice it's there. Of course, the ideal situation is that there is no defect. It should not focus on yourself.”(Venuti, 1995, p.305-306) This smooth and transparent translation will bring readers a faithful feeling; it is the highest realm pursued by translators. However, this fluent translation will eventually cover the translators’ subjective interpretation between the source text and the target one, the interaction process between the author and the translator will be hidden in the invisible, so the translators’ hard work will be completely hidden by the authority of the author, and it also can make many cultural and language differences. Venuti, therefore, put forward the resistancy strategy. On the one hand, to resist the mainstream theory of fluent translation and transparent aesthetic values, on the other hand, to resist the original, he agrees to adopt some additions on the source text, so that the main features of the original can be more distinctive.

Venuti offers us an example of how hegemony can be undermined from, and of how translation can become egalitarian, the act of linguistic and cultural “democratization”. So as the opposite of “foreignization”, Venuti presented the concept of “domestication”. In general, he did not agree with the views of domestication. A representative of domestication is Eugene Nida. In 1964, Nida put forward two equivalence forms of translation: formal equivalence and dynamic equivalence. Formal equivalence refers that the translation should follow the original form and content, while dynamic equivalence refers to seek the closest natural equivalent to the source-language message.

Nida believed, “translating is essentially a process of communication and this means that a translator must go beyond the lexical structures to consider the manner in which an intended audience is likely to understand a text, because so much depends on the underlying presuppositions of the respective source and target cultures” (Nida, 1982, p. 3). He also thought that each language has its own genius, therefore, the utility of comparative judgment of translation should not only stick to the meaning, grammatical categories and rhetorical devices, it is more essential to exploit the potentialities of the receptor language to the greatest possible extent. He favored the dynamic equivalence and believed that “rather than force the formal structure of one language upon another, the effective translator is quite prepared to make any and all formal changes necessary to reproduce the message in the distinctive structural forms of the receptor language” (Nida, 1982, p. 4).

Foreignization and Domestication Applied

Foreignization is to save the exotic feeling of the source language, i.e. the “Western style”; while domestication is to convert the source language in the usual way of the target language and cultural expression. In my opinion, since most of the Shamanism papers are the investigation, research and

evidence for the shamanistic phenomenon of a country or a region, foreignization is a better choice during translating, of course, sometimes literal domestication will be chosen.

Hence, how to correctly use domestication in the translation of academic papers, how to better reflect the author's thoughts and ideas, how to ensure the fluency and readability become a major problem.

Foreignization in the Translation of Academic Papers on Shamanism

Because foreignization reveals both deep meaning and surface meaning of the text, therefore, in order to show the academic and authoritative sides of the academic shamanistic papers in translation, foreignization should be mainly followed to express the writers' view. Let's see Daniela Berti's *The Comment of Shamanism Dance*. The main purpose of this paper is to interpret the five types of Shamanistic séance ceremony the author observed in a small village of the Bhojpuri region (eastern Nepal). While translating this paper from English into Chinese, I adopted foreignization strategy more than domestication, in an effort to ensure that Nepal shamanistic culture is preserved as much as possible.

Let's see the following examples which are taken from the academic paper that I have translated to show how foreignization strategy are applied to serve source language in the translation. The expression "hwan 'gap" can be translated with the corresponding Chinese expression "还甲", but it is still a little confusing, a further explanation can help Chinese readers understand it more culturally. So after it was translated into "还甲" (hwan 'gap), a note in Chinese was given: 一个庆祝六十甲子之年的日子 (an annual celebration to sixty years old).

One more example, "bān" is a Nepali word. Literally translated, the word means "heart darts" in English and "心灵飞镖" in Chinese. To preserve the cultural factor in the original and express the charming source language, the sentence was translated as the following: "与邪恶灵魂的交战, 吃掉女巫 (boksi) 所投的 bān (心灵飞镖)". However, domestication also works.

The word "trance", which can be translated as "出神" or "恍惚" or "昏迷" in Chinese, actually, all these words can express the mental state of a shaman in séances stage, however, in academic papers on shamanism, "出神" is not only consistent with the original conception of culture, but also in line with the mood of Chinese culture, and can better reflect the author's idea, therefore, "出神" was taken in the final translation for better holding what it originally means the source language.

Domestication in the Translation of Academic Papers on Shamanism

Objectively speaking, different translation strategies are applied for different academic papers according to writing purposes and cultural backgrounds. For being better understood by target readers, sometimes domestication strategy is a better choice. *Of Gods and Men: Performance, Possession, and Flirtation in Korean Shaman Ritual* is an academic article written by Laurel Kendall. Most of the field data contained in the article was gathered during Kendall's first field trip to Korea in 1977-1978, and a shorter visit in the fall of 1985. Therefore, several Chinese words were directly taken by the author in her English article, as the Korean culture is much influenced by the Chinese culture because of their special historical backgrounds and cultural relations between the two countries. In such a context, domestication strategy is more used than foreignization.

The following shamanistic terms show how the culture-loaded words were translated into Chinese. "Mansin" was translated into "萬神", "Taegam" into "大監", "Tano" into "端午", "mugam" into "巫感", "kisaeng" into "妓生", "sadang" into "寺当", "ye" into "礼", and "musok" into "巫俗", etc. By

translating these words from English or Korean directly into the corresponding Chinese characters, I hope that my translation can be better appreciated and comprehended by the target readers, the Chinese readers,

Here I would like to present one paragraph both in source language and target language to show how domestication strategy was used in my translating the article.

“The logic of the kisaeng entertainment that made a cup of wine a show of filial piety, since it was ‘mother's wine,’ recalled the logic of a shaman encouraging a country yangban to dance the mugam in honor of the founding ancestor of his local lineage, behavior usually considered antithetical to the yangban ethos and likely to make the ancestor roll over in his grave.

妓生们用一杯酒来表示孝道，因为这是 “妈妈的酒，他们这样的娱乐想法实际上与萨满的行为意识异曲同工。萨满让村民（yangban）跳木卡姆（mugam）舞来纪念他们的先祖，而如此行为却与村民的道德规范格格不入，甚至是伤风败俗。

In translating this paragraph, domestication strategy was taken for the sake of the Chinese readers. “logic” was translated into “想法” instead of “逻辑”；“recalled” into “异曲同工” instead of “回想”；“make the ancestor roll over in his grave” into “伤风败俗” instead of “使先祖感到不安”。

The Main Principles of Translation in Academic Papers on Shamanism

As for which strategy to adopt, to confine the translation to its original work or to translate with more freedom; to keep the “foreignness” or to become domesticated, actually, translators have to choose between them according to the purpose of their translation as well as how much they can achieve their purpose. To me, the best strategy is to apply the two strategies in one translation, even in one paragraph or one sentence so that a good communication can be obtained between SL authors and TL readers.

Foreignization Goes First

First, in order to ensure the academic accuracy of academic papers on Shamanism, in the process of translation we'd better try foreignization strategy. Foreignization can preserve and convey the cultural connotation and the exotic retention, which can make Chinese scholars understand the source culture better. But for those who are unfamiliar with the source language and culture, there will be certain understanding difficulties, which requires the translators try to improve their translating ability, at the same time, they should also try to follow second principles appropriately – moderate domestication.

Moderate Domestication

The purpose of translation is to better understand the author's writing purpose and writing contents of the source language, so the results of foreignization should not make the target language reader confused and puzzled. Sometimes there must be moderate domestication in order to make the translation more appropriate for the target language readers, and to provide a natural and smooth translation. But anyway, in the process of translation, we must honor the syntax and the specific words of the original language, and try to maintain the flavor of the source works. While translating, we should try not to leave any traces of the domestication, not to make the target language readers aware of the translator's processing

Conclusion

Xu Jianping suggests that in order to fulfill cross-cultural communication, foreignization should be used in English-Chinese translation with domestication as supplement, while in Chinese-English translation,

domestication should be used as much as possible. The reason is that an enormous group of Chinese readers eager to accept the foreign elements known of the foreign culture far more than foreign readers do about the Chinese culture (Xu, 2002, pp. 36-38). Although domestication in translation is more popular and preferred by most target readers and translation circles, as it more conforms, the target reads' taste and reading habits in political, historical, cultural, and conditions of the demand, it is respected by readers and a huge number of translators, but for the academic literature translation, especially for the academic shamanistic papers based on special purpose and use, I think foreignization should be taken first to show the differences between the cultures, to show the author's purpose and intent, to retain the authenticity.

Just as Mona Baker argued: how to identify whether the translation is foreignization or domestication depends on the cultural reconstruction of translation, because it is the translation that is produced and sold in this form. Foreignization or domestication only can be considered while people want to change the target language culture.

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