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Foreward

I am very privileged to be invited to attend the 4th Northeast Asia International Symposium on Language, Literature and Translation held in the mid-summer of 2015 in China’s Inner Mongolia Autonomous Region, where the vast grassland and exotic culture inherited from ancient time attracted over one hundred fifty scholars from all over China. The symposium and the academic discussions on linguistics, English teaching, literature, culture exchange and methods of translation are the reasons for the get-together.

I am very impressed with the contribution of these symposiums that began in 2012 to the foreign language teaching and learning and translations. As Prof. Duong Guan-Zhi stressed, it is very important to establish close ties and a network among colleagues and scholars using these academic platforms. On behalf of the Executive Council of Northeast Asia International Symposium on Language, Literature and Translation, he also called upon all the fellow colleagues to do more work for the cooperation of all nations in Northeast Asia.

I am also very excited to have an opportunity to exchange new ideas and theories with scholars in every aspect of translation, particularly young scholars like Dr. Lin Wei from University of Southern Queensland, Australia & Jinan University and Dr. Duan Lian from Concordia University, Canada.

Thus, it reminds me of Robert Frost, the great American poet who once asked in his poem *Mending Wall*, “What’s to be walled in and what’s to be walled out?” I think we can find the right answer in our discussions, which is to wall in understandings and friendship. In the early 20th century, there used to be an International Bloomsbury Culture Circle at Cambridge, which was frequently visited by many Chinese distinguished persons such as Xu Zhimo, a great poet of that time, Liang Shi-zheng, a famous architect of Chinese traditional magnificent buildings, and his wife Lin Huiyin, an out-standing female poet. I hope that our Symposium will be such a culture circle, embracing more newcomers and build a cultural bridge across Northeast Asia and extend out to the world.

Finally, I would like to express my sincere thanks to Inner Mongolia University for the Nationalities, the host of this Symposium. Thanks also go to Prof. Zhang Ju, Chairman of the Organizing Committee of the symposium, and Prof. Lu Guorong Dean of the School of Foreign Language of Inner Mongolia University for the Nationalities. They have a made great contributions to the success of the Symposium and future development of the Northeast Asia International Symposium on Language, Literature and Translation.

Professor Fan Yue
Chairman of the Executive Council of Northeast Asia International Symposium on Language, Literature and Translation, Liaoning, China
Professor, Liaoning University, Shenyang, China
Preface

Five years have passed since the First Northeast Asia International Symposium on Language, Literature and Translation was held in Dalian in 2010. Hereby, I would like to congratulate and express my sincere thanks to the Council of the Symposium for its contributions in accelerating the development of researches of English language, literature and translation in Northeast Asia. I would also like to express thanks for further promoting academic communication, exchange, coordination and cooperation between scholars in Northeast Asia and some other regions. Generally speaking, the Council has intelligently built an academic bridge for scholars, especially Chinese scholars, to gain discourse in English language research and teaching. The platform has provided a high-level dialogue for academic communication face-to-face, by bringing together scholars from all over China and abroad.

Encouraged by the outstanding organization of the first three symposiums, Inner Mongolia University for the Nationalities put all its strength in successfully hosting the Fourth Northeast Asia International Symposium on Language, Literature and Translation in Tongliao City, Inner Mongolia from July 24 to 26, 2015. In addition to the Chinese scholars, scholars from the United States, Canada, Australia and some other regions also merrily gathered in Tongliao City, also known as Grassland Pearl.

The Symposium welcomed several keynote speakers. Professor Fan Yue talked about Passion on Translating Poetry; Dr. Lin Wei, famous translator, presented Discourse Translation: An Analysis of C-E Translated Versions in the 26th Han Suyin Award for Young Translators; and Dr. Duan from Canadian Concordia University delivered From Translation Introduction to Theory Construction; At last Professor Yin Chengdong, vice-director of the Chinese Translation Association and former deputy chief of the Central Compilation and Translation Bureau of China contemplated on Translation in the World.

There were several more keynote speeches, and all of them brought attention to the participants to review translation studies, its theory and practices. Translation, as an academic interdiscipline, dealing with the systematic study of the theory, and the description and application of translation, interpreting and localization have not received enough attention in comparison with other disciplines. As Anna Bernacka pointed out, translators play the role of a mediator between cultures; they are “rather than merely supplanting one form of words for another, they have the capacity to enhance our understanding of development issues and indigenous cultures by mediating ideas across cultural and national boundaries.”

Over 150 academic papers were submitted, and 110 have been selected for inclusion in the conference proceedings. These authors conducted in-depth discussions on language teaching, literature, linguistics, rhetoric and guiding principles for translation between Chinese and English in their concerned areas. I believe, with the continuation of the Symposium, we will surely encourage more and more academic dialogues in the field, which is the main objectives of such events.

Professor Zhang Ju
School of Foreign Languages, Inner Mongolia University for the Nationalities, China
Chairman of the Fourth Northeast Asia International Symposium on Language, Literature and Translation, Tongliao, China
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An Investigation of Teachers’ Attitudes and Practices in Learner Autonomy
Runmei Zhai
Keynote Speech I
Discourse Translation: An Analysis of C-E Translated Versions in the 26th Han Suyin Award for Young Translators

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[Abstract] As the top translation competition in China, Han Sunyin Award for young translators provides good materials for theoretical analysis as well as an opportunity for selecting talents. Based on a developed model of discourse analysis, this paper attempts to carry out the practical work by linking theory with practice with special attention paid to the relations between faithfulness and smoothness, functional equivalence, so as to gain certain insights into discourse translation.

[Keywords] translation competition, discourse analysis, faithfulness, smoothness, discourse translation

Introduction
The Han Suyin Award for Young Translators was initiated by the Chinese Translators Journal in 1986. Nearly thirty years on, it has become a reputable competition of translation with the highest lever, longest history, the greatest influence, and the largest number of participants in China and overseas. A total of approximately one thousand people took part in the Chinese-English section in the last contest, and 55 of them won awards including first, second and third prizes and honorary mention. As one of the judges, this author attempts to analyze the participants’ versions in light of discourse analysis and translation.

Defining A New Model of Discourse Analysis
As the prerequisite of discourse translation, discourse analysis has derived from advances in text-linguistics in the broadest sense, enriching the study of translation by providing the necessary multidimensional comparisons for translation-oriented contrastive discourse-analysis, and has become a focus on the complexity of meaning and interpretation in communication. In Nida’s view, “Because translating always involves communication within the context of interpersonal relations, the model for such activity must be a communication model, and the principles must be primarily sociolinguistic in the broad sense of the term” (Nida, 1976. p. 78). Also, Mounin believed that translation as an act of cross-cultural communication had to be dealt in a wider socio-cultural context (Mounin, 1963, p. 3). House and Blum-Kulka view translation “as an interdisciplinary enterprise in the broad sense of studies in communication” (1986. p. 7) and Toury proposes a “cultural semiotic perspective” for studies on translation (1980. p. 4). However, insights from pragmatics on the intricacies of the interdependence between meaning and context have found their ways into linguistic theories of translation (e.g. Blum-Kulka, 1981; 1986; House and Blum-Kulka, 1986; Tirkonnen-Condit, 1985). According to the previous studies, a more comprehensive model of discourse analysis (MDA) has been developed in this paper as follows.

Internal Coherence
Semantic analysis → Syntactic analysis → Paragraphic analysis → Textural analysis
1) 2) 3) 4)
**External Coherence**

Based on this model, participants’ translated versions may be analyzed at different levels. In Paragraph [1], for instance, at the Level of (1) 1) (Semantic analysis), “中国人口、自然和历史地理”, the participants’ versions can be categorized into three groups: 1) Chinese population/population distribution, ecology/nature/natural environment/natural features, history/historical development and geography/geographical features; 2) demography/population distribution, nature and historical geography; 3) the dividing line of China in the fields of population geography, natural geography and historical geography, and so on.

At this level, the translations seem to be acceptable, however, a judgment of better accuracy of these translations has to move to Level (1) 2) (Syntactic analysis), particularly to Level (2) 2) (Interdisciplinary knowledge), where more specialized terms have to be chosen. For example, “人口” is not the general term “population”, but “demography”, which is explained as “to illustrate the changing structure of human populations” (*The New Oxford Dictionary of English*, 2012). Also, “自然地理” is not normal “natural geography”, as most laymen may think, but “physical geography”. Although “Chinese demographic, physical and historical geography” are acceptable, the preferred versions should be “Chinese demography, physical geography and geo-history”.

For “柱子” in Paragraph [2], most participants translated it into “pillars”, and semantically, it seems to be equivalent since it is “a tall vertical structure of stone, wood, or metal, used as a support for a building, or as an ornament or monument” (*Oxford Dictionaries*). However, when moving to the Level of (2) 3) (social cultural background), doing some archaeological research, one may find that the so-called “Roman Columns” are vertical, upright pillars; columns may provide support or simply be purely decorative. The lower portion of a column is called the base or stylobate. The middle section is called the shaft. The upper portion of a column is called the capital. The area which the column supports is called the entablature. This, therefore, should be the correct term to be employed here.

The sentence should be understood either as “每一种柱子的设计都是依照人体的比例” or “古罗马柱根据其所照依的不同人体比例可以分为不同类别”, and the former may be translated as “The design of columns was inspired by the proportional beauty of the human body / Its architecturally defining columns were built (designed) constructed in proportion to (different parts of) human bodies / Different components of a classical order were proportioned based on a human figure”; the latter as “Columns were classified (categorized) in accordance with the proportion of human body / Columns are categorized into five types resembling five different human body shapes according to their diameter-to-height ratio”, and so on. Both are acceptable. However, rendering “按人口比例划分” into “…according to population” is obviously a misunderstanding. The reference version could be “columns were designed in proportion to the human body”.

In fact, external and internal coherences are linked in one way or another. Typically, in the beginning of Paragraph [2], it could be extended in Chinese as “(早) 在古罗马… (发展) 到了文艺复兴时期…(然而在)今天的中国城市里…”, thus propositions and conjunctions should be added to the sentence: “As early as in ancient Rome… By the Renaissance… However, in today’s Chinese cities…”, making it coherent as a smooth discourse.
Meanwhile, for (到了文艺复兴时期) “人就是世界上最美好的尺度”， most participants used expressions as “…man was / became / was regarded as / came to be the best measure of…” which seem perfectly suitable in a normal sense. Considering at the Level (2) 3), more substantial terms could be chosen. The text is written in the background of the “Dark Ages”, a term sometimes applied to the period of the Middle Ages to mark the intellectual darkness characteristic of the time; it is often restricted to the early period of the Middle Ages, between the time of the fall of Rome and the appearance of vernacular written documents (Oxford English Dictionary, 2 ed., 2010). The term once characterized the bulk of the Middle Ages, or roughly the 6th to 13th centuries, as a period of intellectual darkness between extinguishing the “light of Rome” after the end of Late Antiquity, when many scientists were prosecuted and killed. It was not until the rise of the Italian Renaissance in the 15th century that human beings were respected and dignified as a unique creature on earth. In this regard, “celebrated”, a bit inflated word in a normal context, becomes perfectly adequate here, denoting “assign great social importance to something” (Webster’s International Dictionary, 2002), and the reference text is “…man was celebrated as the finest measure ever that had appeared in the world”, which is the result of the combination of both coherences (1) and (2).

In the last Paragraph [5], “也许到了这一天，我们才能真正说，城市让生活更美好”, typical participants’ versions included: Perhaps until that very day, we can honestly say that cities better our life / Maybe only on that day can we truly say that cities make for a better life / Perhaps only when that day comes, can we truly say that better cities make better life, and so on. In a normal context, these are all acceptable translations, however, they are not quite up to the contextual point considering the theme of Shanghai Expo 2010 – “Better city, better life”, which is well-known to the world. A better version may be, “Not until then, can we honestly claim the theme of Shanghai Expo: ‘Better city, better life’”. Clearly, how to adequately define the scope of discourse structure in a translation sometimes very much determines the quality of its version.

**Faithfulness and Smoothness Based on Discourse Analysis**

In China’s translation field, the issue of relations between faithfulness and smoothness has long been controversial. In 1897, the well-known translator Yan Fu (1854-1921) proposed a “three-words-criteria” of translation: “In translation, there are three difficulties, namely faithfulness, expressiveness and elegance”. And in the practice of translating Huxley’s works, he concluded that faithfulness is the first thing in wording.

Furthermore, Yan maintained that translation must express the profound meaning of the original text, and it is difficult enough to achieve faithfulness, let alone expressiveness. However, mere faithfulness will not work. Besides, elegance has to be in place, in addition to faithfulness and expressiveness, so that the translation works far and wide. This is very much in line with the Confucius’ saying, “What speech requires is expressiveness; language without literary grace cannot go far and wide.”

Lu Xun (1881-1936), a well-known writer, who was acclaimed as the first translation theorist in modern China, proposed the idea that it is desirable in translation “rather to be faithful than fluent” (宁信而不顺). In his translation practice, Lu Xun borrowed heavily from foreign expressions and structures, contradicting the strategy of fluent translation. In doing so, he explored the possibility of enriching the Chinese language. However, the result was not as desirable as he expected in terms of readability. As Lefevere pointed out, those conservative translators “may arguably be said to remain much more ‘faithfulness’ to that original than their colleagues who remain tied to the word and do not see the
function of that word within the totality of the scene, or even the whole text” (2004, p. 55). However, the conservative translators ignore “the level of the culture as a whole, and of the functioning of the text in that culture” (Lefevere, 2004, p. 51).

Liang Shiqiu (1902-1987), another famous Chinese translator, thus severely criticized Lu Xun’s translation theory by labeling his translation as “rigid” and “dead versions”. However, Lu Xun later published his well-known essay titled “Rigid translation and the nature of literature”, explaining, “Since the Chinese language is too vague to express precise ideas and items, it is therefore necessary to incorporate foreign linguistic features as well as its ancient heritages into the modern Chinese language.”

The debate over the controversial issue of faithfulness and smoothness, in fact, has not ever been settled. In this translation contest, the balance between faithfulness and smoothness is also reflected in discourse analysis and renditions. In Paragraph [1], for example, “沿着瑷珲—腾冲线, 这条 1935 年由胡焕庸先生发现并命名的中国人口, 自然和历史地理的分界线, 我们看到, 从远距离贸易发展开始的那一天起, 利益和权力的渗透与分散, 已经从根本上改变了城市的状态: 城市在膨胀, 人在疏离”, typical participants’ versions were: Along the Aihui-Tengchong Line, a dividing line of China’s demographic, physical and historical geography discovered and named by Hu Huanyong in 1935, a great Chinese geographer, we can see that ever since the beginning of long-distance trade, the penetration of interests and the decentralization of power have brought about fundamental changes to the city. While it keeps expanding, people are being alienated from it. Along the Aihui-Tengchong Line, the demarcation line of China’s demographic, physical and historical geography discovered and named by Hu Huanyong in 1935, we can see fundamentally changed cities since the beginning of long-distance trade. They have been expanding while people have been increasingly estranged, as a result of the infiltration of interests and decentralization of power, and so on.

The problems reflected in these translations mainly lie in the lack of coherence at the Level of (2) 4) (mode of thinking): Following the line – named by… the change (nature) – the consequence (phenomenon) – when (timing) – caused by (reason). Putting all the elements into a holistic picture, a reference version may be as follows: “Following the Aihui–Tengchong line, a demarcation line of Chinese demography, physical geography and historical geography, discovered and named by Mr. Hu Huanyong (1901-1998) in 1935, it is not hard for us to realize that our cities have been fundamentally transformed (nature – note) – as urban areas expand their people become increasingly alienated (phenomenon – note) – ever since distant commercial trade began (timing – note), owing to the permeation and dispersion of interests and power (reason – note). The nature (cities have been fundamentally transformed) is being promoted and the phenomenon and adverbial modifiers become subsequential.

In Paragraph [2], “今天的中国城市里，裁弯取直的河渠, 向四面八方扩张的交通, 膨胀硕大的以便于接纳更多商业行为的城市广场与建筑立面，都在告诉人们建设背后的权力与资本才是审美标准,” most participants followed the original too closely, resulting in a certain kind of Chinglish structure, such as: In Chinese cities now, straightened windy rivers, sprawling roads and streets, huge city squares and buildings for more business activities, tell us that the standard of beauty is of the power and capital behind them. / In today’s Chinese cities, the straightened windy rivers, sprawling roads and streets, and expanded squares and buildings for more commercial activities are all telling people that the power and capital behind them have become the very measure of beauty, and so on. In fact, the point is “the aesthetic values of construction are judged by power and capital behind the projects”, and the phenomena are “…the shortcut rivers, widespread traffic arteries, commercially constructed all-inclusive squares or
shapes of buildings”, therefore, it preferably may be translated as follows: “In today’s Chinese cities, however, the aesthetic values of construction are judged by power and capital behind the projects – the shortcut rivers, widespread traffic arteries, commercially constructed all-inclusive squares or shapes of buildings – all reveal the same truth.” The key words are “judged” and “reveal”, which become prominent by basing them on the integral discourse analysis.

The Specified Functional Equivalence in Light of Discourse
Concerning “function” in translation, there are many assertions provided by well-known translators. Typically, “The central problem of translation practice is that of finding TL translation equivalents. A central task of translation theory is that of defining the nature and conditions of translation equivalence” (Catford, 1965, p. 21). Although Catford’s theory contributes greatly to the building of a more scientific and systematic translation theory from the linguistic approach, one defect can be easily found which is the failure of touching upon the cultural factors involved. As Peter Newmark commented, “Catford gives a list of words that are grammatically singular in one language and plural in another, he maybe helping the student to translate, he is illustrating contrastive linguistics, but he is not contributing to translation theory” (Newmark, 2001, p. 19). Mary Snell-Hornby was more blunt by remarking, “Catford’s approach is now generally considered dated and of mere historical interest” (Snell-Hornby, 2001, p. 15).

From the perspective of the communicative nature of language, as well as based on Chomsky’s generative-transformational grammar, Eugene Nida developed his theory of translation, popularly known initially as “dynamic equivalence”. “Dynamic equivalence could be stated as the readers of a translated text should be able to understand and appreciate it in essentially the same manner as the original readers did” (Nida, 2001, p. 86). Later, he changes “dynamic equivalence” into “functional equivalence” to avoid misunderstanding.

Nida’s theory of “functional equivalence” can be viewed in terms of a comparison of the way in which the original receptors understand and appreciate the original text, with special emphasis on the reader’s response, marking a significant shift from the comparison of SL and TL to the two communication processes involved.

However, a more comprehensive “structure of equivalence” can be found in Popovic’s theory, which in some aspects, coincided with the model of discourse analysis discussed in the first section of this paper:

- Linguistic equivalence, where there is homogeneity on the linguistic level of both SL and TL texts, i.e. word for word translation, which falls into the category of (1) 1) (semantic analysis), 2) (syntactic analysis) of MDA;
- Paradigmatic equivalence, where there is equivalence of “the elements of a paradigmatic expressive axis”, i.e. elements of grammar, which Popovic sees as being a higher category than lexical equivalence, which has something to with (1) 3) (paraphric analysis), (2) 1) (linguistic vocabularies) of MDA;
- Stylistic (translational) equivalence, which is “functional equivalence of elements in both original and translation aiming at an expressive identity with an invariant of identical meaning”, and is similar to (2) 4) (mode of thinking) of MDA, or it is called the extra-linguistic content;
- Textual (syntagmatic) equivalence, where there is equivalence of the syntagmatic structuring of a text, i.e. equivalence function of form and shape. (Susan Bassnett, 2004: P32), which is very
much correlated to (1) 4) (textual analysis) and (2) 2) (interdisciplinary knowledge) and 3) (socio-cultural background) of MDA. In fact it may also borrow the term of “denotative equivalence” used by Mary Snell-Hornby (2001, p. 15).

In light of the revised outlook of equivalence, certain special variations may be found in this translation contest. For example, in Paragraph [4], “城市大了，人小了”, some translated it as “Cities grow larger, whereas people’s roles grow smaller”, which is seemingly oversimplified; others presented “City’s expansion has swallowed the resident’s sense of belonging”, which has deviated a bit too from the original, or “City is on the expansion, yet the importance attached to humanity is on the shrinkage”, which seems to be verbose.

Followed by “人们和他们的城市息息相关而又格格不入”, which has been translated by many as: “People and their cities are inseparable and yet so incongruous with each other / Though bound to the city anytime anywhere, we still fail to see ourselves as “insiders” / Men are closely related to, yet completely incompatible with their cities / People are closely bound up with their cities, but nowadays, they are feeling like square pegs in round holes”, and so on. These versions should not be judged as being wrong, but nor are they perfectly adequate, since they are somehow functionally mismatched in light of discourse outlook.

More specifically, in translating “人小了”, “dwarf” may be considered, which denotes “cause to seem small or insignificant in comparison” (The New Oxford Dictionary of English, 2012). If something dwarfs a person or object, it is a lot bigger than the object and makes it look very small (Collins Cobuld English Dictionary, 1999). A similar case is “如今的商业大厦使得城市的学校相形见绌” (Commercial buildings are now beginning to dwarf the city schools), or his figure is dwarfed by the huge red McDonald's sign (他的个子被巨大的红色麦当劳招牌衬得格外矮小), and so on.

Concerning “息息相关” and “格格不入”, a sense of “physical” and “emotional” may be considered. Physical: relating to things perceived through the senses as opposed to the mind; tangible or concrete; Emotion: a strong feeling deriving from one’s circumstances, mood, or relationships with others (The New Oxford Dictionary of English, 2012). Similar instances: “I consider women a great deal superior to men. Men are physically strong, but women are emotionally better... It is women who keeps the world in balance” (我认为女人远比男人强: 男人体力健壮, 而女人情感更佳... ...是女人使世界有了平衡); “有时, 孩子人是离了家，情感上却无法与父母分开” (Sometimes, the child is able to leave physically, but not emotionally); “他们虽分开了，却藕断丝连” (They separated physically already, but not emotionally); “不像中医, 西医是只管病症而不管情绪的” (Unlike traditional Chinese medicine, Western Medicine only treats patients physically, but not emotionally).

Therefore, the reference version may be provided as “Cities’ expansion has certainly dwarfed their dwellers, who are physically, but not necessarily emotionally related to their urban environment”. Clearly, in view of the context, the emphasis is given to emotional side of the text.

In Paragraph [4], “我们年复一年不是真正地生活着，而是间接地生活着，远离内在的本性,” in trying to differentiate between “真正地生活着” and “间接地生活着”, participants adopted different techniques, typically, “Thus, we are not, year after year, living a true life, but an indirect one. / So we never truly live, year in and year out. Instead, we are living an unfulfilled life. / Therefore, we don’t live as our real self year after year. Instead, we live in an indirect way” and so on. However, they are not quite equivalent to the original. Sticking to the linguistic meaning, we may ask this question for a moment, “What is ‘indirect life’? Is there such thing as ‘direct life’?” This may mislead the reader. An idea of
“external coherence” has to be employed here, namely considering its meaning at the Level of (2) 3) (socio-cultural background) and 4) (mode of thinking) of MDA.

The word “unfulfilled”, for example, means “not having fully utilized or exploited one’s abilities or character; unfulfilled life”, such as “There are other forces that can drive your life but all lead to the same dead end: unused potential, unnecessary stress, and an unfulfilled life (其他还有许多动力会驾驭你的人生，但这些全部导向一个死胡同 — 埋没了的潜能, 不必要的压力和失落的人生), clearly the term used here is overstated.

In terms of “external coherence” (or “denotative equivalence”), American pop star Michael Jackson’s lyrics may be taken as good reference in Heal the World: “We stop existing / And start living”; also in the Bible, it states, “If you haven’t known the purpose of life, you aren’t truly living; you’re merely existing”. Similar cases can be found in English-Chinese Dictionary of the 21st Century: “She’s not living, she's merely existing”. Therefore, the reference version may be as follows: “Year in and year out, we are not really living in our cities but existing there, being alienated from human nature…”

In the last paragraph, ([5]), (让人欣慰的是) “大家都没有忘记要生活这件事”，which is another intricacy for translators, typical translations were: “everyone doesn’t forget to live / people haven’t forgotten they still have a life to live / what remains in us is the desire to live a better life / nobody has forgotten that we are born to live / it is reassuring that we have not forgotten our basic task of living” and so on. The question is: What does it mean by “people haven’t forgotten to live”? In other words, can peoples’ daily lives be forgotten? Obviously, the translated version is very much confined to the internal-linguistic scope, and it is necessary to move to the level of MDA (2) 4) (mode of thinking). To this end, the preferred version may be “…their basic necessities remain – no mater what, life has to move on”.

**Conclusion**

In analyzing practical translations, various theories and techniques may be employed. Combining theory and practice, however, has been deemed as an effective way of achieving ideal results. Based on certain previous theories of discourse analysis and translation, a new model of discourse analysis (MDA) in this paper was developed, in which semantic analysis, syntactic analysis, paragraphic analysis and textural analysis (Internal coherence), as well as linguistic vocabularies, interdisciplinary knowledge, socio-cultural background and mode of thinking (External coherence) are all structured in their prospective functions. The relation between “faithfulness” and “smoothness”, long a controversial and delicate issue in the translation field of China, has been further explored as part of functional equivalence in some concrete analyses of Chinese-English translated versions of entries in the 26th Han Suyin Award for Young Translators.

**References**


Keynote Speech II
A Review of Systemic Functional Translation Studies from an Interpersonal Perspective

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Abstract Since the 1990s, discourse analysis has been frequently applied to translation studies. As one resource of discourse analysis, Systemic Functional Linguistics (henceforth SFL) can be applied to analyze both the original text and the translated text. Following this approach, both texts are compared at the sociological, semiotic, generic, registerial, discoursal, and lexicogrammatical levels by adopting a top-down process. The applicability of Halliday’s (e.g. 1985) linguistic framework has then been widely recognized. In this paper, we will restrict the topic to one aspect only, i.e. the interpersonal metafunction. We first summarize the development of SFL and its integration with translation studies. Then, some key terms in the grammar of interaction, such as Mood, Subject, Finite, and Modality, etc., will be explained. Some of the existing studies related to the interpersonal metafunction on translation studies are also reviewed. These studies have generated new insights into the translation of interpersonal choices, such as meaning potential during the translation of mood type, polarity and modality, which translators may not be aware of during the translation process. The major contributions in this aspect would be summarized, with suggestions of future research addressed.

Keywords Systemic Functional Linguistics; interpersonal metafunction; Mood; Modality; translation studies

Introduction
Translation studies could be divided into pure and applied branches (Holmes, 1988), with Theoretical and Descriptive Translation Studies under the category of Pure Translation Studies. Among the two, Descriptive Translation Studies is illustrated as an empirical, systematic, and controlled discipline, which describes, explains, and predicts phenomena, as well as carries out “studies into well-defined corpuses, or sets of problems, constitutes the best means of testing, refuting, and especially modifying and amending the very theory” (Toury, 1995, p. 1).

Systemic Functional Linguistics, as its name suggests, is a sub-discipline of linguistics, which provides different models and tools for analyzing all human languages. According to Teich (2003, p. 37), the general representational categories for linguistic description used in SFL are “metafunction, stratification, axis, rank and delicacy”. As to the concept of metafunction, three major components are defined – the ideational, the interpersonal and the textual metafunction. The ideational metafunction

2 In SFL, translation and interpreting studies are examined in the field of multilingual studies. According to Matthiessen (2009), Systemic Functional Translation Studies (SFTS) view “language as behaviour”. It is not a new direction in SFL, but is now developing at a rapid rate. The term SFTS is recognized in the literature and is used in studies like Matthiessen (2009), Vasconcellos (2009), Espindola (2010), and Wang Yan (2015), etc.
includes logical and experiential mode. In the logical mode, “our experience of the world is construed serially as chains of phenomena related by logico-semantic relationships” (Matthiessen, Teruya, & Lam, 2010, p. 132). While in the experiential mode, language resources are provided “for construing our experience of the world around us and inside us as meaning” (Matthiessen, Teruya, & Lam, 2010, p. 92). The second metafunction, i.e. the interpersonal metafunction sees language as “a resource for enacting roles and relations between speaker and addressees as meaning” (Matthiessen, Teruya, & Lam, 2010, p. 126). It is a combination of conative and expressive functions by Bühler, and corresponds to the tenor system. The last metafunction – the textual metafunction is the enabling metafunction, “which provides the resources for presenting ideational and interpersonal meaning as a flow of information in text unfolding in its context” (Matthiessen, Teruya, & Lam, 2010, p. 220).

Kim and Matthiessen (forthcoming), as well as Wang (2014), have reviewed studies from an SFL perspective that investigate thematic progression in translation, which involves the textual metafunction in SFL. Similarly, the current paper aims to conduct a review on the studies that explore translation choices from the interpersonal perspective. On writing such a review, features in making translation choices in interpersonal aspects, and strategies helping translators making choices on micro-levels of language are expected to be found.

The Interpersonal Metafunction

MOOD and MODALITY are the major systems within the interpersonal metafunction. In the system of MOOD (see Figure 1), all major clauses could make its Mood selection, so as to realize its speech function. As Figure 1 shows, a major clause may choose to be indicative or imperative. If it is indicative, it could be either declarative or interrogative. If it is interrogative, it can be further refined into yes/no interrogative and WH-interrogative types.

Figure 1. The System Network of MOOD (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014, p. 24)

In the system of MOOD, speakers, writers, or audiences are involved in an interactive event. When a speaker adopts a certain speech role, he meanwhile assigns a complementary role to the listener. The two basic types of speech roles are giving and demanding. In addition, there is another fundamental distinction of the interaction, i.e. the nature of the commodities being exchanged, whether it is goods-&-services or information. When conflating speech roles with the commodity exchanged, we have four basic speech functions, namely offer, statement, command and question. The giving of goods-&-services has
been realized as an “offer”, while the giving of information is a “statement”. Meanwhile, the demanding of goods-&-services has been realized as a “command”, and the demand of information is a “question”.

Mood is composed of Subject and Finite. “The Subject is the element in terms of which the clause can be negotiated”, while “the Finite makes a clause negotiable by coding it as positive or negative in polarity and by grounding it, either in terms of time (it is/it isn’t; it was/it wasn’t; it will/it won’t) or in terms of modality (it may/it will/it must, etc.)” (Martin, Matthiessen & Painter, 2010, p. 61). At the same time, there is Modal Adjunct which adds “meaning related to the Mood element: polarity and modality (e.g. perhaps, probably, certainly), temporality (e.g. already, soon, yet) and intensity (e.g. degree: hardly, quite, almost, totally, utterly: counterexpectancy: even, actually, just, simply, merely, only)” (Martin, Matthiessen & Painter, 2010, p. 61).

“The Subject supplies the rest of what it takes to form a proposition: namely, something by reference to which the proposition can be affirmed or denied” (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p. 117). The Subject has an interpersonal function in that it is seen as “the first instance” from a dialogue rather than a monologue. It has a “modal responsibility”, which can be reflected in imperative clauses, in which an implicit Subject “you” has been included, as in “(You) Do not discuss affairs of state.” The “modal responsibility” could also be seen in modulated indicative clauses like: “You wouldn’t understand.”

There are other elements out of the Mood structure, i.e. Residue. A Residue is made up of Predicator, Complement and Adjunct, with the Predicator being the non-Finite part of the verbal group, the Complement normally a nominal group, and the Adjunct adverbial or prepositional group. Besides the system of MOOD, there are other systems when discussing clause as exchange, such as POLARITY and MODALITY (see Figure 2). Systems of POLARITY and MODALITY are both realized by Mood elements, either by Finite or a separate mood Adjunct. POLARITY refers to the system of “positive” or “negative”. It is “the resource for assessing the arguability value of a clause: yes or no – the validity of a proposition (it is/it isn’t) or the actualization of a proposal (do/don’t)” (Matthiessen, Teruya & Lam, 2010, p. 161). MODALITY refers to “the speaker’s judgment, or request of the judgment of the listener, on the status of what is being said” (Halliday and Matthiessen, 2014, p. 172). There are four main kinds of modality: probability, usuality, obligation, and readiness. Probability and usuality are referred as modalization, while obligation and readiness are referred to as modulation.

Systemic Functional Translation Studies from an Interpersonal Perspective
Since the turn of the 20th century, some scholars have begun to investigate translation from an interpersonal perspective (e.g. Teich, 1999; Huang, 2002, 2006; Lavid, 2000; Wang, 2004, 2007, 2008; Munday, 2012). For example, Huang Guowen (2002, 2006) analyzes Chinese classical poems based on the interpersonal metafunction. His analysis focuses on the following seven aspects: mood, question and response, vocatives, the questioner, the relationship between questioner and by-passer, speaker/listener relationship. In terms of Mood, different translators may translate the source text (ST) into different Mood according to their own understandings and choices. Other minor variations of different translations are analyzed. He confirms that SFL has rendered a clear identification of personal relationship and more accurate understanding and translation of the Chinese ST.
Studies on the influence of age and gender on the translation of “could” by means of adopting SFL modality system, WordSmith Tools, and SPSS have been conducted by Wang Peng (2004, 2007, 2008). One of the aims of his studies is to find out whether the influence of age and gender on modal auxiliary “could” remains constant in the Chinese translation of *Harry Potter*. A computer analysis of a corpus (made up of both English and Chinese versions of the *Harry Potter* series) shows that the single Mood type realized by “could” can be translated into different types of Modality, i.e. possibility, inclination, obligation, and usuality. Frequencies of utterances marked by different types of modality are calculated and related to the gender or age of characters. He concludes that the absence of meaning of usuality by “could” in ST is contrasted with its existence in Chinese translation. This added layer of meaning may be implicit in ST, but is presented in TT, which facilitates the contextual meaning and coherence of the TT. Another finding of the study is that one mood type in ST may be translated into another in the TT, due to diverse connotations of “could”. In terms of the influence of gender and age on the use of “could”, female characters tend to use it to express uncertainty and readiness, while male characters tend to express permission and obligations, and young speakers may adopt less obligation while producing the utterance. In the Chinese translation, adult characters tend to use modal operators or modal Adjuncts, while young characters would use more simple and direct grammar. However, this case of the above features in Chinese translation is not statistically significant. Hence, the study calls for translators’ awareness of the influence of age and gender in TT, which may be beneficial for a more exact equivalence to ST.

Although the studies reviewed above may be limited in number, they have somehow offered a new approach to translation studies. These text-based comparative studies may apply different systems in the interpersonal metafunction to examine texts of different kinds, thus “shedding light on questions of axiology, heteroglossia and reading position” (Matthiessen, 2014, p. 309).
Comprehensive Frameworks Involving the Interpersonal Metafunction

Various scholars have proposed their frameworks based on SFL to analyze the source text and the target text. However, their frameworks have different concentrations. Bell (1991) offer a comprehensive picture on SFL-based TS by building up a model of the translation process, integrating Field, Tenor and Mode (each corresponds with experiential, interpersonal and textual metafunction) with the translation process. What is also prominent in his book is his detailed elaboration of the three SFL metafunctions on the lexical/syntactic, logical/grammatical/rhetoric, or on the textual/discoursal levels. His elaboration helps us to understand translation beyond the linguistic layers, and his framework could build up a more systematic understanding of the ST, and hence a more stylistic TT.

Compared to Bell’s (1991) comprehensive account, Hatim and Mason (1990) focus more on the ideational and interpersonal metafunctions instead of the textual metafunction. They see a match/mismatch between ST and TT, and explain this match/mismatch from both the perspective of systemic functional and that of translation theories. Their model of translation adopts a top-down approach that starts from text-type and context for discussing translation issues and strategies. It differs from other theories in their application of Halliday’s social semiotic, cultural and ideological theories in translation studies. While another interesting point is their integration of linguistic theories (e.g. pragmatics, semiotics, textuality, coherence), cultural theories (socio-cultural and socio-textual practice) with translation studies, thus reflecting the social-semiotic feature of language.

Hatim and Mason (1990) recognize that there is translation diversity around the world, which provides us a detailed account of various parameters relating to Field, Tenor and Mode. From the aspect of Field, the language user realizes ideational meaning by making choices in such aspect as transitivity. On the layer of Tenor, choices centering on mood, modality, and tense, etc., are made to realize the interpersonal metafunction, and at last, the textual metafunction is realized by choices made about coherence and intertextuality. Above all, Hatim and Mason (1990) create a model for analyzing text based on SFL and discuss its application in translator training and translation quality assessment.

Zhu (1993, 1996, 2008) reiterates the importance of textual comparison in TS, and by drawing on Halliday’s (e.g. 1985) SFL theory and the speech act theory proposed by Austin (1975), he puts forward a three-dimensional model called Structure of Meaning (SOM). He states that “the systemic functional model provides us with an insight into the mechanism of text creation in relation to language user, communication and situation, while the concept of speech act draws our attention to the illocutionary force and the perlocutionary effect of a text in actual communication, both models hinge on a three-dimensional perception of text and text creation” (Zhu, 1996, p. 345). SOM is a three-dimensional framework, they are linguistic compositions of a text, which emphasize lexicogrammatical, phonological and graphological patterning, interactional dynamic, on which dimension, language becomes interaction, exchange of meaning, bearer of social values, and aesthetic impact, whose center “has shifted to information manipulation by textual means” (Zhu, 1996, p. 347).

Matthiessen (2001, 2014) views translation as recreation of meaning in context through choice. Translators make choices both during the interpretation process of the ST and in the recreation process of the TT about different meaning potentials. “In terms of interpersonal meaning, translators choose how to interpret propositions, proposals and the assessments associated with them in the exchange of meaning embodied in the source text, and they choose among the options in the target language to re-enact the interpersonal meanings in the translation they are producing” (Matthiessen, 2014, p. 277). What is more, both the environment of the ST and the TT could influence the choices made by translators. Translation
equivalence and translation shift are illustrated with a cline by Matthiessen (2014), according to which “choices in one metafunction may be closer to the translation equivalence pole of the cline, while choices in another may be closer to the shift pole of the cline. Translation involves trade-offs in choices across the metafunctional spectrum” (Matthiessen, 2014, p. 279). Meanwhile, different types of metafunctional shifts are summarized in the Matrix of metafunctional translation shifts (see Matthiessen, 2014, p. 284), but there is only one type of translation shift in terms of interpersonal metafunction, i.e. from interpersonal to interpersonal, such as shift in mood type.

**Conclusion**

The current study is a review of Systemic Functional Translation Studies that investigate translation from an interpersonal perspective based on a brief introduction to the interpersonal metafunction within the overall SFL theory. Several translation studies from the interpersonal perspective have been reviewed, while some comprehensive frameworks are delineated. They have shed some light on translation studies and would strengthen the descriptive branch of translation studies. Some implications are found from the review. First, the frameworks of SFTS have a tendency of becoming increasingly comprehensive, by means of involving all three metafunctions or stratifying along the stratification dimensions. Second, studies involving translation shift in interpersonal metafunction are rather limited in quantity – more studies need to be done in this respect. Third, the constant features in cross-language variations need to be studied for facilitating systematic translation. Fourth, apart from the descriptive branch in translation studies, it would be beneficial for translators to acquaint with the developments in SFL theories, so as to make more systematic micro-level choices in their translation, to realize the intended function of the translated texts, and to reflect the potential sociocultural meaning.

**References**


A Critical Discourse Analysis of Ideational Functions in the Speech

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[Abstract] Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) first appeared in the 1980s and is widely used by western linguists to study political speeches for finding the hidden relationships between ideology and language power that reveal the speakers’ political purpose. Concerning Mrs. Obama’s influential role of being an American cultural icon and the First Lady of the United States, the study further explores her extraordinary linguistic strategies in giving speeches and reveals the hidden power of her speeches, by applying CDA theories.

[Keywords] CDA; political speeches; power; ideology

Introduction
Michelle LaVaughn Robinson Obama is an American lawyer, a writer, as well as the wife of the current President of the United States. As the First Lady of the United States, she has advocated for her husband’s priorities and also advocated public service. Michelle Obama has become an icon of popular American culture. Essence listed her among the “25 of the World’s Most Inspiring Women” in 2006. Vanity Fair listed her among the “10 of the World’s Best Dressed people” in 2007 and 2008. Also in 2007, 02138 magazine listed her 58th of ‘The Harvard 100’, which is a list of the prior year’s most influential Harvard alumni. She is an eye-catching public figure and is closely associated with the U.S. president and politics. Her speeches are always quoted as an essential part in Mr. Obama’s winning of the presidential election.

In this study, CDA (Critical Discourse Analysis) theories are applied to study the ideational functions of Mrs. Obama’s speeches with the aim of analyzing the linguistic strategies she utilized in constructing a persuasive political speech.

The Essentials of CDA
As van Dijk states, CDA is a type of discourse analytical research that primarily studies the way social power abuse, dominance, and inequality are enacted, reproduced and resisted by text and talk in the social and political context (van Dijk, 2001, p. 352). CDA is an approach in revealing hidden relationships among discourse, ideology, and power through analysis of linguistic and pragmatic features of speeches. CDA aims to reveal the power of discourse and how discourse conceals and constructs ideology.

Representatives (Fairclough, 1995; van Dijk, 1998; Wodak, 1996) summarized the major principles of CDA as inferring discourse as a form of social practice which not only represents and signifies other social practices, but also constitutes other social practices such as the exercise of power, domination, prejudice, resistance and so forth. Through discursive practices originating in conscious or unconscious
interests and aims, power relations are constructed, implemented and reconstructed in specific social, cultural and ideological contexts, time and space.

CDA is an interdisciplinary approach to view language as three-dimensional and to study language as a social practice with the purpose to reveal dialectical connections among the power of language, social behaviors and social structures. Therefore, Halliday’s SFG (Systemic-Functional Grammar) with its theoretical base which regards language as multi-functional are always applied as theoretical foundations and methodologies of CDA (2000, p. 106)).

Halliday’s Systemic-Functional Grammar (SFG)
SFG views language as multi-dimensional texts, which represent experience, imply social relations, and reveal textual construction processes. The ideational function is more likely to show the internal and external world of the speaker (Halliday, 2000). From the SFG perspective, the ideational function is mainly analyzed through means of transitivity and transformation, in this study. Two speeches that Mrs. Obama gave at the National Democratic Convention in 2008 and 2012, have been selected to be analyzed with the main purpose to figure out her extinguished linguistic strategies in constructing speeches and how her actual experience of the presidential election is concealed in her speeches.

Theoretical Backgrounds

Transitivity
Transitivity “construes the world of experience into a manageable set of processes” (Halliday, 2000, p. 106). The process demonstrates the procedures of constructing discourse or text, making choices and carrying out ideational functions, which are the process itself, the participants in the process, and the circumstances associated with the process. “In terms of whether they represent action, speech, state of mind of being, these process can be divided into six types in transitivity” (Halliday, 2000, p. 107). The six processes, namely material, mental, relational, behavioral, verbal and existential, can be demonstrated in the following paradigm:

- Material process: +Actor; (+Goal) (+Range) (+Beneficiary)
- Mental process: +Senser; +Phenomenon
- Verbal process: +Sayer; (+Receiver) (+Verbiage)
- Behavioral process: H-Behaver; (+Behavior) (+Phenomenon)
- Existential process: H-Existent
- Relational process: Identifying: +Token; +Value
- Attribute: +Carrier; + Attribute

(Egginns, 1994)

Transformation
From a syntactic perspective, transformation refers to passivization and nominalization in CDA. Passivization is the syntactic structure in which the direct object of the active voice is moved to the subject position. An agent can be deleted in passivization, which means the real behaver is concealed in the syntactic variation. The choice of passivization may be either purposeful or natural. Nominalization is the process of converting some common syntactic forms into a noun or a multi-word or a compound noun. Within this process, participants, tense and modality can be deleted. Normalization can provide
more information for readers and audiences to figure out. It has the function of arousing interests of readers and audiences, and concealing some facts consciously or unconsciously.

**Results and Discussion**

*An Analysis of Transitivity*

Transitivity has six types of processes: material process, mental process, relational process, verbal process, behavioral process and existential process. In the study, each clause in Mrs. Obama’s speeches is analyzed from four aspects: the type of clause, the number of participants required, duties of the participants and the existence of the circumstantial element. Research results are shown in Tables 1 and 2.

**Table 1. The Frequency of Transitivity in Mrs. Obama’s DNC Speech in 2008**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Types of Processes</th>
<th>Material</th>
<th>Mental</th>
<th>Relational</th>
<th>Verbal</th>
<th>Behavioral</th>
<th>Existential</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>48%</td>
<td>18%</td>
<td>28%</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Types of Processes</th>
<th>Material</th>
<th>Mental</th>
<th>Relational</th>
<th>Verbal</th>
<th>Behavioral</th>
<th>Existential</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number</td>
<td>145</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>24%</td>
<td>18%</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the tables above, we can figure out that, whether in the former speech or the latter, the process that appeared the most frequently is the material process. The relational process ranks second. Other processes are comparatively stable. Mrs. Obama is more willing to use material and relational processes in her speeches. As few behavioral and existential processes exist in her speech, behavioral and existential processes are not analyzed in this study.

**Material Process**

As is exhibited in Tables 1 and 2, the frequencies of material process in the speeches are 48% in 2008 and 50% in 2012. In material process, two participants, attributive and identifying are involved in the clause. The passive voice with one participant may hide the actor but can still be a material process. Material process with a clear behaver of the clause tends to make the speech more logical and convincing.

The following are examples of material process from Mrs. Obama’s speeches.

1. If women could be dragged to jail for seeking the vote…
2. If a generation could defeat a depression, and define greatness for all time …
3. If a young preacher could lift us to the mountaintop with his righteous dream…
4. Surely we can give everyone in this country a fair chance at that great American Dream.
5. And for years, men no more qualified than she was and men she had actually trained were promoted up the ladder ahead of her.
6. We accept the distance between the two, and settle for the world as it is.
7. Even when it doesn't reflect our values and aspirations. But he reminded us that we know what our world should look like.
8. And Barack and I set out to build lives guided by these values, and pass them on to the next generation.
9. Instead of heading to Wall Street, Barack had gone to work in neighborhoods devastated when steel plants shut down and jobs dried up.
10. And he'd been invited back to speak to people from neighborhoods about how to rebuild their community.

In first four examples, words such as “drag” “defeat” “define” “stand” and “give” are the actions, and these actions are to be “done” by the agents, “women”, “generation”, “preacher”, “Americans” and “we”. The discourse utilized “if” clauses to depict the problems concerning female, young generation and religion. As audiences, especially the female and normal electorates were more liked to be influenced and resonate with the speech. With her intimate connections with Mr. Obama, audiences easily relate to her speech with achievements of President Obama.

In Example 5, the actor in this clause is hidden. However, the action “be promoted” is emphasized. Here, the speech applied the passive material process to describe and emphasize the sexual discrimination that Obama’s grandmother met. It indicates that both Mr. and Mrs. Obama can deeply understand the female which has met the same unfair treatment as his grandmother and he would strive to solve the problem if he was the President. In Example 6 and 7, “we”, “it” and “he” are the actors, “distance” “values and aspirations” “us” are the objects of the actions “accept”, “reflect” and “remind”. Mrs. Obama used these material processes to encourage people to face the reality in the right way, which is also the way that Mr. Obama applied. In Example 8, “Barack and I’ are the actors who perform the actions to “build” and “pass”. This material process aims at telling people what Obama is doing to rebuild the faith of next generation. In Example 9 and 10, the actor here is also “Barack” and the verbs below aim at showing what Mr. Obama has done for people.

**Mental Process**

In Mrs. Obama’s speeches of 2012, the frequency of mental process is 24%. Mental process emphasizes the activity in both the speaker’s and audiences’ inner worlds, and the audiences can easily resonate with the speaker in the mental process. There are two participants in a mental process. One is the sensor and the other is the phenomenon.

11. I loved the life we had built for our girls…I deeply loved the man I had built that life with…and I didn’t want that to change if he became President. I loved Barack just the way he was.

12. While I believed deeply in my husband’s vision for this country…and I was certain he would make an extraordinary President…and any mother, I was worried about what it would mean for our girls if he got that chance.

13. And as I got to know Barack, I realized that even though he’d grown up all the way across the country, he’d been brought up just like me.

14. I never could have imagined, I have seen first hand that being president doesn’t change who you are it reveals who you are.

In Example 11, the sensor is “I”, and the phenomenon is the action “love”. Mrs. Obama showed her affection of Mr. Obama in the speech, which may also cause the affectionate resonation of audiences. In Example 12, “believe” is an action of trust. Mrs. Obama used the word “believe” to increase citizens’ faith to Obama. She tended to show that her husband is capable of being a good President. In Example 13, the word “realize” is a process which someone doesn’t know something before whereas recognizes and acknowledge gradually. The speech constructs an image of Mr. Obama as a normal guy with the same background like common Americans. In Example 14, “never could have imagined” shows her faith and
trust in Obama that he hasn’t been changed even if he has been President for four years, which indicates that Obama is and will continue to be a responsible President.

From the analysis above, the speech regards Barack Obama as a man worthy of love, a normal people and a good father, which implicitly shows that Mr. Obama can also become a good president. With resonance in mind, electorates may have higher tendency to vote for him, which conceals the real intention of Mrs. Obama in seeking votes.

Relational Process
Relational process can be simply demonstrated as the following syntactic structures: “… is a…”; “… is the …” or “… has…” The following examples are the relational processes occurred in Mrs. Obama’s speeches.

15. All of us driven by a simple belief that the world as it is just won't do — that we have an obligation to fight for the world as it should be. That is the thread that connects our hearts. That is the thread that runs through my journey and Barack's journey.

16. He was the guy whose proudest possession was a coffee table.

17. Even though back then Barack was Senator and a presidential candidate to me, he was still the guy who’d picked me up for our dates in a car.

18. The Barack Obama I know today is the same man I fell in love with 19 years ago. He's the same man who drove me and our new baby daughter home from the hospital 10 years ago this summer.

19. He has a remarkable ability to inspire people, to raise our hopes and rally us to high purpose. He has the intelligence and curiosity every successful President needs.

As is shown in above examples, most carriers refer to Mr. and Mrs. Obama, taking common people as attributives under the circumstance of President Obama being her love, her daughters’ father who has remarkable ability to inspire people and is the hope of Americans.

Verbal Process
Verbal process emphasizes the speaker of the speech. In Mrs. Obama’s speeches, verbal processes are mainly used in an indirect way to tell people what Obama says and what others say to or about Obama, as shown in the following examples.

20. And she would often tell Barack, “So long as you kids do well, Bar, that’s all that really matters.”

21. And I hear the determination in his voice as he tells me, “You won’t believe what these folks are going through, Michelle…it’s not right. We’ve got to keep working to fix this. We’ve got so much more to do.”

22. So when people ask me whether being in the White House has changed my husband, I can honestly say that when it comes to his character, and his convictions, and his heart, Barack Obama is still the same man I fell in love with all those years ago.

As depicted by examples above, Mrs. Obama intends to indicate that Mr. Obama always keeps people’s needs in mind and what he need is only an opportunity, and he possesses the ability to make the world as it should be. Appling the touching stories of Obama’s grandmother, the speech tends to dispel electorates’” misgivings to vote for him. Mr. Obama is also the attribute that has experienced the living condition of the poor, which shows his affection and considerations for common citizens, with the implicit meaning that it is wise to vote for my husband.
An Analysis of Transformation

There are two types of transformation, namely passivization and nominalization, which may conceal a speaker’s intention by hiding participants of the discourse. Specifically, the former hides the subject and the latter hides one or both. The following are occurrences of transformation in Mrs. Obama’s speeches.

Table 3. The Frequency of Transformation in Mrs. Obama’s Speeches in 2008

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Types of Transformation</th>
<th>Numbers</th>
<th>Percentages</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Passivization</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>56%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nominalization</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>44%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4. The Frequency of Transformation in Mrs. Obama’s Speeches in 2012

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Types of Transformation</th>
<th>Numbers</th>
<th>Percentages</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Passivization</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>30%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nominalization</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>70%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Compared with transitivity, transformation didn’t occur frequently in Mrs. Obama’s speeches. As the tables show, passivization occurred 23 times and nominalization occurred 33 times totally. In Mrs. Obama’s speeches, passivization is widely used to emphasize Obama’s intentions and weaken the unrelated subject. Nominalization is utilized to keep her purpose and intentions emphasized.

Conclusion

Via CDA of Michelle Obama’s speeches during the Democratic National Conventions in 2008 and 2012, it is feasible to conclude that discursive or linguistic features of both speeches adapted to the audiences’ back stories and could easily arouse resonations. Through lexical and syntactic choices, the speeches tended to create an advantageous and convincing atmosphere to affect electorates. The speeches converted language into a social practice in influencing and constructing ideology implicitly.

References

Mrs. Obama Democratic National Convention (DNC) Speech 2012.
A Case Study of the Use of Reported Speech in English Hard News

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[Abstract] This case study is especially concerned with the analysis of reported speech to illustrate the specific intertextuality of news reports. A piece of English hard news was randomly chosen to explore the reasons behind the use and functions of reported speech. The results reveal that news sources, forms of reported speech and reporting verbs constitute particular characteristics of reported speech, contributing to the foundation of specific intertextuality of hard news. The descriptive research will be significant for the improvement of writing hard news in English.

[Keywords] reported speech; English hard news; specific intertextuality

Introduction
Intertextuality has generated a wide interest in the field of news reports in recent years. This standard of textuality can be divided into generic and specific intertextuality, demonstrating current or historical relations between genres or types of discourses and specific intertextual relations of one text with other texts respectively (Xin, 2000). Most research has explored the two types of intertextuality in literary works, but little attention has been paid to specific intertextuality in nonfiction study, especially news reports, in particular, from the perspective of reported speech. To address this need, the case study in this paper attempts to examine the use of reported speech in a piece of English hard news to reflect specific intertextuality. Sources, forms of reported speech and reporting verbs may show characteristics of intertextuality, contributing to an insight into the intrinsic nature of news reports.

The remainder of the paper first reviews the related research on reported speech in news reports, followed by the presentation of methods. Then, results and discussion are provided for the present study.

Literature Review
Reported speech serves as a crucial role in the factuality of news reports in that any news report is composed of a description of the event and a quotation or description of speech. What and how people speak about the event seems to be more important than the event itself (Lin & Yang, 2007).

There has been an increasing body of research on reported speech in news reports in foreign countries since the 1970s. Its properties and functions are found to vary according to different types of discourses. For instance, news reports rely on the truthful source of reported speech, contrary to the fictional property in literary works. Bakhtin observed that fixity and authority of reported speech, to a large extent, avoids manipulation of author’s consciousness (Volosinov, 1973).

Scholars in China have carried out research on discourse analysis of news over the past three decades. There are different perspectives to study reported speech from the aspects of syntax structure or social, cultural contexts. Zhang (2004), for example, classified sources of reported speech into three categories: identified, semi-identified and unidentified sources. As for forms of reported speech, reporters have to deal with the choice between direct and indirect speech (Lin & Yang, 2007). Reporting verbs are another angle to study reported speech including speech reporting verbs, mental/thought reporting verbs,
and speech act reporting verbs (Xin, 1998). The comparative analysis of reported speech in English and Chinese newspapers has also attracted attention from Chinese linguists (Gao, 2013; Xin, 2014).

A considerable amount of literature review has been published on reported speech, regarding different research perspectives. However, few empirical studies have been conducted to investigate its use in terms of intertextuality in non-literary texts. To contribute to this domain, our research focused on sources, and forms of reported speech and reporting verbs to explore the reasons behind its use for specific intextuality in an English news report. This case study is guided by the following three research questions:

- What are sources of reported speech in the data?
- What are forms of reported speech in the data?
- What are characteristics of reporting verbs in the data?

**Methods**

Data for the study were obtained from *The New York Times* for December 24, 2010, an American daily newspaper founded and continuously published in New York City. The randomly chosen, hard news story, *Bush Policy on Lands is Reversed*, was downloaded from the website http://www.nytimes.com. Leslie Kaufman reported that the Interior Department reverted to Bush-era policy on wilderness, regaining its power to identify and recommend new places for protection. The length of the material is composed of 471 words.

There are two angles focused on in this study. One is the boundary between reported speech and the reporter's own voice, and the other is the influence of context on the meaning of reported speech. Therefore, sources of reported speech were analyzed to confirm the origins of cited words by reporters including identified, semi-identified and unidentified sources. Then we analyzed forms of reported speech to see how reporters chose between direct and indirect speech. The analysis of reporting verbs is the last step to find out how reported speech is used, illustrating the specific intertextuality of hard news.

**Sources of Reported Speech in English Hard News**

Reporters in news reports need to tell news sources truthfully concerning the citations of others’ words. There are three sources of reported speech consisting of identified, semi-identified and unidentified sources. It’s necessary for reporters to mention specific names of speakers in the first news source. Three examples were found in this piece of hard news.

- *the bureau’s director, Bob Abbey, said in a statement.*
- *said Nada Culver, senior counsel in the Denver office of the Wilderness Society.*
- *Erik Milito, director of upstream and industry operations for the American Petroleum Institute, said.*

In the above data, the reporter makes the effort to employ identified sources to demonstrate objectivity and authority of the news item, as the speakers’ identifications are clearly revealed with the use of their names and social positions such as Bob Abbey, the bureau’s director. In the first two examples, the comparison between the positive and negative response to the new policy on lands is covered, which motivates readers to learn about different opinions objectively to a great extent. The related institute has to adopt some approaches under the influence of the policy in the third example. The clearly identified names and social positions of those speakers constitute the truthful and believable sources of the news.
Semi-identified sources of reported speech mean that the reporter selects some unspecified words to give hints rather than state the origin of speech straightforwardly and clearly. For example, “researchers said that…”; “analysts said...”. In this news item, there’s one example as follows:

- the Interior Department said.

The reporter in the example doesn’t show the specific name of the speaker but chooses to use phrase “the Interior Department”, a relatively general name of the institution. The reason the reporter uses the semi-identified source lies in the fact that the statement represents the position of an entire institute, not that of the personal view. Another possibility may be that he has to paraphrase the speakers’ words briefly in order to report the latest news without delay. He, therefore, places great emphasis on the fact from the standpoint of the department that the rules of the new policy are not specified until a comment period ends.

The third type, unidentified source, refers to the origin of the reported speech with the absence of specific language symbols. Certain phrases are used to hide the source: “a major news report warns that...”; “we are informed that...”; “there are reports that ...”. The result of the study indicates that no unidentified sources were found.

To sum up, identified news sources accounted for the largest percentage of usage (75%), followed by semi-identified sources (25%) with the least frequency occurrence of unidentified sources, which is consistent with the findings by Xin (2014). Actually, western media performs specific regulations and carries out measures to restrict the use of last two news sources in order to ensure an objective insight into the events.

**Forms of Reported Speech in English Hard News**

Making a choice between direct speech (DS) and indirect speech (IS) becomes forms of reported speech. Reporters are inclined to quote speakers’ words exactly in direct speech, whereas they express what was said in their own words when using indirect speech.

Direct speech seems to perform a social and informative role in news through its interaction with current texts and representation of public attitudes. For example:

- “The new Wild Lands policy affirms the B.L.M.’s authorities under the law — and our responsibility to the American people — to protect the wilderness characteristics of the lands we oversee,” the bureau’s director, Bob Abbey, said in a statement.

- “We are not quite where we were before,” said Nada Culver, senior counsel in the Denver office of the Wilderness Society.

The italicized part in the first example stands for the authoritative voice that the new policy clarifies the bureau’s legal responsibilities on protection of wild lands with the use of direct speech. Responding to the positive evaluation of the policy, the questioning voice in public is noticed in the second example as well. The reporter indicates some minority group’s doubt about whether the new policy is powerful enough to change the present situation through the direct quotation of an environmentalist’s word. Compared with the formal style of the authoritative officers’ language, that of the minority’s voice tends to be colloquial and natural. The reporter in the data uses direct speech not only to mirror public opinions, but also to establish a tight relationship between the positive and questioning voice, which is significant for the construction of informative news.

The focus of indirect speech is on the content of reported speech as the reporter intends to show someone’s ideas in his own way. The following are four examples of indirect speech:
Environmentalists welcomed the decision but questioned why it had taken nearly two years for the Obama administration to reverse the policy.

The rules for managing areas that come under the new designation “wild lands” are not yet clear and will be decided after a 60-day comment period, the Interior Department said.

Ms. Norton disavowed her department’s longstanding authority to recommend new areas for wilderness protection.

Erik Milito, director of upstream and industry operations for the American Petroleum Institute, said his group was taking a wait-and-see approach on whether access for oil and gas production would become more restricted.

In these examples, Ms. Norton provides evidence for one of bureau’s functions that issued recommendations of areas for wilderness protection in the past. The style of indirect speech seems to be more formal than that of direct speech, which also reflects the reporter’s own understanding towards the bureau’s specific function. On the other hand, the different locations of the two types of speech show the degree of importance for information. Two examples of direct speech were found in the front of the text opposite to most examples of indirect speech. The reporter tends to state relatively essential information first with direct speech and then minor one with indirect speech, forming the structure of hard news.

**Reporting Verbs in English Hard News**

Volosinov (1973) emphasized that the potential meaning of reported speech seems to be interpreted in specific contexts by means of reporting verbs. These verbs are composed of speech reporting verbs, mental/thought reporting verbs and speech act reporting verbs, which are significant for the development of events in news. In this study, only one speech act reporting verb, “say”, was found to occur four times in the data with none of other types of reporting verbs. As the most frequently used reporting verb, “say” with neutral color is selected to represent the objectivity of news reports. The reporter shows his prudent attitude when quoting others’ statements. Moreover, the speakers should be responsible for what they said in order to maintain a neutral color of hard news.

**Conclusion**

With the analysis of the data, this case study indicates some characteristics of reported speech from the aspects of news sources, forms and reporting verbs to demonstrate specific intertextuality of hard news. The reporter attempts to hold an objective position to report events truthfully using identified sources more frequently than the other two news sources. Meanwhile, direct speech was found to be a favorite form of reported speech rather than indirect speech, as this speech plays a vivid role in arousing readers’ interests and serves as solid evidence for supporting description of events. Finally, the speech act reporting verb “say” was used, adapting to the objective nature of hard news. Variations in the distribution of characteristics of reported speech are found in this study to account for specific intertextuality of hard news. The reporter’s writing style may conform to concise, timely and objective features of news, deciding the use of different reported speech.

As in any empirical study, however, the limitation of this study should be considered. The study of this type is inevitably limited by the size of sample. One piece of English hard news may not be enough for exploring the characteristics of reported speech. Besides, further research needs to examine generic intertextuality to improve reading and writing of hard news in English.
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An Annotation of the Cognitive System of Metaphor from the Angle of Pragmatics

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**Abstract** Now in China, countless metaphorical research findings come out every year. However, making a general survey, people will find that domestic research of metaphor still lacks systematic direction in many respect, since most findings are modeled on some popular theories, though there are still many outstanding cases. For such a reason, we may say that an elementary research system has not yet been established. The authors think that metaphorical research and its future trends include quite a number of contents: how to classify metaphor scientifically; how to cognize the 'life feature' of metaphor; how to deal from the view of pragmatics with the interactive relationships between metaphor and some other figures of speech; and how to conduct interdisciplinary research of metaphor. This is the essential cognitive system of metaphor.

**Keywords** metaphor; pragmatics; cognitive system; diversification

**Preface**

In the past two decades, research of the diversification and cognition of the English metaphor has become a hot research topic in China. More and more Chinese scholars have begun focusing their interest in the cognitive system and pragmatic functions of the metaphor. As a result, findings related to metaphor keep popping up, and new research methods are being explored so as to invent timely multi-angles. In rhetorical terms, explorations and arguments about metaphor have moved well beyond those about other rhetorical devices. Furthermore, with the coming of the 21st century, metaphorical research extended from simple rhetorical research into that of pragmatics, semantics, psychics and many other branches of learning. Nevertheless, it is easy for a diligent scholar to find out that metaphorical research is still confined to the surface, since there are more unilateral findings than systemic ones. Most Chinese scholars would rather annotate foreign relevant theories than bring forth new ideas, thus giving rise to more findings and fewer angles. By the way, many findings leave much to be desired, so limited points of view happen repeatedly. Some scholars only express personal opinions on the premise and they have not even made a clear and basic cognition of metaphor. Therefore, there is some confusion about the research, which lacks guidelines to follow. From such an argument, it follows that there in China is now an urgent need of a perfect and systematic theory and approach that will enlighten scholars. So we might even say that metaphorical research in China is full of randomness, since there is still no systematic logic in place. The reason lies in the fact that until now, no Chinese scholars have ever systematically and scientifically given a definite answer to how many research directions need to be relegated to the research of metaphor. Only as far as pragmatic perspective is concerned, metaphorical research remains a comparatively less explored area, such as: scientific classification of metaphor, the life cycle of a metaphor, its interactive relationships with some rhetorical devices, and their interdisciplinary research.
Basic Cognition of Metaphorical Research

Professor Shu Dingfang, chairman of China Cognitive Linguistics Association, once pointed out, “Metaphor is not only a linguistic phenomenon, but more importantly a kind of humanity's cognition phenomenon. Besides, it is a cognitive activity that illustrates and comprehends the experiences in another domain by using the experiences in a certain specific domain” (1998, p. 11). On this account, we can say that metaphorical research should begin with the basic cognition of metaphors and inherit from their unceasing development. Actually, metaphorical research can be roughly traced back to thousands of years ago and have essentially passed through three phases. Research of traditional rhetorical phenomena is labeled as the first phase. Much of the concern was focused on metaphorical roles in rhetoric; that is, how the true meaning of a word gradually evolved into symbolic significance. Aristotle (384-322 BC) is one of the first scholars who carried out research on metaphor. His annotation of nature and the functions of metaphor established the early research methodology for Westerners to carry out research two thousand years later. He indicated in Rhetoric – A Theory of Civic Discourse, “Metaphor should be fetched from the relations of things, but it can't be significant relationship. Just as in philosophy, a person must have a keen eye to see that they are similar in things, but far from the point” (Aristotle, 2006, p. 36). That is Aristotle’s Comparison Theory.

The second phase is a transition period in which the single research of rhetoric phenomenon converted in the direction of depth cognition. I. A. Richards (1893-1979), a British rhetorician, was one of the main representatives in this phase. He considered that “interpersonal communication is often restricted to mutual misunderstanding, and rhetoric is the study of how to eliminate and remedy misunderstanding” (Richards, 1965, p. 12). Based on such a practical question as ‘how a word plays a role in conversation’, Richards systematically studied and expounded the interaction between word and word and the inner link between word and context. And he initiated a new era of significance by proposing the Principle of Metaphor. His theory soon brought long-term potential and vigor to metaphorical research and opened up a new field for later generations.

The pragmatic-cognitive research of metaphor at the present age is usually marked as the third phase. The representatives of this phase are George P. Lakoff (1941 - ), an American cognitive linguist, and Professor Mark Johnson (1949 - ). Their main reasons for becoming typical scholars is rooted in their conclusion drawn in the course of metaphorical research, though parts of their research still centered on some questions that traditional linguists keep working with. Now it is universally recognized that their conclusion has opened up a new angle for metaphorical research. Their early research began with conceptual metaphor and they think that metaphor is not just a rhetorical phenomenon, for it has integral centrality and responds to thinking mode of human beings, political behavior and social development. Their main breakthrough in metaphorical research lies in the fact that they believe the metaphor is primarily a concept construction directly related to the development of the human mind. They propose, “The normal concept system of human beings, i.e., the principles that we inevitably use or rely on in our thinking and linguistic activities, is basically metaphorical in nature” (Lakoff, 1980, p. 135). To Lakoff and Johnson, non-metaphorical ways of thinking will never happen unless pure physical reality is being talked of. In their view, the development of human thinking is the very process for a good metaphor to come into being: when the concept of a particular knowledge is expressed in another field of knowledge, the process to understand the new meaning metaphorically happens. The main reason for us to say that Lakoff and Johnson have created a new phase in metaphorical research is that they have immensely widened the research angle and,
taking the development of the thinking mode as the base, have applied metaphorical research to every branch of learning, with interactive subjects in particular.

Professor Hu Zhuanglin once pointed out, “Since metaphorical phenomenon takes place with the emergence of metaphorical concept in our thinking, we are required to make clear the relationship between metaphor and cognition” (1997, pp. 50-52). According to the viewpoint of modern linguists, the cognitive system of metaphor is all-embracing, boundless and full of profound knowledge. Recognizing metaphor in modern English language can not take refuge in Aristotle’s theory. Instead, a modern flavor should be given to the cognition. The reason is, in accordance with the research theory of modern pragmatics, metaphorical research can not be simply based any longer on traditional theories or modes. A wider field of vision should be opened so as to coincide with such ever-changing pragmatic features as classification of metaphor, psychological factors in the use of metaphor, its vast domain of utilization, and the cultural connotation it carries, etc. This is the basis for us to recognize metaphor and also the theoretical cornerstone for innovation to form. Therefore, in the perspective of modern pragmatics, the cognition and application of metaphor have turned from quite a simple and complicated rhetorical phenomenon into psychological, linguistic and cultural activities. In such an activity, people, from the hint of the principle of one thing, can perceive, experience, imagine, comprehend and discuss the true features of another thing.

The Cognition System of Metaphorical Research

Traditional metaphor research puts stress on formal logic thinking. Linguists once regarded metaphor as a sole rhetorical device. In the long history of transmutation, our metaphorical cognition of metaphor has gone through a developing process that runs from narrow to wide, from outside to inside, and from elementary to profound. According to the contemporary theoretical research, metaphorical research is no longer confined to a rhetorical device. The developing process of metaphor should be linked with the process for people to recognize metaphor. In accordance with contemporary pragmatics, metaphor is a psychic tendency and a process of mental movement. In human linguistic activities, metaphor is not only an effective carrier for people to invent, transform, comprehend and evaluate a new conceptual meaning of a word or phrase, but also an important catalyst for people to generate, evolve, develop and transmute a language system.

The Cognition of the Life Cycle of a Metaphor

All metaphor, like human beings, will experience a process of life and death. They have their own youth, mature years and old age. In their life cycle, metaphors are a linguistic performance that follows a subtle principle of pragmatics and acts as special guides in all human communications. Recently the cognition of their life cycle has become a research focus and tendency. From the prospective of cognitive pragmatics, metaphorical cognition begins with the cognition of its life. The so-called metaphorical cognition stands for the cognition of the life cycle. As is the case with all other devices, metaphors are subject to being worn out by time. They will, in spite of their silver age, loose their brilliance and finally disappear. A newly invented metaphor takes on a greater impact and gives people a brand-new pragmatic recognition. It will be not easy for people to neglect their pragmatic effect. Instead, they will cause consideration and aftertaste, resulting in a strong resonance and bringing in immeasurable space for people to dream away.

A newly invented metaphor is called an active or live metaphor, which assists the transformation of thoughts by evoking a visual image. It emerges with the progress of mankind, social development, innovation of science and technology and the new use of a word that originally appears in news media,
poems, celebrity’s speech or a civilian’s figurative expression. This kind of metaphor will make a fresh, strange and unexpected impact on an audience and arouse their passions and concerns. Recently, a metaphor has noiselessly popped up on the internet in China. It is “雷人”, whose original meaning is ‘Lightning, caused by clouds discharging electricity, strikes a person or something.’ But in modern Chinese, it stands for “ridiculous, unexpected, astonishing, etc.” For example, “Is it ridiculous (light-striking) or creative that a chatting service is provided in Shanghai public toilets?”

A good metaphor, as an impressive reminder, will provide people with a newfangled, daydream space and endless aftertaste. For example, “That wet blanket is a loose cannon.” And also, in order to ensure a presumptive pragmatic effect, a metaphor inventor often leaves some certain context information so as to ensure listeners’ smooth understanding. For instance, American President Barack Obama once said at the opening ceremony of a primary school, “Now, as you might imagine, I wasn’t too happy about getting up that early. And a lot of times, I’d fall asleep right there at the kitchen table. But whenever I’d complain, my mother would just give me one of those looks and she’d say, “This is no picnic for me either, buster’” (Obama, 2009, In a national address to American school children, Wakefield High School Arlington, Virginia, September 8, 2009). As a matter of fact, when a word is used beyond its usual pattern, people will automatically infer its hidden meaning.

A metaphor may also die. When the figurative meaning of a word is deep-rooted in human mind and the original meaning can not any longer pass through our mind when we use it, we say it is a dead or dying metaphor. In the sentence: “The Duchess’ eyes were riveted on his face”, ‘rivet’ originally means: to fasten pieces of metal together with a metal pin. But in our daily use, it often means ‘keep looking at’. As this meaning is so familiar to us, its original meaning often slips from our memory. In the long wear process, the above example has changed into an ordinary expression since people seldom associate them with their original figurative images or strong appeal.

**Pragmatic Classification of Metaphor**

Metaphor can be classified into numerous categories in order to make a comprehensive understanding. With this awareness, we say, classification research of metaphor is the starting point for us to recognize metaphor and make an important breakthrough in metaphorical research. But it is a simple and complicated problem as how to classify metaphor, since there are various ways. At the end of the 20th century, Lakoff divided metaphors into three categories: structural metaphors, spatial metaphors and ontological metaphors. However, this classification is of such high academic quality that it promotes theoretical research but it makes basic cognition impossible. Moreover, Lakoff also invented the conceptual metaphor in his *Metaphors We Live By*. That is, taking a life facet as the figurative concept (the thing compared to) to expound the thing described. According to his logic: “Love is a journey” we say that metaphor has been simply and endlessly extended. So it is not conducive for people to carry out deep research.

As far as cognitive criteria and degrees are concerned, we may classify metaphor into two categories: live and dead metaphors. But it is not at all so simple for us to classify metaphor. Professor Richard Nordquist, from the American Armstrong Atlantic State University, is an outstanding figure in this respect. He has devoted his lifetime to the classification of metaphors. In light of the pragmatic features, proceeding with understanding, consideration, and daily use of the metaphor, he classified metaphors into 13 categories. His classification soon won numerous researchers’ favor because he provided metaphor lovers with a wider research space, since they can just cognize metaphor systematically and carry out deeper research with the help of his classification (Nordquist, 2015).
With the appearance of the new train of thought in metaphor research, corresponding findings have come out automatically in great numbers. Now in the American ‘Changing Minds.org’, metaphor is classified into 15 categories: absolute metaphor, active metaphor, complex metaphor, compound metaphor, dead metaphor, dormant metaphor, dying metaphor, extended metaphor, implicit metaphor, mixed metaphor, pataphor, root metaphor, simple metaphor, submerged metaphor, and synechdochic metaphor. And some American successors do not want to be left behind and have increased the number to 18 in ‘Literaryzone.com’: extended or telescoping metaphor, metonym metaphor, mixed metaphor, absolute metaphor, implied metaphor, dead metaphor, dormant metaphor, synecdoche metaphor, root metaphor, active metaphor, submerged metaphor, dying metaphor, conceptual metaphor, pataphor, simple or tight metaphor, implicit metaphor, compound or loose metaphor, and complex metaphor.

The Dynamic Interaction Between Metaphor and Other Figurative Devices
Metaphor is one of the most common ways for human beings to perceive the material world and communicate with one another, since its pragmatic frequency tops all other devices. Metaphor exists everywhere and at all times in any linguistic performance, so the grasp of metaphor, in a sense, means the grasp of rhetoric. But the cognitive process of metaphor is not only a cognitive process of overall surveying and comprehending rhetoric but a cognitive process of a language. And also, metaphor is a dynamic mechanism in the development and evolution of a language. Therefore, metaphorical research is not at all a self-parsing process, but a process of cognizing and understanding the dynamic interaction with other figurative devices. No one can say that he is proficient in metaphor without knowing the process since metaphor intersects with many other figures of speech in most cases. As is estimated, metaphor is often mixed with nearly 30 figures of speech so as to achieve extraordinary pragmatic effect. This statement can be confirmed by the following examples.

1. The wind sighed in the tree tops. (metaphorical personification)
2. In April, the world heard China ‘pinged’. In July, the ping was ‘ponged’ by America. (metaphorical synecdoche)
3. He has an eloquent tongue. (metaphorical metonymy)
4. Lebanon has been led, too long, by a Hamlet. (metaphorical antonomasia)
5. Maria has an unsightly mark in the face. (metaphorical euphemism)

Extended Research of Metaphor
Professor Shu Dingfang pointed out, “Metaphor has two important roles in human cognition. One is to create a new meaning, and the other is to provide a new perspective for people to look at things” (2002, pp. 1-3). Linguistic performance is not a sole activity, since pragmatic principles have a guiding role to all forms of human communication. As has been proven in modern pragmatic research, metaphor is an expression of mode of thinking and creation of language context, the formation of which is closely related to semantic development and psychological factors. Therefore, metaphor, as a cognitive phenomenon, acts as a regeneration mechanism of a language system. Metaphorical language is in essence the representation of metaphorical thought in language. As a matter of fact, modern research of metaphor is more and more diversified and multi-disciplinary. Based on the observation of pragmatics, we say, metaphorical cognition has extended from traditional rhetoric and linguistic field to almost all school subjects, with those related to human interaction in particular. For this reason, we say, metaphorical cognition and research are no longer the research contents of a single subject, but that focused on by people from all fields of life. Just as
Professor Li Fuyin pointed out, “Besides linguistics, there are also countless subjects that are bullish on metaphor research” (2000, p. 45). From the perspective of modern research of metaphor, we can definitively say that any use of metaphor in our daily life is associated with psychological tendency, though we can not exactly count out the use condition, since the use of metaphor is actually a psychological interaction process. Just as Professor Shu Dingfang has said, “Findings obtained from metaphorical research carried out in different angles show that people have more and more realized that the role of metaphor in the human cognitive and social activities should not be underestimated” (2002, pp. 1-3).

**Conclusion**

From the above, it follows that dramatic changes have currently taken place in the research of metaphor. One of the important marks of the changes is to recognize metaphor from a completely new angle. That is, the use of metaphor is a kind of linguistic performance that takes social development and psychological dynamics as its base. And this performance itself is closely bound up with cognizing, social and cultural diversity.

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Sense and Reference from the Pragmatic Perspective

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[Abstract] Sense and reference, which are related but different aspects of meaning, have been a focus in philosophy, logics and linguistics. Every expression that has meaning has sense, but not every expression has reference. Without dynamic contextual interpretation, the sense and reference of any linguistic expression are uncertain and ambiguous. By analyzing defects in formal semantics, this paper probes into a pragmatic approach to sense and referent, hence making clear the uncertainty and ambiguity of sense and referent of a language form in a situation.

[Keywords] sense; reference; formal semantics; pragmatic; context

Introduction
Sense and reference, coined by Frege (1948), are related but different aspects of meaning. Every expression that has meaning has sense, but not every expression has reference. The distinction of sense and reference in philosophy and formal semantics is quite similar to that of intension and extension in logics. Sense and intension refer to the total properties of some kind of object, entity or event, turning out to be the generalization of the characteristics of extension and referent, while extension and referent involve the class of the concrete objects, entities or events. Either sense and intension or extension and referent have certain domains. For example, the sense and intension of the word “country” may be the set of political entity of class society, a tool to govern the ruled class by the ruling class, and the result of incompatible class contradiction, etc. The extension and referent of “country” means all the concrete countries all over the world in all ages, each being an element in the country set.

Sense is abstract, inherent and de-contextualized (Liu, & Wen, 2006). Sense is the more interesting part of meaning. It refers to how we see an object or entity or the amount of information given about an object or entity. It is the kind of literal meaning that dictionary compilers are concerned about. For example, the word “boy” is defined as “a male child, till puberty or young manhood.” This doesn’t refer to any particular boy that exists in the world, but applies to any boy that meets the features given in the definition.

Reference means what a linguistic form refers to in reality, or the physical world (Liu & Wen, 2006); it deals with the relationship between the linguistic element and the non-linguistic world of experience. When we say “The boy is crying”, the word “boy” must have a particular referent, which refers to a particular boy known to the participants in the communicative situation. This is the reference of the word “boy” in this particular situation. Reference also includes imaginary objects: unicorns, Santa Claus, Hades, eternal bliss, and so forth. This would also include objects which currently do not exist but could exist: A King of France, dinosaurs, and so forth.

Linguistic forms with the same sense may have different references in different situations. For example:

1. I saw a boy at the gate yesterday.
2. I saw a man beating a boy in front of the house.

Linguistic forms with the same reference might differ in sense. The classic example cited showing this fact is the planet Venus. As a planet it has a reference, arbitrarily given the name Venus. It is often called the morning star when seen in the morning, and the evening star when seen in the evening. Thus, it has two senses, depending on the time of day the object is seen. The planet itself is the referent, and the morning star is one sense, the evening star the other sense. It could have other senses.

In another example, suppose John has two sons, Bill and Henry; one nephew, Peter; and one grandson, Dave. When we refer to John as such, there is no sense. John is the arbitrary name given to the referent. Consider the following phrases:

Bill’s father // Henry’s father // Peter’s uncle // Dave’s grandfather

Each phrase either refers to John (X’s father), or it may refer to John: Peter may have more than one uncle and Dave has a second grandfather. In these cases, the addressee doesn’t know which one of the possible referents is the intended referent except when clear from the context. The four phrases represent a different sense of the intended referent. Virtually every object can have several senses.

**Pragmatic Interpretation**

We know that words reliably mean things, otherwise they wouldn’t be of any real communicative use. However, we also know that words can have flexible meanings that strongly depend on the context. Sense is not unique and fixed, and always has uncertainty and ambiguity, which cannot be obtained without dynamic contextual interpretation (Yu, 1999). So “sense of a term is whatever is grasped or understood by a speaker on a particular occasion of use and may vary from occasion to occasion as well as from speaker to speaker” (Marcus, 1978).

**Uncertainty of Sense and Referent**

The traditional referential theory suggests that sense determines reference and intension determines extension, but how do we determine sense, because sometimes there are several senses of a certain word? For example, (Thomas, 1995; quoted from He & Yu, 2000), it is difficult to determine what the sense of “coke” is in the following sentence.

3. The Pearsons are on coke.

“Coke” has three meanings in contemporary oral English dictionary: coca cola, cocaine, and coal derivative. So (3) can be interpreted in the three ways:

4. The Pearsons are drinking Coca Cola.
5. The Pearsons are using cocaine.
6. The Pearsons are having solid-fuel heating.

If (3) is uttered in a restaurant, it maybe means (4); if in a den of criminal gangs, it refers to (5); if in a living room, it probably conveys (6).

Sometimes, the speaker may create ambiguity for some certain purpose by taking use of the uncertainty of sense and the referent of a language form in a situation. For example, (Nieuwland, 2007):

7. According to Herodotus, when the powerful king Croesus of Lydia asked the Delphi oracle whether he should go to war with the Persians, the answer he got was “If you attack the Persians, you will destroy a mighty kingdom”.

It is fairly simple for us to spot the ambiguity in this oracular reply. As it turned out, the Delphi oracle had politely denied predicting what was about to happen, and instead of telling the full truth, the
oracle had chosen to be ambiguous, because “a mighty kingdom” could refer to the kingdom of the Persians or to that of Croesus himself, or perhaps some other unknown kingdom. The Delphian ambiguity illustrates that we have to fulfill at least two important tasks in order to arrive at a contextually appropriate interpretation for a given word. We have to establish its general lexical meaning (sense) and we have to determine to what or whom it refers (reference).

Assigning Sense and Referent in Context

Sense involves a connection between language and thought, while reference deals with a connection between language and the world. In psycholinguistics, sense and reference are often associated with semantic and referential analysis respectively. Through semantic analysis, we retrieve meaning from individual words and combine them into larger units of meaning. Through referential analysis, we figure out the identity relationships between words in the text and entities in our situation. But obviously, sense as a kind of de-contextualized meaning or abstract lexical meaning cannot contribute alone to the complete understanding in a certain situation. Especially, homonyms, homographs, and homophones can be better understood in context (He & Yu, 2000). Homonyms very commonly express meanings that do not display any interesting relation, being instead the product of phonological, or at least orthographical, convergences peculiar to a particular language. Thus, take the graph “bass” in Modern English. One of its meanings is related to a kind of fish and is derived from Old English “bærs”. Yet, another of its meanings is related to the lowest register of the male voice and is derived from an entirely different word: “basso” in Italian (Ravin & Leacock, 2000). And besides, the referent can be exactly identified in context or situation because language forms cannot by themselves refer to some objects or entities.

Proper names. Burge (1979) puts it, Frege “treats proper names as having different senses while applying to the same person, emphasizing the variability of the sense of a proper name for different users and in different contexts.” Different persons may attach different senses to the same proper name. Consider the following:

8. a. John is eating his dinner at the table.
   b. John is eating his dinner in his kennel.
9. a. Li Ming shi dangdai Lei Feng. (Li Ming is Lei Feng of today.)
   b. Lei Feng yangnianzaoshi. (Lei Feng died young.)
10. a. Wang Mei jianzhi shi Lin Daiyu. (Wang Mei is simply Lin Daiyu.)
    b. Lin Daiyu shi Honglongmeng zhong de nizhejue. (Lin Daiyu is the heroine in A Dream of Red Mansions.)

“John” in (8a) and (8b) both refer to specific entities. Although they have the same proper name, they have different sense and referent. Based on the co-text, “John” in (8a) is “a person who is eating his dinner at the table”, referring to “a person whose name is John”, while “John” in (8b) may be “a dog or cat or other animal who is eating his dinner at the kennel”, referring to “an animal whose name is John”.

“Lei Feng” in (9a) and “Lin Daiyu” in (10a) refer to “Li Ming” and “Wang Mei” respectively. Instead of referring to the specific persons or referential use, they belong to a kind of attributive use. “Lei Feng” in (9a) is used with the sense of “warm-hearted and love-serving others”, while “Lin Daiyu” in (10a) is used with the sense of “beautiful and sentimental and in a low state of health”. However, “Lei Feng” in (9b) and “Lin Daiyu” in (10b) are used referring to the specific person and character in history and novel or TV series respectively.
Sometimes even though two proper names have the same semantic value or the same referent, they cannot be substituted for each other in certain contexts because they have quite different senses. For example, “Lu Xun” and “Zhou Shuren” in the following:

11. a. Lu Xun yinwei jiujia xing Lu, suoyi qu le zhege mingzi. (LuXun named after his uncle.)
    *b. Zhou Shuren yinwei jiujia xing Lu, suoyi qu le zhege mingzi. (Zhou Shuren named after his uncle.)

**Definite descriptions.** A definite description is a denoting phrase in the form of “the X” where X is a noun-phrase or a singular common noun. The definite description is proper if X applies to a unique individual or object. For example: “the first person in space” and “the 42nd President of the United States of America”, are proper because they have explicit senses and referents. The definite descriptions “the person in space” and “the Senator from Ohio” are improper because the noun phrase X applies to more than one thing and may have the same sense but different referents, and the definite descriptions “the first man on Mars” and “the Senator from China” are improper because X applies to nothing and doesn’t have sense and referents at all.

Donnellan (1966; quoted from He & Yu, 2000) contrasted two uses of definite descriptions, the referential and the attributive. In using a definite description referentially, the speaker communicates content about a particular object in mind, whereas in using the same description attributively the speaker communicates content about whatever object uniquely satisfies the description. Assuming that definite descriptions have a quantificational attributive meaning, the main problem raised by Donnellan’s contrast between uses lies in whether descriptions also have a referential meaning. If they do, it is plausible to think that the definite description is ambiguous between a referential and an attributive meaning. Consider (12a):

12. a. the man with martini
    b. John is the man with martini.
    c. The man with martini was arrested.

Although (12a) is ambiguous in referential and attributive uses, we are quite clear about (12b) and (12c), with the former being in attributive use and the latter in referential use.

In most cases, if the referential description applies to more than one object or entity, the reader and the listener will need further help from the context to understand the intended content by the writer and speaker. “course” in (13a) and “bank” in (14a) don’t have explicit senses and referents, while they can be identified within co-texts.

13. a. Nobody can change the course.
    b. Nobody can change the course, so we go on driving south.
    c. Nobody can change the course, so we still have to go to the class.
14. a. Let’s gather at the bank.
    b. Let’s gather at the bank if you expect me to help you open an account.
    c. Let’s gather at the bank if you want to fish with me.

**Indefinite descriptions.** An indefinite description is a phrase talking about a thing of a sort, or things that satisfy some description with no implication that just one thing does. The sentence “a man came here this morning” contains the indefinite description “a man”. Another example, in order to bring a coffee to a
person, a robot needs to find a cup, but it does not matter which one. Object references of the kind “a cup” are known as indefinite descriptions in the philosophical and linguistic tradition.

As with definite descriptions, indefinite descriptions are also used attributively and referentially (Donnellan, 1966). For example, suppose that all the computers in our building behave strangely, so you call the computer center to ask for help. When you hang up you say to your colleague:

15. A computer expert will come to have a look.

In this context the indefinite description “a computer expert” is used attributively. The hearer is expected to understand that some computer expert or other will come to take a look at the computers. “a computer expert” thus gets a sense but not a specific individual or referent. The predicative use of indefinite description is also a kind of attributive statement:

16. John is a teacher.

In this case, “a teacher” has a sense of “a person who teaches students”, while the referent is John himself.

Suppose now that you are going out tonight with Peter who has been courting you for a long time. You have agreed that he will meet you at the little coffee shop opposite your house. I know this arrangement and looking out of your window I tell you:

17. An admirer of yours is waiting for you at the coffee shop.

In this context the hearer is intended to realize that it is Peter who is waiting for her. The speaker is using the indefinite description “an admirer of yours” referentially, i.e. to pick out a particular individual.

The following is another referential use of the indefinite description. Suppose that Peter wants to know what John did on Sunday and John says:

18. A friend of mine from Cambridge paid me a visit.

In this case John conveys that he is speaking about a particular individual or specific referent; he does not, however, intend Peter to realize who this individual is. The speaker may want to conceal from Peter the identity of this friend or he may want to avoid bothering Peter with details that he considers irrelevant.

Pro-forms. Pro-forms include pronouns and do-series used as a referential or anaphoric device. Without context or situation, pro-form cannot be assigned sense and referent, e.g., “he” and “she” in the following:

19. He will be back in a minute.
20. She did too.

A proform can be related to an antecedent across sentence boundaries, involving NP’s and VP’s. For example:


Example (21) involves anaphora between “her” and “a woman”, with the same sense and referent. While example (22) involves anaphora between VP’s “walked” and “did”, with the same sense, i.e. the same property that of walking, but different referents, because “walked” is behaved by different persons.

It is well known that a pro-form does not always denote the same object as its antecedent. Instead, a pro-form and its antecedent can represent the same way of selecting an object, i.e. identity of sense. Consider the example (23):

23. Smith makes his children go to bed at 8 every night. Jones lets them stay up as late as they want.
In (23), “them” does not denote the same set of children as the antecedent, “his children”, i.e. the different referents, but they have the same sense, i.e. being characterized as identity of sense.

Consider the following example, adapted from Chastain (1975):

24. There is a mosquito in here. You can hear it buzzing. See, it just landed on my left arm. Now it’s biting me. [the speaker swats the mosquito]. Not much left of it now, is there!

The pronoun “it” is anaphoric on the antecedent “a mosquito”. An anaphoric pronoun can be a genuine referring expression (the same referent) or the same way of selecting an object (the same sense). Here “it” is not a genuine referring expression. Although all of the “it’s” have the same sense, but we are not sure whether they refer to the same mosquito, especially the first three “it’s”. It seems the last “it” has a different referent from the original mosquito.

Conclusion

We have set foot in sense and reference from the pragmatic perspective. Sense and reference can also be interpreted from a cognitive perspective. Sense can be seen as a set of abstract properties of a class of entities, while referent be seen as either a set of a class entities or a particular individual. The relation between sense and referent corresponds to that between “figure and ground” in Gestalt Theory. That we use a word whether referentially or attributively in a certain situation depends on the prominence of the figure or the ground. But the prominence of either the figure or the ground is always triggered by the sense or referent of other language expression.

A conclusion can be drawn that context is the natural habitat of words and sentences. Surely there are exceptions, but words and sentences are part of a wider communicative context like a conversation or a story. In fact, speaking, hearing, reading or writing some form of connected context is what adults do throughout most of their conscious life. The importance of context comprehension is obvious: it is our principal means to communicate ideas, facts, and feelings across time and space, i.e. to exchange meaning in a way that many consider to be unique for the human species. That means, studying word-level and sentence-level comprehension simply won’t suffice if we want to gain a full understanding of our language comprehension system. The ultimate goal and most essential aspect of language comprehension is getting at the conceptual interpretation of a sentence in its appropriate context, i.e. understanding what a speaker or writer had meant to convey (Clark, 1996).

Acknowledgement

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References


Engagement Analysis of News Report of *China Daily* in the Light of Appraisal Theory

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**Abstract** In the domain of discourse analysis, the appraisal system is a powerful extension of systemic functional grammar. As the branch system of the appraisal theory, the engagement system is applied to analyze the language of a news report of *China Daily* in order to conclude its engagement features and explore its causes, which aims to discuss its influence and expand the breadth and depth of news language study.

**Keywords** CNN; news language; engagement

**Introduction**
For discourse analysis, the explanatory research of systemic functional grammar has been widely used and constantly extended (Halliday, 2000). The appraisal system of Martin is very good proof of the extension. This set of theory is no longer an explanation of the interpersonal relationship through the modal system and no longer a study of English grammar based on Halliday’s three metafunctions of language. It further extends the language speaker and the listener, and expresses the content of the author and the reader's position, view and attitude, which is a system in which the traditional system functional grammar has not been perfect. In the process of discourse analysis, appraisal system theory concerns the comprehension to the function of evaluative language vocabulary and focuses on the understanding of interpersonal and social relationships, which belongs to the social perspective study (Martin & Rose, 2003). The appraisal system is the composition of three branches: engagement, together with parallel systems of attitude and graduation. The three subsystems are respectively composed of their own systematic categories. This paper emphasizes the study of the first subsystem – the engagement system (Martin, 1992).

Being China’s national English daily newspaper, *China Daily* has a great amount of overseas circulation. It is an important window for mutual understanding between China and other countries all over the world. As the highest reproduced newspaper by the international media in China, *China Daily* is the preferred English media for high-end personage at home and abroad. It undertakes a variety of large-scale international conference proceedings, and the quantity is among the top of the domestic media. Thus, the news language of *China Daily* has a great influence, which directly impacts the awareness of reading people in current affairs. This paper aims to analyze the engagement features of the language in a CNN news report in the light of the appraisal theory.

**The Meaning of the Engagement System**
From the linguistic perspective, the engagement system refers to the different kinds of expression methods that utterances apply in the use of language communication for words and expressions. It has the values that the utterances can communicate meaning with actual and potential audiences. It can be conveyed directly or indirectly so as to show the utterance’s idea and standpoint (Martin, 1998). Therefore, it can cut to the chase. Euphemisms can be lent to others ideas and positions (Martin, 1997). Thus, the engagement
system is composed of two branches, Monogloss, together with the parallel subsystem Heterogloss. Heterogloss refers to the diversity connected with the utterances, that is, to express oneself through the guise of other people’s words, position and attitudes. Monogloss refers to the ignorance of the diversity, that is, to express directly. From the sound source level, heterogloss has two subsystems, extra-vocalization and intra-vocalization.

With the extension of the entire appraisal system, Martin and White (2005) believed that the engagement of language is from the diversity sound level, on the basis of language function of resources among the main bodies in the engagement system. It is made up of two aspects, dialogic expansion and dialogic contraction.

The category of dialogic expansion concerns two parts: entertainment and attribute. Entertainment means the language expression is one of the good location views, accommodating and coexisting with other views expressed and embodied in the utterances made by the possibility of expression, such as the modal verb: maybe, could, perhaps, it’s most probably that, or I think, etc. Attribute refers to the language expression coming from the external sound source, point of view and position and expanding the multidirectional communication positioning. It uses expressions such as say, claim, state, report, in the point of view or according to, etc., so as to convey the external source point of recognition from the utterances and to refuse undertaking the responsibility of expressed content. The categories of attribute deal with acknowledgement and distance.

Dialogic contraction further concerns two categories: proclaim and disclaim. The categories of proclaim deal with endorse, pronounce and concur. Endorse refers to the utterances stating the same point of view from the external sound source. The functional paraphrased words are expressed as show, demonstrate, prove and point out, etc. Pronounce refers to the views expressed by the utterances with high-profile engagement, such as I contend, the fact is, indeed, it can be concluded that, and the way is that, etc. Concur can also be known as the “agreement”. It is well known and indisputably described by the content, such as obviously, of course, and naturally, etc. The disclaim system refers to the negative and dissent expressed by the utterances for the existing source. It includes two categories: deny and counter expectation. Deny refers to the direct negation to the expressed language. Counter expectation refers to the predicted failure resulting from the utterances applying and exchanging with contrary views to the expressed ones, such as surprisingly, amazingly, although, and but, etc. (Martin, 2000).

The Collection and Analysis of Engagement Data in China Daily
This study chose ten news reports from the China Daily's website www.chinadaily.com.cn. The content includes finance, sports, food, life, entertainment and various aspects of international information. The news corpus of total words count is 10496. Through the application of the subsystems under the framework of the engagement system, all the selected samples had unified and detailed analysis. After the distribution of statistics, the statistics are shown in Tables 1 to 5.
Table 1. The Number and Frequency of the Total Engagement

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>System</th>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Proportion</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The Engagement System</td>
<td>Dialogic Expansion</td>
<td>408</td>
<td>74.19%</td>
<td>38.87‰</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Dialogic Contraction</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>25.82%</td>
<td>13.53‰</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

On the basis of the analyzed statistics, a considerable amount of engagement appraisal expressions exists in *China Daily*. The number shows that the dialogic expansion occurs more times in comparison with the dialogic contraction. A variety of sound sources occupy certain proportions. The former is more than the latter in a lot of points. The dialogic expansion and dialogic contraction in the whole discourse also has a certain frequency, while it is not that much as the proportion data. Table 1 reflects that *China Daily* inclines to use more dialogic expansion. The total frequency in the news report is not that great, which shows that the news language is very discreet in using engagement expressions.

Table 2. The Proportion of the Categories in Dialogic Expansion and Dialogic Contraction

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Proportion</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dialogic Expansion</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Entertain</td>
<td>173</td>
<td>31.45%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attribute</td>
<td>235</td>
<td>42.74%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dialogic Contraction</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disclaim</td>
<td>123</td>
<td>22.36%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Proclaim</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>3.45%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From Table 2, it is obvious that every category in the dialogic expansion and dialogic contraction has certain distribution proportion. In contrast, the largest distribution proportion is embodied in the category of attribute, accounting for 42.74%. The least is in the category of proclaim, only accounting for 3.45%. It reveals that the news language of *China Daily* rarely uses the expression such as *I contend, the facts of the matter, indeed* and so on., while it often uses more objective expressions such as *X says, X argues, X believes* and so on to deliver the news report.

Table 3. Proportion of the Categories in Attribute

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Proportion</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Acknowledge</td>
<td>233</td>
<td>42.36%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The attribute category is the largest proportion in the whole distribution of engagement. In the category of attribute, the number of acknowledge proportion, accounting for 233, far outweighs distance, which only accounts for 2. The distribution proportion also reveals a large distance with the rate of 42.36% and 0.36%, which shows that the news language of *China Daily* mostly uses admission for current source rather than alienation.

Table 4. The Proportion of the Categories in Disclaim

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Proportion</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Deny</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>9.45%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Counter Expectation</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>12.91%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to Table 4, it is obvious that more counter expectation categories are presented in the number of 71. But it approaches the deny categories in the number of 52, which shows that in the sample news report the language with disclaimer engagement is similar in the two categories.
Table 5. The Proportion of the Categories in Proclaim

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Proclaim</th>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Proportion</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Endorse</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>1.82%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pronounce</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.73%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Concur</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.91%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The statistic results of proclaim distribution proportion shown in Table 5 turns out to be different from the previous four tables. Each category roughly reflects the number of the same proportion, with the rate of 1.82%, 0.73%, and 0.91%, respectively. However, the distribution proportion of proclaim is much less than the proportion in disclaim, not to mention the attribute and entertain. Thus, it can be showed that the news language in the China Daily mostly agrees with the report about current event and less take objection. It is an objective news report.

The language of news report engages to show the sound source in different ways. The attitude referring to the language expression coming from the sound source may care for something, and it might also be indifferent. It might like something, and it might also dislike. It might agree with what has been mentioned in the news report, it might also disagree. It might show sympathy to something, and it might take away the feeling from it. It might appreciate something, and it might also find it boring. It might feel envy for something, and it might also be careful about it. It might be enthusiastic for something, and it also be disgusting about it. And all of these types of attitudes are revealed in the language of news report in China Daily.

The language of news report cannot break the principles and rules of engagement system when they engage. And within the systems they more or less find their ways to engage. And it is known that principles or rules are generally listed out of framework, therefore, when the principles or rules of news report’s engagement are examined, it has to examine the engagement framework and aspects. When the language of news report engages in other persons, it usually assesses the behavior, the manner, and the moral quality of other persons. When the language of news report engages in events or issues, it usually assesses these events or issues to evaluate what the people are engaged in. Therefore, engagement in other persons, events, or issues, usually concerns morals and social principles and evaluations.

Conclusion

The ultimate purpose of this study was to show how engagement carries out the evaluation of other persons, events, issues, objects, and places in the news report of China Daily. In the framework of evaluation, the attitude of language in the news report is apparent, as well as attitude of different kinds, such as positive attitude, negative attitude, and neutral attitude. Engagement is affected by attitude. If the attitude of language in the news report is positive, it generally uses some positive way to engage. If the attitude of language in the news report is negative, it usually uses some negative way to engage. And if the attitude of language in the news report is neutral, the way it engages is neutral. No matter what the attitude is, it is delivered through sound source, which is shown by two aspects, dialogic expansion and dialogic contraction.

Though the engagement analysis of news report language of China Daily in the light of appraisal system, it can be found that its report on current affairs seems to show more objective reviews. Focusing on the depth and breadth of the news report, there still exists the engagement language from a reporter or other social personal views. The proportion of dialogic expansion far outweighs dialogic contraction, which
shows that news report gives the reading public more thinking space. The existence of dialogic contraction indicates that the news media language influences and guides the public’s perspective and comprehension to some extent. As the category of appraisal theory, engagement system can improve deep understanding of news report language for the reading public and increase the sensitivity to current affairs. There are a lot of research studies and language research space in news reports. It shows that news reports make full use of the sound source in the formation of discourse, expand the dialogue space, realize the existence of a variety of views, and use the dialogue of many different sound sources to express the speaker’s own opinion. It hopes that this research will broaden the mind and contribute to the study on the appraisal system.

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http://www.chinadaily.com.cn/


Empirical Research on Foreign Language Learning Anxiety of College Students from Different Subject Areas

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[Abstract] By using the Howitz Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS), 242 undergraduates of grades 2012 and 2013 from agriculture, engineering, science, and arts, in Jilin Agricultural University were investigated. The collected data from a questionnaire survey were used for descriptive and correlation analysis on the different dimensions of anxiety using SPSS (11.0) software package, aiming at doing research on different degrees of English learning anxiety of college students from different subject areas and their correlation. The research result shows that the engineering students have the highest level of anxiety, and the science students have the lowest level of anxiety; the students of different subject areas have very significant differences in the classroom anxiety dimension and test anxiety dimension. The study will be helpful to foreign language teaching reform.

[Keywords] empirical research; subject; foreign language learning anxiety; college student; correlation analysis

Introduction
Anxiety is one of the important emotional factors influencing foreign language learning, causing concern of many scholars, at home and abroad. Since the 1940s, Sarason, et al. have studied anxiety from a psychological point of view and prepared the Test Anxiety Scale (TAS). In the 1960s, Spieberger, et al. (1966) studied the relationship between anxiety and students’ learning. In the 1970s, foreign language learning anxiety caused concern of many scholars. Especially since 1986 when Horwitz designed the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS), many domestic and foreign scholars have done a lot of researches on foreign language learning anxiety from different angles. For example, Horwitz (1986), Young (1992), Aida (1994), MacIntyre & Gardner (1993), MacIntyre (1999), and Onwuegbuzie (2000), etc., studied the relationship between anxiety and language learning achievement and other variables. Lalonde (1987), MacIntyre, et al. (1991), Yu Xinle (1999) and Feng Chengyi (2008), etc., studied the effect of foreign language learning anxiety on listening. Phillips (1992), Chen Jie (1997), and Qian Xujing (1999), etc., studied the effect of foreign language learning anxiety on speaking. Saito, et al. (1999), Sellers (2000), Shi Yunzhang, and Liu Zhengqian (2006), Qiu Mingming, and Liao Fei (2007), etc., studied the effect of foreign language learning anxiety on reading. Faigley, et al (1981), Guo Yan (2011), and Zhou Baoguo, and Tang Junjun (2010), etc., studied the effect of foreign language learning anxiety on writing. However, the research on foreign language learning anxiety of college students from different subject areas are rare. Therefore, this study is about the empirical research on foreign language learning anxiety of college students from different subject areas.

Research Methodology

Subjects
The subjects in the study are undergraduates in grades 2012 and 2013 from agriculture, engineering, science, and arts, in Jilin Agricultural University. Members of the research team delivered and collected the questionnaires in class. Out of 250 questionnaires, 242 effective questionnaires were collected. The effective rate is 96.8%. The specific circumstances of the subjects are shown in Table 1.
**Research Tools**

This study used Horwitz’s (1986) Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) because of its high reliability and it has been repeatedly used by many domestic and foreign scholars. The scale consists of 33 questions, including communication apprehension (11 questions), fear of negative evaluation (8 questions), test anxiety (8 questions) and classroom anxiety (6 questions). All the items adopted a Likert 5 point scoring scale, ranging from totally disagree to totally agree, scoring from 1 to 5, and nine of the questions (2, 5, 8, 11, 14, 18, 22, 28, and 32) are reversely scored.

**Research Means**

The survey data were input into the computer, using SPSS (11.0) package for statistical processing, and then descriptive statistical analysis and variance analysis were done.

**Results and Discussion**

**Descriptive Statistical Analysis of Foreign Language Learning Anxiety in Each Dimension**

The results are shown in Table 2:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Min</th>
<th>Max</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Communication apprehension</td>
<td>242</td>
<td>13.00</td>
<td>48.00</td>
<td>33.1446</td>
<td>6.72641</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fear of negative evaluation</td>
<td>242</td>
<td>8.00</td>
<td>36.00</td>
<td>22.9669</td>
<td>5.12489</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Test anxiety</td>
<td>242</td>
<td>9.00</td>
<td>38.00</td>
<td>23.2686</td>
<td>4.73862</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Classroom anxiety</td>
<td>242</td>
<td>7.00</td>
<td>26.00</td>
<td>16.4628</td>
<td>3.49402</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>242</td>
<td>45.00</td>
<td>143.00</td>
<td>95.8430</td>
<td>16.79385</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Valid N (listwise)</td>
<td>242</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As shown in Table 2, the average value of communication apprehension, fear of negative evaluation, test anxiety and classroom anxiety is 33.1446, 22.9669, 23.2686 and 16.4628, which shows the anxiety level of communication apprehension is the highest, and that of classroom anxiety is the lowest. Anxiety scores range from 45 to 143, and the average value is 95.8430. However, the average values of Lei Xiao’s research (2004), Zhang Huixiao’s research (2012), and Gao Yuan’s research (2011) were 94.52, 91.3 and 91.586, which indicates the anxiety level of the subjects in this study is higher.

**Foreign Language Learning Anxiety Difference Analysis of the Students from Different Subjects**

The descriptive statistical analysis and variance analysis of foreign language classroom anxiety in each dimension were made on college students from different subject areas. The results are shown in Tables 3 and 4:
Table 3. Descriptive Statistics of Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety in Each Dimension on College Students from Different Subjects

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimension</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Communication apprehension</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>arts</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>31.5254</td>
<td>6.09510</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>science</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>33.6885</td>
<td>6.32335</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>agriculture</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>33.2063</td>
<td>7.28046</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>engineering</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>34.1356</td>
<td>6.98880</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>total</td>
<td>242</td>
<td>33.1446</td>
<td>6.72641</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Fear of negative evaluation</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>arts</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>22.1017</td>
<td>4.26976</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>science</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>22.8852</td>
<td>4.66940</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>agriculture</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>23.0635</td>
<td>5.82230</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>engineering</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>23.8136</td>
<td>5.53196</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>total</td>
<td>242</td>
<td>22.9669</td>
<td>5.12489</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Test anxiety</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>arts</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>23.4576</td>
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<td>science</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>21.3607</td>
<td>4.30903</td>
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<td>63</td>
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<td>5.25129</td>
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<tr>
<td>engineering</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>24.4237</td>
<td>4.54177</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>total</td>
<td>242</td>
<td>23.2686</td>
<td>4.73862</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Classroom anxiety</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>arts</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>16.5254</td>
<td>3.18052</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>science</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>15.1148</td>
<td>3.11501</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>agriculture</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>16.7778</td>
<td>3.70459</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>engineering</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>17.4576</td>
<td>3.58792</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>total</td>
<td>242</td>
<td>16.4628</td>
<td>3.49402</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4. Variance Analysis of Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety in Each Dimension on College Students from Different Subjects

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimension</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Communication apprehension</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between groups</td>
<td>230.911</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>76.970</td>
<td>1.716</td>
<td>.164</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within groups</td>
<td>10673.027</td>
<td>238</td>
<td>44.845</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>10903.938</td>
<td>241</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Fear of negative evaluation</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between groups</td>
<td>87.454</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>29.151</td>
<td>1.111</td>
<td>.345</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within groups</td>
<td>6242.282</td>
<td>238</td>
<td>26.228</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>6329.736</td>
<td>241</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Test anxiety</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between groups</td>
<td>324.711</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>108.237</td>
<td>5.064**</td>
<td>.002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within groups</td>
<td>5086.831</td>
<td>238</td>
<td>21.373</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>5411.541</td>
<td>241</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Classroom anxiety</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between groups</td>
<td>175.724</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>58.575</td>
<td>5.039**</td>
<td>.002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within groups</td>
<td>2766.442</td>
<td>238</td>
<td>11.624</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>2942.165</td>
<td>241</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: * p<0.05; **p<0.01; *** p<0.001

As shown in Tables 3 and 4, there is a very significant difference in classroom anxiety dimension for students from different subject areas ($F_{(3,238)}= 5.039, P<0.01$), and there is a very significant difference in test anxiety dimension for students from different subject areas ($F_{(3,238)}= 5.064,P<0.01$).

The post hoc test found there is no significant difference in the dimensions of communication apprehension and fear of negative evaluation. But art students have a higher anxiety level than those from science ($P=0.024<0.05$). The anxiety level of science students is much lower than that of agricultural students ($P=0.007<0.01$), and much lower than that of engineering students ($P=0.000<0.001$). In the test anxiety dimension, the anxiety level of science students is lower than that of art students ($P=0.014<
0.05), much lower than that of agricultural students (P=0.003<0.01), and extremely lower than that of engineering students (P=0.000<0.001). Therefore, it can be seen that engineering students have the highest anxiety level in the two dimensions of classroom anxiety and test anxiety. This research result coincides with the college students’ passing rate of CET4 in grade 2012 from different subjects. The passing rate of CET4 is shown in Table 5:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Total number</th>
<th>Number passing CET4</th>
<th>Passing rate of CET4 (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Science</td>
<td>287</td>
<td>138</td>
<td>48.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arts</td>
<td>181</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>43.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agriculture</td>
<td>286</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>39.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engineering</td>
<td>331</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>25.68</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As shown in Table 5, the passing rate of CET4 of science students in grade 2012 is higher than that of engineering students by 14.40%, which indicates that there is negative correlation between test anxiety and test scores of students from different subject areas.

**Reasons and Countermeasures**

**Reasons for Engineering Students’ Highest Anxiety Level**
The reasons why the anxiety level of engineering students is the highest among the different subject areas are that the foreign language foundation of engineering students is weak, which can be proved by the average scores of the grading test. The average scores of engineering, agricultural, science and art students are 40.24, 45.57, 46.19 and 45.58 in grade 2012, and 42.76, 46.81, 49.17 and 47.02 in grade 2013. Besides, there is a clear link between gender and second language learning ability. Yu Xueyong (2005) concluded that the ability of female students in second language learning is significantly higher than that of male students. Shang Jianguo (2009) argued that female students’ inner desire to learn English is stronger than male students’, and female students are good at using effective English learning strategies compared to male students. Therefore, the language learning anxiety of female students is lower than that of male students. In this study, the proportion of male students and female students majoring in engineering is 53:3. These are the reasons to support the conclusion of this study: engineering students have the highest anxiety level.

**Countermeasures to Relieve Anxiety**
Teachers should design appropriate classroom teaching activities for engineering students, select vivid and interesting teaching materials of moderate levels of difficulty, cultivate their interests and use modern teaching methods of combining multimedia and networking to arouse the enthusiasm of students’ learning to ease classroom anxiety. In order to reduce engineering students’ test anxiety, teachers should focus on enhancing student’s self-confidence in the usual process of teaching, help students find their own way of learning, make study plans, and set up after-school study groups including male and female students in proper proportions. In this case, students can enhance their self-confidence in tests and test anxiety will be relieved.
Conclusion

From an overall point of view, this study concludes that engineering students have the highest anxiety level among all the subjects, and the anxiety level is the highest in communication apprehension and lowest in classroom anxiety. Based on the correlation analysis of the various dimensions of anxiety, we can conclude that there is no significant difference in the two dimensions of communication apprehension and fear of negative evaluation, but there are significant differences, very significant differences and extremely significant differences in the two dimensions of classroom anxiety and test anxiety.

This study enriches the research achievements in the foreign language learning anxiety degree of students from different subject areas. It is very meaningful to foreign language teaching. But the conclusion in this study has its limitations because the subjects are from the same university, Jilin Agricultural University. Investigations should be made in different ranks of colleges and universities. Furthermore, in this study we only used quantitative research methods. In future studies, we should adopt both quantitative and qualitative research methods to improve the reliability and validity.

Acknowledgements

First of all, I would like to extend my sincere gratitude to Professor Hong-cai Yan for his instructive advice and useful suggestions on our thesis. We are deeply grateful to his help in the completion of this thesis.

References


The Relationship between Foreign Language Listening Anxiety and Learners’ Performance

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[Abstract] This study investigates the relationship between foreign language listening anxiety and learners’ listening performance. It was conducted among 48 second-year non-English majors. Results indicate that Chinese college students’ foreign language listening anxiety is negatively correlated with the listening scores of CET-4. Based on the above analysis, some teaching methodologies and strategies to improve teaching proficiency are proposed accordingly, hoping to be helpful to English teaching.

[Keywords] foreign language listening anxiety; relationship; listening performance

Introduction
In recent years, in the area of second language acquisition, more and more researchers and educators have taken learner variables, especially affective factors into consideration because students are “physical, cognitive and primarily emotional beings” (Brown, 1987). Foreign language anxiety, as one of the most important affective variables, is a kind of complicated mental phenomenon specific to language learning. Horwitz, et al. (1986) defined foreign language anxiety as “a distinct complex of language learning arising from the uniqueness of the language learning process”. Listening is fundamental for language acquisition. It provides the input that is the raw material necessary for the acquisition process to occur. At the same time, influenced by the reform of English teaching and learning, many people have gradually realized the importance of improving listening teaching and learning, and a lot of new researches have been generated. The researchers, however, have neglected an important dimension of the listening process, and the affective factors, and in particular, the factor anxiety.

In the field of anxiety study, most researchers have focused their attention on general foreign language learning anxiety. More specific anxiety-like specific language-skills have been neglected. Therefore, this study sets out to study the influence of foreign language listening anxiety in listening comprehension.

Literature Review
Over the past decades, an upsurge of research on affective variables of second language acquisition has advanced in parallel with an increasing interest in the role of anxiety in second language learning. However, most studies have focused on the research of general language anxiety, but ignored the language-skill specific anxiety. Even fewer studies have focused specifically on second or foreign language listening anxiety.

Yu (1999), Vogely (1998), Kim (2000) and Yang (2000) conducted second language listening anxiety studies separately. Yu (1999, see Yang, 2000) adopted the FLCAS to test the participants’ anxiety in the listening process. He found that listening anxiety was positively related with some students’ grades, but there was no correlation with other students’ grades. At the same time, his study did not find the negative influence of anxiety on listening achievement. The research result is not very persuading because
the scale comes from the FLAS, which is suited to test general language anxiety, but not test listening anxiety. Kim (2000) conducted, in Korea, an anxiety study specifically related to listening skills. His study indicated that Korean university students indeed experience anxiety in response to listening comprehension, and a significant negative relationship is observed between listening anxiety and listening ability. His study also pointed out that anxiety interferes with second language listening, tension and worry over English listening and lack of self-confidence in listening are the main reasons of anxiety.

Chinese researchers have also done some work in this aspect. Based on the theory of facilitating and debilitating anxiety, Yang Jin (2000) used the adopted – an anxiety scale from Chen’s (1997) English – major Learners’ Oral Anxiety Test Scale to study the relationship between language anxiety and listening achievements. The results indicated that facilitating anxiety is significantly and positively correlated with listening achievements while debilitating anxiety is negatively correlated with listening achievements. However, the scale in this study is inappropriate and not very scientific without a high reliability and validity since his study scale is from an oral anxiety test and not specifically designed for listening anxiety. Zhou Dandan (2003) also studied foreign language listening anxiety of English-major students. Her study examined listening anxiety, the listening affective strategies and their relationships with listening achievements. The results indicated that anxiety had a negative correlation with listening comprehension, the use of affective strategies reduced the learners’ listening anxiety to some degree and the affective strategies were positively related with listening achievements.

It can be concluded from the above that only a few empirical studies have investigated foreign language listening anxiety using specifically designed scale for listening anxiety. Thus, more researches should be done to explore the nature and effect of listening anxiety.

**Methodology**

**Research Questions for the Present Study**
In order to explore the relationship between college students’ listening anxiety and their English achievement and other important variables, the following questions are posed:

1. Do Chinese university non-English majors experience foreign language listening anxiety, which includes facilitating anxiety and debilitating one?
2. What’s the relationship between foreign language listening anxiety and foreign language listening proficiency? Especially, how do facilitating listening anxiety relate with listening proficiency, and debilitating listening anxiety with listening proficiency?

**Participants**
The participants of this study were 49 first-year non-English majors of one intact class from the Engineering Department of Linyi University. They were all freshmen, aging from 18 to 22 and majoring in Mechanical Manufacturing and Automation. Thirteen of them were girls and thirty-five were boys. Among the collected questionnaires, one was invalid. Therefore, the actual number of participants is forty-eight.

The valid participants in this study had about 4 hours of English lessons every week and 2 hours of English listening class bi-weekly. They are preparing for the national CET-4 and attended the present examination.
Instruments
The instruments employed in this study were one listening test (CET-4, 2005, 6), two questionnaires: Foreign Language Anxiety Scale, Background Information Questionnaire and an interview. The questionnaires are on a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). The students are required to respond to only one choice of each item. For the purpose of avoiding the possibility of misunderstanding, all of the questionnaires were in Chinese.

Procedures
A listening test was conducted for the freshmen of non-English majors from one class at Linyi University. To ensure the validity and reliability of the test, the teacher told the participants the scores would be their daily class performances, which would account for 20% in the final overall course grades. Immediately after the listening test, the questionnaires for foreign language anxiety and background information were administered to the participants. Before they began to answer the questionnaires, the participants had been assured that these questionnaires were used only for research purpose and would not have any influence on their test performance. They were asked to choose their true feelings without pausing on each of them for too much time because there was no right or wrong answer to each item. Most of the participants spent ten to fifteen minutes to finish these items.

Data Collection and Analysis
The data of the questionnaires and Students’ listening scores of CET-4 were put into computer and analyzed with SPSS 13.0. Reliability analysis, descriptive analysis and correlation analysis were applied in this study.

Results and Discussion
Reliability of the FLLAS
To assess the quality of the FLLAS, a reliability analysis was carried out. The present study, using 48 non-English-major freshmen, yields an internal consistency coefficient of .8996 of the FLLA, .8665 of DLA and .8663 of LA, which are higher than Chen’s data in the experiment (.7551) and shows a good reliability of the scale. So, the scale is appropriately used as a further statistic analysis.

Descriptive Analysis
Descriptive analysis of the BIQ. Descriptive analysis of the BIQ in Table 1 shows the information of the participants’ ages, years of exposure to English study, self-rated listening proficiency, self-reported listening anxiety level, motivation to master English listening, and interest in listening study. According to the table, the age of the participants in this study ranges from 18 to 22 years old. The time of English studies was from 5 to 10 years. Because some students learned English at a secondary school and some others do not, some participants learned English longer than others. The table also shows the Mean and Std. Deviation of each item. The standard deviations of self-reported language anxiety and motivation are larger (1.079 and 1.069), which means at these two aspects, the students’ views are rather heterogeneous.
Table 1. General information of the BIQ

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Num.</th>
<th>Min.</th>
<th>Max.</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>20.15</td>
<td>.899</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>7.46</td>
<td>.850</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-rated</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.88</td>
<td>.866</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 is a descriptive analysis of the BIQ. But it tells us more detailed information of the participants’ self-rated English listening proficiency, self-reported anxiety levels, motivation to master listening and their interest in listening. The table reveals that 41.7% of the participants think their own English listening level is very low, 31.3% of the participants think their listening level is low, and 25% think their listening level is just so-so. At the same time 41.7% of the participants hold that they feel very anxious in their listening class. The Mean (m=3.17) and the Std. Deviation (p=1.079) also show a somewhat high anxiety level of the participants. Except for this information, the table illustrates that the participants in the present study have a high motivation to master their listening skill (m=4.41). In addition, the investigated students show a moderate response to the five-scale interest.

Table 2. Descriptive Analysis of the BIQ

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response Scale</th>
<th>Self-rated LP</th>
<th>Self-reported LA</th>
<th>Motivation</th>
<th>Interest</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>1.88</td>
<td>3.17</td>
<td>4.08</td>
<td>2.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Std. Deviation</td>
<td>.866</td>
<td>1.079</td>
<td>1.069</td>
<td>.981</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Frequency | 1 | 41.7% | 12.5% | 4.2% | 12.5% |
|          | 2 | 31.3% | 8.3%  | 2.1% | 16.7% |
|          | 3 | 25%   | 33.3% | 20.8%| 41.7% |
|          | 4 | 2.1%  | 41.7% | 27.1%| 29.2% |
|          | 5 | 4.2%  | 45.8% |      |       |

Descriptive analysis of the FLLAS. Table 3 is a descriptive statistic of the FLLAS. The total scores range from 34 to 170, with the Mean of 96.77, and Std. Deviation of 13.467. Facilitating listening anxiety includes item 3, 6, 8, 13, 14, 20, 22, 23, 24, 25, 27, 28, 30, 32, 34; while debilitating listening anxiety contains item 1, 2, 4, 7, 9, 10, 11, 12, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 21, 26, 29, 31, 33. The mean score of LP is 9.77 (the total listening score is 20) and the minimum of the score is only 3. This states the participants’ listening levels are low. What’s more, the mean of language anxiety is 96.77, which provided the information that the participants of this study experience a little high listening anxiety. However, the Mean of FLA (m=48.71) and DLA (m=48.06) presents a moderate facilitating anxiety level and debilitating anxiety level.

Table 3. Descriptive Analysis of the FLLAS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Min.</th>
<th>Max.</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>LP</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>9.77</td>
<td>3.459</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FLA</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>48.71</td>
<td>9.942</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DLA</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>48.06</td>
<td>18.988</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LA</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>96.77</td>
<td>13.467</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: LP: listening proficiency; FLA: facilitating listening anxiety; DLA: debilitating listening anxiety; LA: general English
Correlations among DLA, FLA, LA and LP. In order to explore the relationship between the anxiety scale and listening proficiency, Pearson correlation analysis was conducted with the second questionnaire. Table 4 sums up the relationship between LP and LA; LP and FLA; LP and DLA; LA and FLA; LA and DLA; FLA and DLA. DLA has a strong association with LA; they are positively correlated (r=.866, p<0.01). FLA and LA are negatively correlated (r=-.300, p<0.05). The general LA and LP have a significantly high negative correlation (r=-.740, p<0.01). The results reveal that the present Chinese university non-English majors have experienced a certain amount of listening anxiety. The higher the anxiety levels, the lower the listening comprehension score is. The correlation between DLA and LP (r=-.811, p<0.01) strongly confirmed the conclusion. Therefore, LA interferes with the process of listening comprehension. Listening comprehension is very stressful for learners. Listening, like reading is a receptive skill, but it involves serious time constraints on processing. Krashen has noted that listening “is highly anxiety provoking if [the discourse] is incomprehensible” (Young, 1992).

Table 4. Correlations Among LA, FLA, DLA and LP

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>LP</th>
<th>LA</th>
<th>DLA</th>
<th>FLA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>LP</strong></td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-.740</td>
<td>-.811**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>LA</strong></td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>-.740**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-.866**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.038</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>DLA</strong></td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>-.811**</td>
<td>.866**</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>FLA</strong></td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.546**</td>
<td>-.300*</td>
<td>-.736**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.038</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes:
*: Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).
**: Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

From the interview with the participants, it is learned that the participants experienced higher anxiety during their listening classes than their intensive reading classes. This is a good representation that listening to a tape is more stressful. As Damasio (1994), a neuroscientist, has pointed out, emotions have a primary role in one’s mental life and greatly influence how the brain’s cognitive functions operate. The reasons why students develop anxiety about listening are their negative self-concepts with regard to listening and low self-esteem regarding their ability in listening (Joiner & Catanzaro, 1996). Goleman (1995) reported “anxiety undermines the intellect”. This can be explained neurobiologically in listening context because anxiety “can create neural static, sabotaging the ability of the prefrontal lobe to maintain working memory”. Therefore, anxious students have trouble memorizing the information they get from the listening material in short-term memory, especially long sentences. So only a smaller part of information enters the processing stage in long-term memory.
On the other hand, it is also found that FLA and DLA are significantly correlated, the correlation is negative ($r=-.736, p<0.01$) and there exists a positive relationship between FLA and LP ($r=.546, p<0.01$). This argues that LA has both positive and negative effects on LP. It could promote listening study to some degree. In fact, Alpert and Harber (Scovel, 1978; see William, 1991) have stated that anxiety could facilitate or debilitate language learning. Based on his experimental research, Bailey (1983) has also pointed out that facilitating anxiety was one of the keys to success and closely related with competitiveness. The present statistic results can be explained that Chinese intermediate university students, who have had more than 5 years’ listening study experience, can control their emotions to some extent. They know moderate strain on listening learning is necessary, too much or too little hinders their study. Therefore, from the facilitative effect of anxiety for listening skill, listening teachers should notice this aspect in their teaching.

**Conclusion**

**Major Findings Concerning the Relationship between Listening Anxiety and Performance**

This study examined the foreign language listening anxiety experienced by non-English majors and explored the correlation between listening anxiety and students’ performances. The findings obtained from the statistical analysis of 48 participants’ data are as follows:

In general, the non-English majors under investigation experience considerably high levels of foreign language listening anxiety, which contains facilitating and debilitating listening anxiety. Listening anxiety has a negative correlation with listening proficiency. The more anxious listeners get, the lower scores they are likely to achieve. However, anxiety does not always impair listening comprehension. Facilitating anxiety can promote learners’ listening study.

**Implications of the Study**

This study projected a small picture of non-English majors’ listening anxiety and the correlations between students’ listening anxiety and their listening performances. Despite the potential limitations, the findings of the present study might have shed some light on the issues of affective factors in foreign language learning. The pedagogical implications are to be briefly discussed.

Be aware of students’ fear and problems about foreign language learning and listening comprehension. Teachers can have access to students’ anxiety and fear about listening comprehension by means of survey, interview, diaries and think aloud protocols and other means. Then teachers can help guide the students in the following aspects: (1) Inform the students to the fact that listening anxiety is shared by nearly everyone, and most of the other students experience similar fears of failure. Teacher’s sympathetic attitudes towards the problems and fears of students could motivate them to overcome their own anxiety; (2) Teach the students ways of adjusting their states of mind; (3) Tell the students to strengthen their confidence and motivation consciously; (4) Help the students establish realistic goals and predict possible difficulties; (5) Form an atmosphere of unity and mutual aid among all the students. In addition, in order to make listening less stressful, listening teachers need to do more exploration of facilitating anxiety levels, especially of strategy training. Strategy training is the effective way to facilitate learning.

Although the present study has rather significant results, certain limitations and suggestions need to be considered. First, there were only 48 samples and the participants were all freshmen, which may affect the result. Second, the study has mainly used quantitative analysis to explore the relationship.
Further studies might need to explore in great depth the students’ spontaneous reporting of how they feel about listening anxiety in methods such as learners’ diaries or introspective think-aloud procedures. Qualitative study also should be adopted to get more information about how to deal with anxiety problem and coping strategy. Therefore, further researches that adopt a broader perspective are needed to add to the findings of this study.

References
Explanation of Functional Linguistic Theories on Ethnic Classic Translation Text

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[Abstract] According to the theories of Bühler’s language function and Reiss’s text functions, translation strategies are closely related to language functions, text type, and text genre. Within this frame, through the analysis of the English verse of the Daur Uqun narrative classic Shaolang and Daifu, it is argued that the expressive function plays a major role, whereas the referential function and the appellative function have unique functions, respectively, and the key question is how to achieve the functional equivalence between the source text and the target text.

[Keywords] functional theories; functional equivalence, Daur Uqun narrative classics; culture-specific words

Introduction
Translation is a cross-cultural communication, so it requires exchanging information and mutual introduction. Cultural differences in different nations constitute not only the necessity of exchange, but also a barrier in communication. In the case of literary text translation, it is inadequate to transmit the general information since it requires the translator's re-creation of the art. Namely, the translator should grasp the spirit and essence of the original work and apply suitable literary language to the original work to exhaustively reproduce the content and form of the original work. In the translation of literary text, it is our major concern about how to reach functional equivalence between the original text and the target text.

Functionalist theory
Karl Bühler, German psychologist and functional linguist, gave a description of the language mode “Tool Mode” in 1934 (Zhang, 2009, p. 53). In Bühler’s language tool mode, there are five components: the symbol, the speaker, the addressee, the context and the discourse (Zhang, 2009, p. 53). Bühler proposed that there were three basic functions: referential, expressive and ‘appellative’ (Nord, 2001, p. 40). The relationship between context and language reflects the informative function of language; the relationship between the speaker and the symbol reflects the language expressive function; the relationship between the addressee and the symbol reflects the appellative function (Zhang, 2005, p. 51). Bühler’s language function has had such a great influence on the linguistic world that many later linguists have drawn lessons from his theory, such as Jacob’s language functions and Halliday’s three-metafunction theory that refers to ideational function, interpersonal function and textual function.

Katherina Reiss, a leading representative of the German functional approach who was deeply influenced by Bühler’s theory, insists that a study should be conducted by combining the translation strategies and language functions with text types and genre. Borrowing from Karl Bühler’s tripartite division on language function, she divides text type into three types – informative, expressive and operative – and points out that the text type determines the specific methods of translation (Zhang, 2009, p. 54). An article may also possess several functions, but there is always a leading function. To judge a
good translation is to see whether it conveys the dominant function of the source text. Functional equivalence plays a major role in good text translation.

Although, Reiss’ text typology is criticized as being too rigid and one-sided, she admits that the majority of the text, in fact, has mixed forms and multi-dimensional structures. Sometimes they can be mixed with various features that are seemingly contradictory (Snell-Hornby, 2006, p. 32). Another fan of Bühler’s language function theory is Peter Newmark, a senior expert in the British translation world who combines the language function with translation strategy. Newmark believes that the purpose of using language is to realize the function of information, expression and appeal (Zhang, 2005, p. 74). For example, with the expressive function, people create imaginative literature, autobiographical novels and make powerful speeches; with the informative function, they write reports, papers, memos and textbooks; and language with the appellative function is widely used in advertising, promotional materials, popular novels and other genres (Zhang, 2005, p. 74).

In linguistic perspectives, literary language is defined as either a variant of the daily communication methods or the creative use of the language’s intrinsic potential. It is generally believed that literary language has a unique associative, expressive and aesthetic meaning. For the translation of literary works, it needs not only to convey the basic information of the source works, but also the aesthetic information that the literary works possess. Assuming that there is information quantification, which has relative borderline and relative stability between non-literary works and literary works, then the aesthetic information in the literary works is a relatively unlimited, sometimes even an elusive, “variable” (Xie, 2002, p. 191). This paper will take the English verse of the Daur Uqun narrative classic Shaolang and Daifu as an example, and will examine the functional equivalence between the source text and the target text from the standpoint of functionalist approaches.

**Functional Analysis on an English Translation of Ethnic Minority Classics**

The primary translating value of Shaolang and Daifu lies in the fact that it can introduce, publicize and help readers realize the value of the original work across national borders (Wang, 2004, p. 69). Moreover, it can make readers learn the value of Chinese ethnic minority narrative poems. Viewing the translation of Shaolang and Daifu as a part of ethnic minority literature, it will carry a great weight to the enrichment and development of national literature.

According to Reiss’s text typology, the feature of informative text is usually simple, mainly stating facts such as information, knowledge, and ideas, etc. Expression-oriented functional text refers to literary creative works with an aesthetic function, while appeal-oriented functional text features affect the reader, appealing to them (Nord, 2001, p. 42). Shaolang and Daifu is a Daur Uqun narrative poem consisting of talking and singing, which is narrative, lyrical and preaching. It covers a wide range of subjects and contents, involving all aspects of the Daur peoples’ lives. Uqun is a kind of folk singing form among the Daur people. Generally, it has fixed regularity. One stanza is composed of four lines. It spreads widely and has a strong impact on the Daur people. Daur Uqun comes from the common people and reflects the lives of the Daur working people, such as their national psychology, moral sentiments, and their happiness and sorrows. It includes such forms as historical legends, fairy tales, morals, proverbs, folk tales and ballads. It summarizes the Daur peoples’ lives in the fields of politics, economy, thought and religion.

Shaolang and Daifu is one of the typical Uqun in the Daur literary world. Shaolang and Daifu is about Daur brothers who rose in revolt at the beginning of the 20th century. When Shaolang and Daifu
were fighting against tyrants and evil landlords, a lot of legends about their heroic deeds spread along the Nen River. Although they failed and sacrificed their lives for the uprising, their story was recorded in Daur Uqun forever. It gave the ordinary people a new lease on life to the heroes in their own emotions and imaginations. As a result, the heroes have become unusually brilliant in the epic.

The original Chinese text (source text) is equipped with the preaching, lyrical and aesthetic functions, while the English versions (target text) retains the basic expected functions of the source text, but mainly focuses on the lyric and narrative function. With reference to the three kinds of functions we discussed above, first of all, Shaolang and Daifu is literary narrative poetry, and the expressive function occupies an important position which accounts for the largest proportion in the target text; secondly, the informative function and some basic information are scattered in the text. Because of the different backgrounds and different recipients, the appellative function in the target text accounts for a small proportion, which is slightly different from the source text. The recipients of the target text are the scholars who are interested in Chinese ethnic minority classics and the common readers in the western world. For general readers, the appellative function of the text is greatly weakened due to the different cultural context.

Three Functions Explained in the English verse of Shaolang and Daifu

Expressive Function: Beauty in Sound and Artistic Conception
The rhythm of poetry in translation is one of the key elements. To some extent, good rhythm determines the beauty of a poem. In 1979, Xu Yuanchong put forward “Three Good Principles”, namely “good in meaning, sound and form” (Xu, 1979, p. 10). Good sound meets the requirements of neat rhyme and pleasing rhythm, as well as smooth and fluent to read. On the issue of poetry translation, he makes it clear, “it would rather be true to the rhythm and rhyme. Otherwise the poems are neither fish nor fowl” (Xu & Pan, 2001, p. 57). So it seems that the basis of beauty of the rhythm is to keep the rhyme of the original text. The original text of Shaolang and Daifu consists of six narrative poems, among which five of them are rhymed on “Jiang Yang” rules except the second that is rhymed on “Zhong Dong” rules (Qiqihar, 2002, p. 8). For the beauty of rhythm, considering the foot of every line, the poems of English verse are rhymed on the second line and fourth line. In English, there are two basic feet: iambus (iambic foot) and trockee (trochaic foot). In the translation of Shaolang and Daifu, we adopt iambic foot, namely, in which the stress of the syllables of each line fall on the even numbers, while the unstressed syllables fall on the odd numbers. This makes the English translation rhythmic and melodious, full of sense of beauty and auditory satisfaction. It also conforms to the singing feature of the original text. There are four lines in every stanza that can be sung repeatedly in Uqun. The advantage is that it can not only help to narrate, but also accord with Daur's habit of appreciating music. The artistic conception of the English verse is displayed in the following aspects.

The vivid character portrayal. Vivid character portrayal is used in the poem to describe Shaolang, Daifu and other characters. The language used in the poem is colloquial and popular among the common people. For example:

Shaolang Meng was tall and sturdy.
His face was red; his brow were thick;
He loved singing and Hanbo dance.
And he was brave and knew each trick (Zhang, 2012, p. 207).
Brave Daifu had a dark stockier figure,
And was obstinate but honest;
Single-handed, he could throttle a goat.
With one kick, kill a calf largest (Zhang, 2012, p. 208).

The first four lines depict Shaolang as an intelligent man, while the second four lines depict Daifu as a brave man. The descriptions show the two brothers’ different personalities. Readers seem to see the real people and hear their sounds.

The use of parallelism. The use of parallelism in the poem strengthens the narrating effect and makes the story more impressive and unforgettable. For instance:

The hero was just Daifu the brave.
The hero was just Shaolang the wise;
The heroes were sixteen tough men.
The heroes inspired awe in people’s eyes (Zhang, 2012, p. 276).

There are many such parallel lines in the entire poem. In addition, the poem makes use of folk tunes to lyrically narrate the four seasons of spring, summer, autumn and winter. It also employs a folk singing form to chant the praises of Shaolang for his moving deeds. It is thus effective and forceful.

The blending of narration and lyrical description. Nearly 5,000 lines in this epic centers on narration, but it, by no means, lacks vivid lyrical descriptions with emotions. The blending of narration and lyrical description makes the poem full of artistic appeal. For example:

Spring breeze caressed green grassland,
Spring breeze sent lilies in full bloom;
When Shaolang patrolled the sweep of the land,
He saw soldiers in the east loom (Zhang, 2012, p. 279).

The Nen River surged forward with a rumbling sound,
Ice-cubes which unlocked the road were rolling:
Shaolang and Daifu looked at the river.
Their hearts were upset with the ice raft rising and falling (Zhang, 2012, p. 127).

In the poem, there are a lot of such examples that begin with depicting scenery leading to a plot in a typical setting and then launches into narrating. This kind of writing is closely related to the plot and atmosphere at that time. It is reinforced in the combination of narration and lyrical description.

We have to say that the narrative poem is successful in the application of the language. Daur language is one of the independent language branches of the Mongolian linguistic subfamily of the Altai family. It has its own unique language structure and vocabulary. Though the poem has lost some language characteristics when translated into Chinese, the entire poem is still featured by the folk language characteristic of the Daur nationality. With distinct rhythm and music sense, the narrative poem is loved
by Daur people not only because its language is succinct and clear, simple and unadorned with distinct rhythm and music, but also because it is suitable for reading and singing.

In Daur folk literature, the poem in the form of Uqun is a precious legacy preserved by excavation, organization and rescue work. With highly political, historical and literary values, it becomes a monument in the Daur folk literary history. The significance of the poem is that it has enriched Chinese folk literature, and promoted the development of our nation’s culture.

**Informative Function: Transmitting Cultural Features of Ethnic Minority Group**

The informative function of English translation mainly refers to culture-specific items or culture-loaded words in an ethnic minority group. In the source text of *Shaolang and Daifu*, the culture specific items include the name of the city and village and the proper names of the food, clothing and living. Obviously, their main function is to convey information. It cannot be denied that culture-specific items may have dual or multiple functions in the target text.

In order to retain ethnic minority cultural features and imbibe the cultural heritage of this Chinese ethnic minority group, upholding the principle of “name after his masters” (Lin, 1998, p. 77), the translation of culture specific items of *Shaolang and Daifu* keeps the Daur original sound and adopts the “foreignization” method as the main translation strategy.

For example, in some of the names of the Daur people – Harinqien, Naimenqien, and Durbunqien in the Daur language, – “qien” is attached to the noun to show that the place is attributed to the person who owns it. It is a way for the clan head to claim his land and his victory. In addition, there are specific words related to Daur music and dance such as the “Hanbo dance”, and “Jaandaal” according to the Daur Encyclopedia (Manduertu, 2007, p. 443). These two culture-specific words can not simply be translated using Chinese Pinyin because of their culture-specific meaning and ethnic color. When translating, these cultural specific items are expressed in the form of transliteration of the Daur language to highlight the features of the Daur culture to achieve the goal of our translation.

**Appellative Function: Weakening to Some Extent**

The appellative function of target text is not strong as the source text. Restricted by the different ideology, the reader of the source text can understand the background of the text and can easily comprehend that the uprising of Shaolang and Daifu is the fighting result of class and national contradictions (in the late Ming and early Qing Dynasty). For Chinese readers, it is easy to first establish a primary emotional tendency that is due to the authenticity of Shaolang and Daifu’s images (character and mental status). Moreover, because of the aesthetic object is caused by distance interval, it becomes easily accepted by readers, and so the reader’s feelings unconsciously transfer into the plot of the text. However, when translated into English, the cultural context changes. In order to make western readers understand the text better, for some of the dialects and spoken language, it adopts the strategy of assimilation or zero translation, which greatly reduces the intensity of appeal function and causes a certain deviation in the appellative function in the target text. For instance, the line of “The blind horseflies like stinging meat” (Zhang, 2012, p. 121) is a kind of reduction since the Chinese line also offers the latter part “the leopard accompanies the wolf”. Nonetheless, we can still feel the appellative function of the target text from the vivid distinct description of the characters of Shaolang and Daifu, an intricate plot linked to the story, and the constant change of narration and lyrical lines, together with the figurative language of metaphor, parallelism and hyperbole. There is no doubt that it is still a touching story.
Conclusion

Reiss, in her book *The Potentials and Limitations: Categories and Criteria for Translation Quality Assessment* (1971), points out that text function should be listed as one of the criteria in translation criticism, and translation criticism should be based on the text function relationship between the source text and the target text. According to Reiss, the ideal translation would be one “in which the aim in the TL (target language) has equivalent with regard to the conceptional content, linguistic form and communicative function of a SL (source-language) text” (Reiss, 1977/1989, p. 112). But in reality, not all of the translation aims or functions of the source text can reach equivalence with the target text. After all, equivalence is not a must in all translations. Therefore, the function of translation is prior to the equivalence criterion. Similarly, in order to fulfill the expectation of equivalence between TL and SL, the English translation of Chinese ethnic minority classics should give priority to functional equivalence to achieve the purpose of cross-cultural communication.

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References


Cognitive Research on Lexical Iconicity in EST

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[Abstract] This study aims at exploring the lexical iconicity of EST from the perspective of cognition, so that EST learners or translators should take iconicity into consideration. It’s an effective learning method to improve the speed and accuracy of reading and translating.

[Keywords] iconicity; EST; cognition

Introduction
Iconicity (Haiman, 1985) is an important issue in cognitive linguistics and a basic feature of linguistic symbols in contrast to arbitrariness. It plays a significant role in the exploration of the relation between language and cognition (Bellugi, & Klima, 1975). English for Science and Technology (EST), as a variety of functional language style, is on the basis of common English, having its particular characteristic and style. Science and technology ranges from natural science, social science to geography and oceanography, etc. Thousands of specialized words are involved in it. With the rapid development of science and technology, more and more new terms and names are produced. Each field has its own specialized dictionary. However, no matter what kind of specialty they have, the basic characteristics are shown and determined by the features of specialty and stylistics.

Formation and Features of EST Words (Hao, 2006)

Formation of English Technical Terms

Pure technical words. For example, hydroxide (氢氧化物), diode (二极管), isotope (同位素), or promethazine (异丙嗪) etc. They are internationally accepted and featured by rigorous words, standardized form and single meaning.

Common technical words. These words refer to those used in different fields, such as frequency, density, energy, and magnetism, etc. Compared with the pure technical words, common technical words are widely used and have higher frequency.

Semi-technical words. Most of these kinds of words are originated from common English words, such as the word feed. The basic meaning of this word is to give food to and raise. In EST, it can be displayed as promote, flow, carry, or power, etc. In other fields, it might be word service. The basic meaning of this word is “work done by one person or one group that benefits another”. In EST, it means assistance, employment, operation, inspection, delivering, provision, enlisting, and repair, etc.

Main Features of EST Words

Specialization of common words. The semi-technical words and partly common words are all from common words which are generally used (Zhu, 2005). That’s the specialization of common words. They are quoted into the new technical field, having different meanings of the word and then becoming the part of the technical words.
The key feature of common technical words is they are widely used in several specialties, and is adopted to express the concept or meaning in each field, even in the same. For example, adjustment (Accounting), 理算 (Marine losses); transmission 发射 (Radio engineering), 传动, 变速 (Mechanics): 透射 (Physics), 遗传 (Medicine).

**Abstract nouns.** Many abstract nouns are used owing to their precise.
e.g.: insulate – insulation move – movement leak – leakage

Considering the procedures, phenomena and the outcome of research, scientists are more likely to choose this variety of noun to show the characteristics which are mentioned above.

More derivative words as the adjectives and descriptive words. Some adjectives, such as descriptive words, are derived from verbs or nouns, especially to show number, being big or small, nature, or shape, etc. The commonly used suffixes are: -al, -ary, -eal, -eto, -ic, -oid, -ose, -ous, and -y (Hao, 2006). For instance, tubular organ 管状器官, or basic dyes 碱性染料.

**Lexical Iconicity of EST**

It goes without saying that EST terms are widely considered as the key of EST discourse which occupies an extremely significant place in EST learning. Based on the different varieties, this section presents the following four aspects of EST words, including iconicity of order, iconicity of distance, polysemy (Haiman, 1978) and association.

**Iconicity of Order**

Iconicity of order has a wide use in EST, especially in medicine, biology and computing field. It can be divided into iconicity of word order and iconicity of space in the study. First, in cognitive grammar, all the morphemes are the units of symbols which include prefix, root and suffix (Haiman, 2009); the three key elements are to enlarge vocabularies. Taking several medical morphemes and other morphemes in each field for example:

The usual medical roots: gastr (胃), col (大肠), enter (小肠), pneumon (肺), and bronch (支气管), etc. The usual suffix: itis (炎), ptosis (下垂), and ectomy (切除), etc. The usual prefix: brady (慢), tachy (快), dextr (右), sinistr (左), and inter (之间), etc. The other roots are macro (宏), micro (微), histo (组织), and meta (元), etc.

Secondly, learners need to know the rules of EST word-formation. It’s no doubt that many EST words are formed by derivation, such as audio (声音). From this root, the learners will know audio card (声卡) or audio conference (电话会议). The rule of iconicity of order presents the word-formation evidence of several morphemes. Iconicity of word order refers to unit sequence of language signs, and resembles the order of thinking and concept of the culture of which it represents.

The third example comes from computing words. There is a variety of equipment in the computer field. Taking the English version of “同步接收传输器” into consideration, it follows the rule of word order from front to back. Syn- means together, -chronous means to happen at the same time, transmit means to send messages, and -er is to show somebody or something. The four morphemes are combined together to form synchronous transmitter. The fourth example comes from agriculture field. Darrell G. Schulze talks about “the schematic representation of phosphate adsorption by forming inner-sphere complexes involving monodentate and bidentate bonding on a goethite surface” (2014). The two are professional words in soil science, mono- means single or one, bi- means two or double, -den means tooth, and -tate is to show the shape of something. The three morphemes are combined together to form monodentate.
Iconicity of Distance

Iconicity of distance (Haiman, 1985) involves both formal and conceptual distance. Based on the theory of cognitive linguistic of experimental philosophy, language structure comes from human being’s cognition and enlightenment from the outer world. Iconicity of distance is the outcome of conceptual distance which reflects on the language form. Thus, the distance of language signs resembles the conceptual distance (Feng, 2005). Taking the human body as an example, it resembles a dimensional container which includes both inside or out. Taking the medical words *inhale* and *excretion* as examples, they refer to the two procedures of the human body respectively. *Inhale* includes the procedure of inside and excretion includes the procedure of out. In EST words, conceptual distance is embedded in some derivations which are combined by the root and the prefix which shows the numbers.

Table 1. Some New Words Combined by the Numeral Prefix and Root

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Prefix</th>
<th>Angle</th>
<th>Ann</th>
<th>cycle</th>
<th>later</th>
<th>gon</th>
<th>hedron</th>
<th>Ped/pod/pus</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Root</td>
<td>Angle</td>
<td>Ann</td>
<td>cycle</td>
<td>later</td>
<td>gon</td>
<td>hedron</td>
<td>Ped/pod/pus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mon-</td>
<td>triangle</td>
<td>biennial</td>
<td>monocycle</td>
<td>trilateral</td>
<td></td>
<td>Monohedron</td>
<td>Monopodia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uni-</td>
<td>quadrangle</td>
<td>triennial</td>
<td>bicycle</td>
<td>quadrilateral</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Dipus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tri-</td>
<td>pentangle</td>
<td>Quadrenni-al</td>
<td>tricycle</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>trihedron</td>
<td>biped</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bi-/di-</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>tetrahedron</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Twi-</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Pentahedr-on</td>
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<td></td>
<td>hexahedr-on</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Researchers can not get the clear definition and understanding in EST discourses without the connection of conceptual closeness and cognition (Su, 2008). Taking “parabolic flowers” for example, the readers are puzzled by the combination of the two in a scientific sentence. In fact, there is no relation between the two. Only a superficial meaning may be obtained. Human being’s cognition to this only exists on the shape and the flowers. Obviously, it doesn’t cater to the purpose of understanding in technical discourse. By having further research, such life might take the form of flowers with a parabolic shape may focus on dim sunlight. Flowers with such shapes are found in Arctic areas on Earth, where the plants have evolved to maximize solar energy. Consequently, the nearer the conceptual distance has, the better understanding can be obtained.

Polysemy

Matters are different when we consider polysemy, which has related meanings mapped onto the same form. Operationally, polysemy may be defined as recurrent homonymy, on the strength of the hypothesis that recurrent similarity of form must reflect similarity in meaning. (Haiman, 2009).

In the *Oxford Dictionary*, polysemy refers to the ambiguity of an individual word or phrase that can be used (in different contexts) to express two or more different meanings. First, this part presents the scope of the words which are ranged over in EST. From the division of the types of EST words, polysemy often exists in semi-EST words and common-EST words. Secondly, this part presents the basic model of polysemy. In the viewpoint of linguistics, any word in a language involves the combination of the form and meaning. Generally speaking, it includes two types: name transfer and sense transfer. Name transfer refers to a name which can be transferred to the other meaning having the relation with the original, and making the two have co-existence, such as equator (赤道). The meaning of it has relative icon with the other meaning “大圆”. They are all referring to circles (which are used to separate sth. on average). Therefore,
The equator is used to refer to “大圆”. The other one is sense transfer. It refers to a meaning which can be used to show the other meaning having relation with the original, but the new name still keeps the original meaning while obtaining the new, such as sand(沙). It also means semi (半; for instance, sand-blinded (半瞎的). Thirdly, this part deals with the arbitrariness of noun forms and extension of meanings. The extension of the meaning of one word often embodies the varieties of relations with the novelty, such as green. Green vegetables mean fresh, while green fruits mean immature. Consequently, green has the new meaning “新鲜的，未成熟的”. Some of the EST words are derived from the basic meaning, such as bottleneck. Its original meaning is “瓶颈”. In EST discourse, it means “阻碍，障碍物”, therefore, it presents that there exists semantic iconicity in the meanings of the word.

The fourth is the mutual conflict and mutual limitation of the words. Different combination of words can produce meaning variations and polysemy. This can be shown by a sequence of words, such as measure. In angular measure, it means (角)测度; in greatest common measure, it means “最大公约数”. Synecdoche, metonymy and metaphor can be used as the common methods to analyze polysemy. Metonymy refers to the substitution of the name of an attribute or feature for the name of the thing itself. such as, “Hertz” (澳大利亚, 物理学家, 本为人名) is also used to show “赫兹” (一种国际频率单位). Metaphor is a figure of speech in which an expression is used to refer to something that does not literally denote in order to suggest a similarity, such as, crane (鹤) which is also used to show “起重机” (Zhu, 2005).

Polysemy sometimes relies on the chain of associations and then the existence of one certain indication approaches to the real target meaning. Thus, the formal similarity between indirect things can be explained by this phenomenon.

*Association*

This section investigates a widespread tendency and lets it be interpreted and used. It’s the second half of the isomorphism hypothesis that maintains that there is a single linguistic structure which recurrently associates with the same cluster of meanings, then those meanings are related (Haiman, 2009). This statement basically presents the relation between iconicity and association. E.g. 1. It produced a lot after the key opened.

The subordinate clause together with its subordinating conjunction is shifted to the front of the sentence. (E.g. 2. After the key opened, it produced a lot.

For this part we should be concerned with two aspects that are related with EST words. One is from the associative relation, and the other are the words from the same sequence. Simply speaking, some of the words have a relative relationship. Thus, the associative relation forms the iconicity meaning of the two. For example, man’s relative word is woman, (general English); hardware’s relative word is software; the relative word of transparency is turbidity, etc. The other one is some words that belong to the same sequence are often attracted mutually and change the form at the same time. For example, if head is used to show “源头”, thus mouth can be used to show “河口”. Head and mouth belong to the same word sequence; they develop the inner-relative effectiveness when one is used in one certain field. In Haiman’s point of view, association occurs when two categories are related on the basis of their sharing incidental properties. Haiman also mentions this treatment in his statement (1980). By the analysis to Haiman’s theory, the author investigates that almost any concept may be associated upon the diagrammatic shape of language, the diagrammatic forms are seem to be more iconic.

All in all, research on the lexical iconicity of EST takes a new study point of view, having a better understanding on the relationship between language form and its meanings and exploring the instinctive
connection between EST style and people’s cognition and thinking (Halliday, 1985). Iconicity should be considered in translating new scientific and technique information, which contributes a lot to the communication of science and technology.

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References


Study on Chinese Motion-Emotion Metaphor
from a Perspective of Social Cognition

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[Abstract] There are three prevalent theoretical perspectives on metaphor in cognitive linguistics: (universal) conceptual metaphors, discourse metaphors, and language-consciousness interactionism. This paper attempts to explore the interaction among individual cognition, social interactions, and cultural norms through Chinese motion-emotion metaphor from a perspective of social cognition. It is an apparent support for the language-consciousness interactionism by means of comparative study of Chinese and English motion-emotion metaphor. Considerable overlap and specificity of language/culture are shown simultaneously.

[Keywords] motion-emotion metaphor; social cognition; social behaviors; environment

Introduction
The topic of metaphor has drawn intellectual pursuits since remote antiquity and can be traced back to the ancient Greeks, who listed rhetoric as one of their seven Liberal Arts and metaphor as one of the paramount rhetorical devices. Smart methods have been tried in studying metaphor, viewing it syntactically, pragmatically, and cognitively. In cognitive linguistics, there are three prevalent theoretical perspectives of metaphor study: (universal) conceptual metaphors (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980), discourse metaphors, and language-consciousness interactionism. Trying to discover the evidence of support for these positions, Zlatev, Blomberg, and Magnusson (2012) conducted an empirical study to compare motion-emotion metaphors (MEMs) in English, Swedish, Bulgarian, and Thai, focusing on the source domain MOTION, showing some support for all three perspectives. A considerable degree of overlapping of MEMs among the four languages supported the universalism of conceptual metaphor theory, while clear differences supported a more cultural-specific approach. When taking all these results into consideration, there is strong support for the interactionist view (Zlatev, Blomberg, & Magnusson, 2012, pp. 425-426).

Previous study on metaphors with emotion as the target domain, or emotional metaphors in English, concerns various fields such as sociology, psychology, and psychophysiology, as well as comparative studies. Effective tools have been provided for the construal of metaphorical constructions, which is also effective to analyze emotional metaphors, from Jim Averill (1980) to Zoltan Kovecses (2000), and to the Conceptual Blending Theory (1997). The study of emotional metaphors in China originated in the first collections of poems Shijing (1059 B.C.E. - 476 B.C.E.) with many metaphorical expressions (Cheng, 1985). Since the 1990s, Chinese domestic linguists began to introduce Cognitive Methodology, affecting the study of metaphor, as well. Specific studies on metaphor of anger, and happiness, etc. with further comparison between Chinese and English explored the cultural overlap and cultural specificity; Ning Yu (1995) is an example. Actually, the result of the comparative study on motion-emotion metaphor in four languages by Zlatev, et al. (2012), in which motion is the source domain and emotion the target domain,
demonstrates the language-consciousness interactionism with full evidence and, furthermore, implies socio-cognitive functionality.

**Socio-cognitive Approach**

“The study of social cognition concerns how people make sense of other people and themselves. ...social cognition departs from the general principles of cognition in some ways: compared to objects, people are more likely to be causal agents, to perceive as well as being perceived, and to involve intimately the observer’s self. ...people frequently change and are unavoidably complex as targets of cognition...” (Fiske & Taylor, 2013, pp. 26-27).

A socio-cognitive approach has been applied to the study of MEM in Chinese with a similar equation $M=f(P, E)$ (motion is regarded as the function of a person and his or her environment) to the famous Lewin’s psychological equation $B=f(P, E)$ (behavior is the function of a person and his or her environment), both implying the interaction between the participants and their social behaviors. Here, M refers to motion in MEM, and E refers to environment, linguistic, and non-linguistic contexts in motion-emotion expression. It also implies the social norms in the environment, which includes the individuals, the others, the social behaviors, and the environment out of the individual. The social interaction involved in the equation is represented in the following processes: first, the interaction between the perception of the physical behaviors of individuals and people’s experiences; second, the interaction between the mental representation of the physical behaviors and their conceptualizations; and third, the cognitive transformation of the external environment. For example:

(a) 我的心飞走了。

$Wode \ xin \ fei \ zou \ le$

$my \ heart \ fly \ go \ away \ PFV$

$\approx \ I \ am \ out-of-minded.$

In this motion-emotion expression, the mapping from the source domain (心飞走/ xin fei zou/ heart fly go away) to the target domain (“out-of-mind” emotion) is conceptualized by the interactional process among the subject/agent/ wode xin, the Person: wo/I, the motion 心飞走 and the environment created by and surrounded by the subject and the motion. The reason why the motion “FLY AWAY” in the environment can be cognitively transformed into “out-of-mind” emotion is due to the interactional process shown in Figure 1:

Person: wo/I
Environment: person, subject, and motion
Subject/agent: wode xin
My heart
Motion/Behavior: fei zou
fly go away

Motion in the environment

Cognitive transformation

Emotion: out-of-minded

$FLY \ AWAY=f(MY \ HEART, E)$

$M=f(P, E)$

Figure 1. Sample Case of the Cognitive Transformation Process of MEM “wo de xin fei zou le”
Chinese Motion-Emotion Metaphor from Socio-Cognitive Perspective

Hypotheses

Based on the above equation, \( M=f(P, E) \), from a socio-cognitive perspective, we bring forward some hypotheses on the study of motion-emotion metaphor: first, the interaction can be processed within a culture and across cultures, as well; second, the understanding these metaphors, no matter intercultural or cross-cultural, share a lot of common with body experiences and mental representations on the one hand, but preserves their language/culture specificity on the other hand (Zlatev, Blomberg & Magnusson, 2012); third, the degree of the overlap of MEMs is in direct proportion to the degrees of the interaction; last, the effect of such interaction can be testified through the understanding of MEMs cross culturally with regard to the emergence of such metaphors. To test these hypotheses, we made a case study on motion-emotion metaphor in Chinese and a cross-linguistic study later with specific questions concerning the following:

1. How to choose the corpus (sources, steps, principles)?
2. What are the roles of the participants in the interaction?
3. How about the frequency of the occurrences of organs in the source domain?
4. What about the frequency of positive emotions and negative emotions in the target domain?
5. Is there some correspondence in other languages, and what are their similarities and differences?
6. What is the culture-specificity of Chinese MEMs?

Corpus Gathering and Analysis

In previous studies made by Zlatev, et al. (2012), a method based on native or near-native speaker knowledge has been mainly used to identify MEMs. In this study, speaker intuition has mostly been used to direct the search, whereas all expressions (except the English MEMs taken from the Zlatev et al. (2012) study), are actual examples found in current language corpora, to a large extent in Academia Sinica Balanced Corpus of Modern Chinese with 10 million words. The dictionary of XDHYCD2005FifthEd accounts for another part, checking and providing some authentic examples for the selected motion verbs. Some online dictionaries, such as Webster, Oxford, Longman, Xinhua, and cihai have also been consulted, especially in the search of creative metaphors.

Theoretically, the starting point for the investigation was to make a list of all motion verbs in the Zlatev, et al. (2012) study and to find the corresponding Chinese ones with overlapping semantics. Actually, we started from all possible expressions from 10418 Chinese sentences with both motion and emotion expressed in the meantime, primarily aiming at identifying metaphors in a running text and a discourse, not for searching for specific metaphors. Therefore, a mixture of intuition and observation methods was used in the search and selection of metaphors. During this course, we try to discard word-to-word translation. Sometimes, new MEMs have been discovered, and we test them in the corresponding dictionaries.

Selection and Classification of MEMs

In order to delimit the material for the study and to unify all MEMs we have selected in English and Chinese, the following selection criteria were used as adapted from those mentioned by Zlatev, et al. (2012):
i. The sentence in which the MEM occurs does not express actual motion;

ii. Substitution of figure expression in the MEM can lead to actual motion in a sentence.

iii. Motion is expressed by the verb-root and not only in a satellite or preposition.

iv. The expression of the figure denotes the self or a part of the self in a MEM.

v. Both source (motion) and target (emotion) meanings are accessible to speakers.

After these five selection criteria, many candidate motion-metaphors in the three languages, generated through corpus gathering, were removed from the analysis. For example, in (b) there is actual motion (Criterion i), while (c) is non-actual motion and expresses emotion. In examples like (d), what moves are emotions and not the self (Criterion iv), while in (e) it is some other agent that moves, and not the self, either.

(b) He trembled with anger.

c) 四姨太太便马上 拉 下 脸
   ... Lia xia nian
   ... Pull down face
   ‘...got angry’

d) They were filled with joy and happiness.

e) 你务必把这件事放 到 心 里!
   ... Fang dao xia n li
   ... Put arrive heart inside
   ‘...put it in your heart!’

Using the taxonomy of motion situation types of Zlatev et al. (2010), all selected 57 MEMs in Chinese were also classified into 8 types on the basis of their source domain: self-caused translocative bounded (10), self-caused translocative unbounded (6), self-caused non-translocative bounded (4), self-caused non-translocative unbounded (3), caused translocative bounded (7), caused translocative unbounded (7), caused non-translocative bounded (15), and caused non-translocative unbounded (5).

Comparative Study on MEMs in Chinese and English

The English glosses have been referred to as the parameter to decide semantic overlap or non-semantic overlap in comparative study. However, such a way is not the most scientific, and in order to improve on this, Zlatev and his colleagues in a metaphor seminar in 2013 developed a scheme of Meta-Language Types (MLT) based in which each MEMeta type has been classified into two subtypes: 1 for self as the moving figure (F=Self), and 0 for part of self as the moving figure (F=Part of self). Finally, we got a matrix of the MLT of MEM based on the 8 motion types described before: 1101/1100 for translocative, bounded, self-caused MLT, with 1101 for F=Self and 1100 for F=Part of self; 1111/1110 for the translocative, bounded, caused ones; 1001/1000 for translocative, unbounded, self-caused; 1011/1010 for translocative, unbounded, caused; 0101/0100 for non-translocative, bounded, self-caused; 0111/0110 for non-translocative, bounded, caused; 0001/0000 for non-translocative, unbounded, self-caused; and 0011/0010 for non-translocative, unbounded, caused.

Within this MEMeta types, we put 50 Chinese MEMeta types, and we put 51 English ones in an Excel chart of MEMeta types with 57 Chinese MEM examples, 22 unique (in purple ) and 52 English MEM examples, 26 unique in pink. See Table 1.
Table 1. Unique Motion-Emotion Metaphor Types in Chinese (F = Self is Figure, FP = Part of self is Figure, LM = Landmark, and A = Agent)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Self-caused</th>
<th>English Gloss</th>
<th>Caused</th>
<th>English Gloss</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>+translocative/+bound</td>
<td>F chu LM (fengtou)</td>
<td>F goes beyond fengtou</td>
<td>A chui F shang LM</td>
<td>A blows F up to LM</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F xia LM tai</td>
<td>F steps down tai</td>
<td>A peng F dao LM</td>
<td>A carries F to LM</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F guo LM (kan)</td>
<td>F crosses threshold</td>
<td>A mao-HUO</td>
<td>A sends out HUO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>FP (xin) luo di</td>
<td>heart falls to ground</td>
<td>A sa-QI</td>
<td>A lets out QI</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>A xie-QI</td>
<td>A lets out QI</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-translocative/+bound</td>
<td>FP (QI) lai</td>
<td>QI comes</td>
<td>A chui-peng F</td>
<td>A inflate F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>FP (xin) feizou</td>
<td>heart flies away</td>
<td>A la xia FP (lian)</td>
<td>A pulls down face</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-translocative/-bound</td>
<td>FP (xin) piao</td>
<td>heart floats</td>
<td>A an-xin</td>
<td>A stabilizes heart</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>FP (xin) dang</td>
<td>heart swings</td>
<td>A fen-xin</td>
<td>A divides heart</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>A fang-xin</td>
<td>A puts aside heart</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>A jing-xin</td>
<td>A stabilizes heart</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>A pian-xin</td>
<td>A tilts hear</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>A fan-lian</td>
<td>A turns over face</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>A sao-xing</td>
<td>A clears away interest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>A jie-QI</td>
<td>A removes QI</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>8 (4 xin; 1 QI)</td>
<td>16 (7 xin; 1 HUO; 1 lian; 1 xing; 3 QI)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

And there were 17 overlapped MEMeta Types: FALL INTO (overlapped in the schema of 1101), SINK INTO (1101), GIVE X TO (1110), RISE (1000), SINK (1000), FALL/DROP (1000), LIFT X UP (1011 for English, 1010 for Chinese), REPEL X (1011), PULL X (1011), ATTRACT X (1011), BREAK DOWN (0101), BREAK (0100), EXPLODE (0101), OPEN (0110), CLOSE X (0110), TEAR X APART (0111 for English, 0110 for Chinese), and MOVE X (0011, 0010 for one more Chinese schemas). Furthermore, there were 33 out of 57 Chinese MEMs and less than 5 out English MEMs with moving figures as body organs, such as face (脸/shou), hand (手/shou), heart (心/xin), QI (气), HUO (火), and few cognition events, and heart (心/xin) accounted for the majority. Among them, there were 21 having heart/xin as the moving figures in the motion domain. There were 24 unique Chinese MEMs examples, with 11 of them having the “heart” (xin) as moving figures, nearly accounting for half. A possible reason might be found in the explanation of the Chinese culture of the ruler (Ning Yu, 2007, pp. 27-47).

Result Analysis and Conclusion

New discoveries and some further hypothesis have been achieved through the above comparative study, as shown in the following 5 aspects:

- Roles of the participants in the interaction: moving figures can be agent, or patient, or both.
- The frequency of the occurrences of organs in the source domain, where these organs might be the moving figures. Heart, for example: 21 in Chinese; and 1 in English, but some native speakers in the seminar said there were more.
- The degree of the overlap among two languages: 17
• The culture-specific MEMs in Chinese: 22 in 57 MEMs, and 11 with heart as moving figures; but in English, 26 out of 50, and few “heart” moving figures.

• The degree of positive emotions and negative emotions in the target domain is also overlapped to some degree.

To draw a conclusion, the socio-cognitive approach to metaphor aims to study the dynamic, cognitive mechanism of metaphor socially, emphasizing the interaction of social cognition and personal/individual cognition in the process of construing metaphors; MEMs within a specific language, Chinese for example, and a cross-linguistic study of them between Chinese and English, for example, can both test such interaction within one specific language and across different languages. The degrees of the overlap of social behaviors result in the corresponding overlap of metaphors among languages. The salient overlap within the similar specific source domains can test something but not everything.

References


On Child’s Acquisition of Comparative Construction Bi from the Perspective of Grammaticalization

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[Abstract] The grammaticalization of ‘bi’ is the process of shift from notional words to function words. With the method of case study, data analysis, and literature consultation, this research is conducted from the longitudinal data of two Mandarin children. The result shows children’s acquisition of comparison construction ‘Bi’ is the process of transition from notional words to function words; although starting from the acquisition of notional words, the development of function words is more rapid. First language acquisition has a positive correlation in acquisition sequence and a negative one in frequency with grammaticalization.

[Keywords] grammaticalization; comparison construction ‘Bi’; child language acquisition

Introduction
This article is an investigation into the relationship between grammaticalization and acquisition of comparative construction bi. Grammaticalization was first put forward by French linguist Meillet in 1912. Although many scholars have defined it differently, they all agree that grammaticalization is a process in which the meaning of a word eventually loses its lexical meaning, and becomes functional grammatical units. Since the 1990s, some scholars (e.g. Hopper & Traugott, 2001) have stepped into the research of grammaticalization and child language acquisition. So far, there are two different views on the relationship between grammaticalization and child language acquisition. Some scholars hold that child language acquisition parallels with the development of grammar. Qi Guohui and Yang Chenghu’s (2008) research on Chinese children's acquisition of passive construction, and Dai Ying and Zou Liying’s (2010) study on gei both suggest that the grammatical processes characteristics of child language acquisition structure, so as to draw the development process from simple to complex and from functional words to notional in children’s native language acquisition. The development process has some similarities with the development process of grammar. At the same time, some scholars think the sequence of grammar acquisition and that of grammaticalization is not the same. For example, Kong Lingda and Fu Manyi (2004) reveal that the child adverbial acquisition order is not as these adverbs grammaticalization sequence through studying the Chinese children’s acquisition of the adverb jiu. Slobin’s research demonstrates significant differences by comparing the sequence of past tense acquisition of children’s English verbs and the sequence of grammaticalization in verb past tense.

Comparison construction bi in Chinese is one of the most commonly used sentence patterns which usually have the following elements: subject of comparison, standard of comparison and comparative head bi. (Vera, 2014). The research of bi-construction play an important role in the whole study of Chinese grammar and development. The research of bi is always the topic subjects. There have been great achievements in the grammatical meaning of the bi, the historic development of bi-construction. Moreover, this research is a relatively new topic to discover the relationship between grammaticalization
and children’s language acquisition. It can supply more perspectives to study the process of child acquisition.

**The Corpus Study**

**Methodology**

We selected transcripts from the spontaneous speech of two children from the corpus of our research group. Now, there are 10 members in the author’s research group, who are all the mothers of the subjects, and our corpus data was shared by our members. The programs provided by Computerized Language Analysis (CLAN) were used to identify potentially relevant utterances in child and caretaker speech. The results were then searched by hand for the *bi*-constructions. The Mandarin-speaking case study’s corpus sessions were selected from WJH (male) (01; 06; 12-04; 02; 19) and SWK (female) (01; 08; 23-05; 06; 01). In order to improve the corpus representative and universality, fifty-two sessions were chosen from WJH’s and SWK’s corpus respectively. We used the longitudinal method, interviewing method, document method and observation statistical method to conduct a retrieval and analysis on WJH’s and SWK’s data, which were obtained from long-term tracking in a natural communication situation among the investigators, caregivers and subjects. The list of transcripts analyzed is presented in Table 1.

**Table 1. Corpora Analyzed**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Child</th>
<th>Recorded by</th>
<th>Ages</th>
<th>Numbers of child utterances</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>WJH</td>
<td>Qianli</td>
<td>1;06-4;02</td>
<td>230,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SWK</td>
<td>Shuzhen</td>
<td>1;08-5;06</td>
<td>336,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results were then analyzed for very first recorded use and age of acquisition, as well as for types of errors and their frequency. Following Stromswold (1990) and Snyder (2007), the age at which a child produces her or his first clear example of a construction followed soon after by regular use with a variety of lexical items was considered to be the age of acquisition for this construction. “Soon after” was here understood as within the next two months. The frequency of grammatical constructions and errors was determined per 1,000 utterances.

**Findings**

The results of the search for comparison constructions of *bi* are summarized subsequently. Table 2 presents the results for the age of first recorded use. Table 3 presents the acquisition of *bi*-structure sentences.

**Table 2. Age of Very First Recorded Use**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Notional meaning</th>
<th>Functional meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>WJH</td>
<td>SWK</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1;11;23</td>
<td>1;09;12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2;01;13</td>
<td>2;00;18</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 3. Ratio of ‘Bi-construction’ from WJH and SWK**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>WJH</th>
<th></th>
<th>SWK</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Tokens</td>
<td>Rate (%)</td>
<td>Tokens</td>
<td>Rate (%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Notional word</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.82</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>9.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Functional word</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>87.01</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>93.48</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
From Table 2, the initial appearance of WJH’s notional meaning of bi-construction was at one year, eleven months and twenty-three days; initial appearance of his functional meaning of bi-construction was at two years, one month and thirteen days. The initial appearance of SWK’s notional meaning of bi-construction was at one year, nine months and twelve days and the initial appearance of functional meaning of bi-construction was at two years and eighteen days.

The initial time of their notional meaning was earlier than that of their functional meaning. According to the data, by analyzing the two children’s transcripts and recording data between the ages of one to four and a half, we obtained that the bi-construction acquired by children are mainly functional words. This study extracts the tokens of notional meaning and functional meaning of bi-construction from the data of WJH and SWK.

From Table 3, we know that before four and a half years old, there is no obvious difference between their notional words and functional words usage in ratio. In their usage of words, the functional word usage occupied the larger share in bi-structure sentences; meanwhile, functional meaning occupies a lower proportion. According to the data, by analyzing the two children’s transcripts and recording data between the ages from one to five and a half, we obtained two main applications as notional meaning and functional meaning.

Empirical Summary
The grammaticalization process of the word bi is the transition from the notional meaning to the functional meaning. As a notional word, the word bi is mainly applied as verbs, containing a variety of meaning under different situation, such as in “bi3Sai4, it means “contest, compete” and in “jiang1xin1bi3xin1”, it means “according to, in the light of”. (Lv, 1999) From the analysis in specific examples, due to environmental restrictions and cognitive level, WJH uses word bi as notional words to mean “according to, or imitate” as in example:

(1) *CHI: Zhe1ge#bi3na4ge zen3me an1?
  %exp: According to that one, how to fix this one?
*GM1: Lai2, wo3 gei3ni3 an1shang.
  %exp: Come on, I help you fix it. (WJH, 1; 11; 23)
(2) *CHI: Zhe4ge zui4gui4.
  %exp: This one is the most expensive.
*CHI: Bi3 zhe4ge hai2 gui4.
  %exp: This one is more expensive than this one.
*MOT: Ao4, bi3 zhe4ge hai2 gui4?
  %exp: This one is more expensive than this one? (SWK, 2; 00;18)

From the data analysis of the target children WJH and SWK, children’s acquisition of the word bi is developing with increasing difficulties. At the very beginning, children first fully grasp the notional usage of bi, such as WJH and SWK use bi as a notional verb. With the development of bi, the usage of bi gradually weakens, and then transfers into functional words (see Example 2). The functional usage of bi is in the majority of the corpus of bi. Therefore, the grammaticalization process is substantially positive in accordance with children’s language acquisition.
Discussions

Appearance Order of Two Word Classes
As introduced above, bi can be used as a notional word or a functional word. From bi’s initial appearance of the notional applicant and functional applicant (see Table 2), we can get the idea that the acquisition of notional applicant of bi is earlier than the acquisition of the functional applicant of bi. In other words, children study the word bi as a notional word before studying it as a functional word.

According to the content of grammaticalization, one of the most important characteristics is that in this process of grammaticalization, a word will gradually transfer from a notional word into a functional one. A notional word will lose its notional meanings, and then add its functional effect. Take bi for example, bi is used as notional word at the very beginning, such as – bi3fang, bi3hua4 and so forth. As time passes, in the prepositional applications of bi, the functional features have been increasing, even as an independent structure, bi-construction. Moreover, in daily life, bi-construction has become more and more important. Therefore, the development of a word’s grammaticalization is to turn a notional word into a functional word. To compare the children’s acquisition of bi and the grammaticalization of bi, both start from notional words. At the very beginning, children first fully grasp the notional usage of bi, such as WJH and SWK use bi3yibi3, and bi3sai4. What’s more, for limited education and daily life environments, children use the notional meaning of bi in a small amount and limited scope.

The acquisition of the two subjects’ notional words is earlier than acquisition of their functional words. After studying the notional meaning of bi, they get the acquisition of the functional meaning of it. The acquisition of bi is from the notional meaning to the functional meaning. Generally speaking, the process of grammaticalization of bi is that it gradually transfers the notional meaning change into the functional meaning. These changes are not ultra. The notional meanings can exist with the functional meanings at the same time, but the notional meanings shift from the functional meanings. As the development of bi, its usage gradually becomes weakened, and then transfers into functional words. The functional usage of bi is in the majority of the corpus. At the same time, children study the notional meaning of bi first, and the functional meaning second. The grammaticalization process is substantially positive in accordance with children’s language acquisition. Therefore, from the appearance order notional meaning and functional meaning of bi, child language acquisition is positive with grammaticalization.

Using Frequency of Two Word Classes
Children study the word bi as a notional word and functional word, respectively. They study the notional meanings first, and then functional meanings. From the data of WJH and SWK, the ratio of their different applications of bi-construction can be shown as follows (see Table 3); the meaning is far more than that of functional meaning. That is to say, the notional meanings are of high frequency. We can also get more information about the applications in Table 3. From two years old to three years old, WJH and SWK have a rapid development in acquisition of functional meaning of bi. It is shown that the number of applications has risen sharply. After three years old, the number stabilizes. Meanwhile, the notional meaning of bi has developed smoothly. The number of notional meanings also has no difference from the very beginning of acquisition of bi to five years old. They use the notional meaning of bi for less than two times in a period of six months. However, they use the functional meaning of bi more than thirty times;
the most is thirty-six. Therefore, the usage frequency of their functional meanings of *bi* is much higher than that of their notional meanings of *bi* in the process of children language acquisition.

As for the applied applications of grammaticalization, we can check it from detailed analysis. After the process of grammaticalization, a word gradually loses its notional meaning and becomes more functional. However, it is impossible to prove that the number of the functional meanings is more than that of notional meanings. They can exist in the same time and develop together. Even though a word experiences the process of grammaticalization, its notional meanings also can be used widely. Therefore, in the aspect of applied frequency, for the reason that the notional meanings and the functional meanings of a word can exist simultaneously, it is hard to count the number of each applicant and decide a higher frequency of them. In other words, from the applied frequency, there is no positive relation or negative relation between children language acquisition and grammaticalization. However, it is not a block, but better evidence that proves the harmonious development in-between child language acquisition and grammaticalization.

**Complexity of Two Word Classes**

From the data and the daily life records, environmental restrictions and cognitive level restrictions are important factors that result in their limited notional meanings of *bi*. Compared to notional meanings, the functional meanings of *bi* can be divided into several stages according to the distinct forms and subjects’ ages. The first stage is that tendency verbs appear after the center verb and the auxiliary verb *guo* appears after the center of the words of *bi*-construction, (see Example 3). The second stage is that standard of comparison becomes more complex; some ingredients such as complements and objects appear after the central verb of *bi*-construction, and the complement and object component are becoming increasingly complicated and diversified, (see Example 4). The third stage is that the subject of comparison and standard of comparison do not belong to the same category, (see Example 5).

(3) *CHI: Zhe4huier bi3guo4 ba4ba.
%exp: This time I can eat more than papa. (WJH, 2; 02; 12)

(4) *CHI: Wo3de ling2dang1 bi3 ni 3da4.
%exp: My bell (on the bike) is bigger than yours. (SWK, 3; 12; 08)

(5) *CHI: ba4ba Shui4jiao4 bi3 ma1ma shang4ban1 zao3.
%exp: Papa’ sleeping time is earlier than mama’s time of going to work. (SWK, 4; 04; 13)

It is not difficult to find that notional meaning of *bi* in WJH and SWK’s data is easier than functional meaning of *bi*. In the subject’s language acquisition, the functional usage of *bi* are far more complicated than the notional meanings. Compared to child language acquisition, grammaticalization is the process that a word shifts from a notional word to a functional word, losing its notional meanings gradually. We can also consider that grammaticalization is a process of transferring from surface level to a deeper level. Notional words pay more attention to the meaning. Functional word concentrates on structure. The basic element is the meaning, and the grammatical meaning is the rule to organize these meanings. Meaning is something of an objective, while structure is something of an abstract. In the aspect of complexity, children language acquisition is positively related to grammaticalization.
Conclusion
The grammaticalization of the bi is the process of the shift from notional words to functional words. Applying the method of case study, data analysis of statistics, literature consultation, an analysis was conducted from the longitudinal data of two Mandarin children. The result shows the children’s acquisition of bi-structure sentence is the process of transition from notional words to function words; although starting from the acquisition of notional words, the development of functional words is more rapid. First language acquisition has a positive correlation in acquisition sequence and a negative one in applying frequency with grammaticalization.

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References


“Should” or “May” – The Cultural ID in Modal System: A Contrastive Study of English Academic Abstracts Written by Chinese and Native Speakers

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[Abstract] The present study makes a comparative analysis of the use of modality and modal sequences in the academic English abstracts written by Chinese and native English speakers, by establishing Academic Abstracts Corpus (AAC). Using the concordance tools, the author studied the linguistic features shown in the modal verbs and modal sequences in the English abstracts written by Chinese scholars and their native English counterparts. Then the author used the modal verb “should” as a case study to further illustrate the typical linguistic features in China English and attempted to explore the possible reasons. The results of this study can provide more first-hand contrastive data for Chinese academic writers to enhance their language proficiency in using English. Moreover, the study contributes to monitoring new trend of academic English in hope of facilitating the international update of Chinese academic research.

[Keywords] English abstracts; linguistic features; modality; modal sequences; EAP teaching

Introduction
An abstract is a brief summary of a research paper, review or conference proceeding, which can be considered as a sub-register of academic writing and is often used to help readers quickly ascertain the paper’s purpose, thesis, main results and conclusions (Ufnalska & Hartley, 2009). With the development of the international academic communication, English abstracts play an increasingly vital role in the international publishing and inclusion of academic papers, being the basis for international academic citation indexes. In such context, the study of academic abstracts has attracted more and more EAP scholars’ attention, especially to the linguistic features and structures. As an unsuccessful English abstract would be detrimental to the whole paper as well as to the general quality of the journal, no academic authors would lower their guard.

The related studies on the English abstracts in China mainly focus on the writing paradigm as well as such linguistic features as stylistics, textual coherence, grammatical patterns, tense, voice and usage of prepositions (He & Cao, 2010; Li, 2008; Wang, 2005; Fan, 2006; Li, et al., 2004; Xiong, 2002). While paying attention to the writing paradigm of English abstracts, Chinese authors also value their training on English writing skills, the effort of which has already been paid off partly with the good performance of the Chinese academic papers in the world. However, given the smooth sentences and correct grammar of the English writing, careful readers would still find the subtle difference between the English abstracts written by Chinese scholars and their native English counterparts. After all, “there is undisputed evidence that the physical and cultural environment in which it develops influences the vocabulary and grammar of a language” (Holmes, 2013, p. 358). That may indicate that while improving their writing skills according to the standard with few grammatical errors, Chinese authors are forming their own style in writing academic abstracts. In China, the contemporary studies on English abstracts mostly focus on the writing standard or confine to some specific disciplines, such as medicine, forestry, industry, aeronautics and astronautics, few researches have taken the English academic abstracts written by Chinese scholars as a kind of English variety.
On the other hand, modality in English has always been a hot issue for scholars because of its special function in grammar and semantics (Halliday, 1985; Hunston, 2004; Mindt, 1993; Quirk, Greenbaum, et al., 1985). The modal choice and its meaning representation also play an important role in the academic abstract writing. From the syntactic perspective, modal verbs tend to go with notional verbs, forming the modal sequence “S+VM+do” (Hunston, 2004). From the semantic perspective, Halliday has formerly described its interpersonal sense (1985), and most modal verbs indicate more than one senses, so we have to specify its meaning within their specific contexts.

The study made a comparative analysis of the use of modality and modal sequences in the academic English abstracts written by Chinese and native English speakers, by establishing Academic Abstracts Corpus (AAC). The following sections first explain the method used in the analysis. Then the author studies the linguistic features shown in the modality and modal sequences in the English abstracts written by Chinese and native speakers, and, finally, the modal verb “should” is used as a case study to further illustrate the typical linguistic feature in China English and attempt to explore the possible reasons. The results of the study can provide more first-hand contrastive data for Chinese academic writers to enhance their language proficiency in using English. Moreover, the study contributes to monitoring new trend of academic English in hope of facilitating the international update of Chinese academic research.

Methodology and Procedure
For the present research, considering the varied linguistic features of academic papers in different disciplines, this author chose law and communication studies from the arts subjects, biology and computer science from science subjects, and computational linguistics from cross-disciplinary subjects to build five sub-corpora, in each of which there are 200 texts of English academic abstracts written by Chinese scholars and another 200 texts written by native-English-speaking scholars. The total size of the five sub-corpora together contains 2000 texts, contributing to the Academic Abstracts Corpus (AAC).

The 1000 abstracts by Chinese authors were randomly chosen from Chinese papers published in academic journal with influential scientific citation indexes, and which were obtained from the largest Chinese journal corpus CNKI (Chinese National Knowledge Infrastructure). The author guarantees the authors’ Chinese origin according to their names. The other 1000 abstracts were taken from such international journal corpora as EBSCO, Springer and SAGE. EBSCO database has partnered with libraries for more than 70 years by providing quality research content worldwide. Springer provides researchers with access to millions of scientific documents from journals, books, and reference works. Sage corpus can also provide resources for researchers. In establishing the nativeness of the English abstracts written by L1 authors, I adopted the following two approaches: (1) to examine the authors’ correspondence information to ensure that they worked in English-speaking countries; (2) to judge the names of the authors to check if they were of Germanic and Romance origin, excluding the non-typical English names, such as Werner Schneider, Magdalena Zweppritz, Fernando Pereira, Randall J. Calistr-Yeh, Lee-Feng Chien, James Huang, Bonnie J. Dor, Jye-hoon Lee, Dekang Lin, Sungki Suh, Megumi Kameyama, Hang Li, Naoki Abe, Jorg Tiedemann, Cem Bozsahin, Sabine Schulte Walde, Samir S. Patel and Afra Alishahi. If the author wasn’t sure about the origin according to the above standard, the data had to be given up. All the headers from the 2000 English abstracts have been retained including titles, authors’ background information, source of the papers and publishing time.
The original texts were filtered by the self-made DelHeaders program in C# language, and the author obtained the texts with only the content. The concordance tool AntConc 3.3.5w was employed to count word frequency, get the keywords list and to segment sentences.

**Modality and Modal Sequences in English Academic Abstracts**

Modal verbs are mainly used to express two types of modality: deontic modality and epistemic modality (Quirk, Greenbaum, et al, 1985; Sweetser, 1990; Palmer, 2001). Deontic modality indicates the obligation, need or the behavior allowed of the subject in such modal sequence as “animate subject + must + action verb”; while epistemic modality expresses the speaker’s judgment about true value of the statement, and its modal sequence includes “modal verb + perfect tense”, or “must + static verb”.

There has been much literature review about the different modality preferences between native English users and EFL learners in their writing register. Hu, et al. (1982) compared the writings by Chinese English majors and Australian students, finding that the former overused “should” and “must” in raising requirements or suggestions to others. Hinkel (1995) discovered that south Asian immigrants overused more deontic modal verbs in their English writing such as “must”, “should”, “have (got) to”, and “ought to”. Liu (2006) analyzed the use of “should” and “must” by Chinese senior English majors and found the same overuse compared with English native speakers especially in “should” with its standard frequency five times greater than that in FLOB. Cheng & Qiu (2007) and Liang (2008) also found the similar overuse of such modal verbs as “can”, “must” and “should” by Chinese non-English major college students compared with the native English college students.

In the EditPad Pro environment, the author used the regular expression "\S+_VM's" to search the frequencies of modal verbs used in AAC-Chinese and AAC-English. Then AntConc was used to search the use of modal verbs in the two sub-corpora; after that, with the help of a self-made Loglikelihood and Chi-square Calculator, the p-value of significance was obtained, and the result is as follows.

**Table 1. Overview of the Use of Modal Verbs in AAC**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Modal Verbs List</th>
<th>AAC-Chinese</th>
<th>AAC-English</th>
<th>Log-likelihood</th>
<th>Keyness p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Tokens</td>
<td>Frequency (%)</td>
<td>Tokens</td>
<td>Frequency (%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>can</td>
<td>513</td>
<td>46.64</td>
<td>405</td>
<td>37.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>could</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>9.64</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>4.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>may</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>10.36</td>
<td>252</td>
<td>23.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>might</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>4.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>will</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>8.27</td>
<td>149</td>
<td>13.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>would</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>5.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>shall</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>should</td>
<td>167</td>
<td>15.09</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>6.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>must</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>2.73</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>4.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>need</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.27</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1 is an overview of the use of modal verbs in AAC. The results show some significant difference in the choice of modal verbs between AAC-Chinese and AAC-English. When the value of Log-likelihood is bigger than 3.84, and correspondingly p value is smaller than 0.05, it can be considered significant; the star symbol indicates the degree of significance. *** represents drastically significant, and ** represents very significant; “+” represents positively significant, indicating that the former value is bigger than the latter one, i.e. Chinese authors tend to use more of the modal verb, and “-” represents negatively significant, meaning Chinese authors tend to use less of the modal verb; “#NUM!” indicates...
that the two numerical values cannot be compared, for one of them is null. According to Table 1, Chinese authors prefer “should”, “could” and “can” in writing abstracts with sense of judgment and obligation, while for native-English-speaking authors, apart from using “can” with the highest frequency as Chinese authors do, they also tend to use “may”, “might”, “will”, “would”. In all the modal verbs used, “should” enjoys the second frequency (15.9%) in the abstracts written by Chinese authors, while L1 English authors seem to favor “may” in their abstracts. There are no tokens of “shall” and “need” occurring in AACE.

Liang (2008) in his contrastive study of modal sequences in Chinese tertiary EFL learners’ written production found that Chinese English learners would overuse deontic modal such as “can”, “will”, “must” and “should”, and are not accustomed to use such modal verbs as “could” or “would” in their epistemic sense. Comparing with the use of modal verbs in AAC, I found that Chinese writers did overuse “can” and “should”, but did not use so much “will” or “must” as in Liang’s research. On the other hand, although there are comparatively less use of “would” in its epistemic sense (p=0.002), there are more use of “could” in AAC-Chinese than in AAC-English, which also shows a discrepancy from Liang’s research. The possible reasons may be related to the English proficiency of the writers in the two corpora, the content of the texts (abstracts vs. argumentative writing during the exams), the different scales of the two corpora (128641 vs 381477), and the different times when those texts were written (for it is possible that as time goes by, Chinese learners’ English proficiency could be enhanced and the pragmatic use of English in China could have changed.)

Apart from the above reasons, it is also worth noticing that some modal verbs can denote not only deontic sense but also epistemic sense, and we cannot see the whole picture only according to the frequency of modal verbs. Therefore, it is necessary to investigate the collocation of modal verbs in context. In doing that, I listed all the possible modal sequences, and get the top 10 most frequently used modal sequences by Chinese authors, as shown in Table 2.

**Table 2. The Top 10 Modal Sequences Overused in AACC with Their Respective Hits**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Modal sequences</th>
<th>Example patterns</th>
<th>AACC</th>
<th>AACE</th>
<th>Topic relativity</th>
<th>Keyness p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>should VBI</td>
<td>should be</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>45.02</td>
<td>0.000***+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>can XX</td>
<td>can’t (can not)</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>44.65</td>
<td>0.000***+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>canXX VVI</td>
<td>cannot compare</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>40.52</td>
<td>0.000***+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>can VVI</td>
<td>can induce</td>
<td>245</td>
<td>170</td>
<td>36.91</td>
<td>0.000***+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>could VVI</td>
<td>could participate</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>34.14</td>
<td>0.000***+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>should VVI</td>
<td>should give</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>24.95</td>
<td>0.000***+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>could VBI</td>
<td>could be</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>5.61</td>
<td>0.018*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>PPIS2 can</td>
<td>we can</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>5.15</td>
<td>0.023+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>PPH1 should</td>
<td>it should</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4.71</td>
<td>0.030+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>could RR</td>
<td>could also</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4.26</td>
<td>0.039+</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

With reference to the specification in CLAWS (Constituent Likelihood Automatic Word-tagging System), VBI refers to “be, infinitive”; XX refers to “not, n’t”; VVI refers to “infinitive”; PPIS2 refers to “1st person plural subjective personal pronoun (we)”; PPH1 refers to “3rd person sing. neuter personal pronoun (it)”; and RR refers to “general adverb”. According to Table 2, in the top 10 frequently used sequences, the ones with “should” and “can” take up 70% with deontic sense and judgment sense in Chinese academic abstracts, which corresponds to the preliminary conclusion about the use of modal
verbs above. The result also indicates that the modal sequences used by Chinese authors are mostly simple and colloquial with less possibility of making grammatical mistakes, such as: “modal verb + notional verb” (unmarked and neutral in terms of voice), and “personal pronoun + modal verb”. The tendency is related to Chinese learners’ English proficiency in writing, and it is likely that deontic modality is acquired earlier than epistemic modality.

Deontic “Should” Predominant in Chinese Academic Abstract Writing

In English, the modal verbs with deontic sense include: must, have (got) to, need, should, ought to (Quirk, Greenbaum, et.al, 1985). The use of those deontic modalities in AAC is as follows in Table 3.

Table 3. Comparative Overview of the Occurrences of Deontic Modal Verbs in AAC

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Modal Verbs</th>
<th>AACC</th>
<th>AACE</th>
<th>Log-likelihood</th>
<th>Keyness (p)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>must</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>7.26</td>
<td>0.007</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>should</td>
<td>167</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>37.62</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>have to</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1.64</td>
<td>0.201</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ought to</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.02</td>
<td>0.312</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>need</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>#NUM!</td>
<td>#NUM!</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3 shows that “have to”, “ought to” and “need” do not significantly occur in AAC, and the deontic sense is mainly conveyed through “must” and “should”. While neither AACC nor AACE tend to use “must” too frequently in academic abstracts, Chinese writers definitely prefer to use “should”, which is way consistent in recent related studies. The top 10 modal sequences in Table 2 also illustrate that point. In AACC, such sequences as “should XX VBI” (e.g. should not be), “should VVI” (e.g. should give), and “PPH1 should” (e.g.it should) are quite salient, with all of those sequence denoting deontic modality.

From the study above, the modal verb “should” stands out as prominent in the academic abstracts written by Chinese. Compared with “must”, which is quite strong in modality, Chinese writers would like to choose a moderate modal verb “should” to denote obligation, and in doing so, their academic writing sounds comparatively serious, rigid and direct in style. As we know, different social groups develop and modify shared norms of the varieties of language according to different occasions. Hinkel (1995) believes that the use of deontic modal verbs is closely related to the social and cultural value particular for the speakers (writers) (p. 327). As far as Chinese users of English are concerned, they have been heavily shouldered the obligation to and responsibility for their families, their communities and their nation ever since they were little children, and that cultural value will orient their preference in deontic modality usage. The reasons can fall into the following three aspects:

The most important reason could be the limited language sources. While Chinese EFL learners mainly use “should” to express deontic sense, the native English speakers enjoy wider and richer language resources to express similar sense. Instead of using “should”, they can use such modal supplements as “be + required/allowed/supposed”, or extended predicates such as “is/are/was/were/has been/have been + to”. Chinese writers therefore can only use their familiar modal verbs to express obligation or necessity, thus leading to the overuse of “should”.

Another reason may possibly be the negative mother tongue transference. Chinese culture values persuasion and obligation very much. When they are providing help and suggestions, they are allowed or even encouraged to use the direct subjective modality without hedging elements. In Chinese, people often use “ying gai” (should) or “yao” (will) to provide suggestions, thus the negative transference of the
Chinese mother tongue causes the overuse of “should” as a deontic modal verb. That transferring effect can be demonstrated in the typical Chinese writing pattern, in which Chinese writers have been so accustomed to end their argumentation by using “wo men ying gai…” (we should…). In fact, in the mainstream mass media discourse, there can be found abundant use of modal verbs denoting obligation and responsibility:

- “All the Party members should keep in mind the people's confidence and trust, be more enthusiastic, and hardworking... to complete honorable and arduous task bestowed by the times” (Hu, J. in The 18th CCP Congress report, 2012, pp. 1-2).
- “How should China defend her sovereignty? Today, we invite two guests to comment on this” (CCTV\Focus Today\jrgg1110722.txt, 2011 National Broadcast Media Corpus, 2011).
- “The respect for the law should be a prerequisite before we discuss all issues” (Beijing Youth Daily\Daily News\Daily Commentary\20110103-01.txt, 2011 National Newspaper Media Corpus, 2011).
- “China should boost consumption by lowering taxes or increasing wages, etc., to improve the ratio of consumption to GDP” (Sina International News\20110118_11952_211021836005.txt, 2011 National Web Media Corpus, 2011).

What is worth noticing is Aijmer (2002) found in his study that English learners in Sweden also preferred the use of “should”. It is possible that the overuse of deontic modal verbs is a common characteristic possessed by EFL learners, and that may be a reflection of certain cultural values, but it is only a hypothesis which needs our further investigation of EFL learners from different national and cultural background to make sound judgment. As far as Chinese learners are concerned, they choose the moderate degree modal verb “should” instead of high degree “must” in academic writing, which could reflect the Chinese moderation cultural heritage to avoid becoming bipolar.

A third reason may be related to modality acquisition habit. Sweester (1990) found that native English children acquired deontic modality earlier than epistemic modality. Papafragou (1998) discovered that the acquisition and use of deontic modal verbs such as “should”, “have to” and “must” were actually earlier than the acquisition of “may” and “might” indicating possibility. She also pointed out that for the same modal verb, children began with the acquisition of its deontic sense and then extended to its epistemic sense. For example, children acquire the “obligation” sense of “should” earlier than its “necessity” sense. Following that string of reasoning, Chinese EFL learners might also acquire the deontic modality earlier than the epistemic modality as the native English speakers do. They would also acquire the “obligation” sense of “should” earlier than its “necessity” sense and use it more frequently. The above corpus data findings have just proved it. Chinese learners tend to use more deontic modal sequences as well as epistemic ones. The preference for deontic modal sequences greatly affects the quality of learners’ language use, and they would not flexibly adopt other more complicated sequences like “may + also” according to the need. In their discourse logic, maybe they “should” Sinicize the English language.

**Conclusion**

The present study investigated the modality of academic abstracts through 2000 texts. Results indicate that the abstracts written by the native-English-speaking scholars show varied use of modal verbs and
modal sequences. By contrast, Chinese scholars try to keep the basic and standard rule of English, but lack the flexibility in the choice of words in expressing modality due to the EFL learners’ limitations.

The findings also have pedagogical implications in academic writings. The typical modal verbs and modal sequences in AACC are studied, which is helpful for college English teachers to call students’ attention to the overuse of certain modal verbs. On the other hand, the study also sheds important light on EAP teaching in academic writing and evaluation. The teachers can lead the students to acknowledge the characteristics of academic abstracts, training them to write more vivid academic papers by using varied modal patterns with more confidence to take part in international academic communication.

Future research is expected to expand the corpus as large as possible. In addition, more comprehensive research based on the contrastive inter-English-variety analysis is needed. Only by doing so can we address students’ needs specifically and thus achieve effective EAP teaching and learning in EFL teaching and learning context.

References


Development of Interlanguage Teaching System under the Guidance of Output Hypothesis

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[Abstract] According to the comprehensive analysis of students’ learning features and the conclusion of the determined obstacles of interlanguage development, this thesis tries to focus on how Swain’s Output Hypothesis can enhance the development of interlanguage teaching system.

[Keywords] output hypothesis; interlanguage; learning strategy

Introduction
The English teaching method in colleges and universities has changed from the grammar translation method to the audio-lingual method and to a communicative approach. These changes bring new development space for English language learning. As a result, linguistic competence and communication ability have obtained unprecedented attention. The college English course has proposed training intensity and examination for the teaching of speaking, writing, and other skills. However, in the school curriculum setting, evaluation and teachers’ methodologies still maintain the negative phenomena, which mean they pay too much attention to input rather than output. For example, the current class mode maintains that teachers dominate a class while students just passively listen.

All this shows that output is not highly focused on not only by schools or authorities, but it is also neglected by language learners themselves. Most college students spend much time in reciting English words and doing reading comprehension. This input may not contribute as much as supposed, as we can recognize that output deficiency is a major cause of impeding learners’ interlanguage development. English learners cannot output what they have learned to verify the correctness of their language. This will automatically lead to the stagnation of interlanguage development. In this study, the author applies Swain’s output hypothesis theory to deal with the problem. According to Swain, OH means that input has the function of language information internalization, but it doesn’t successfully fulfill learning perfection, so output could be an effective way to learn a second language. At the end of the study, some suggestions, such as creating an output atmosphere, giving timely and effective feedback, applying diverse situations, and changing assessment means are proposed in order to guide college English teaching.

Theoretical Background
Swain points out that the comprehensible input may be important for second language learning, but it is far from enough to account for second language acquisition. As a result, comprehensible output should be included in any second language acquisition theory to better account for the second language acquisition process. Swain points out that “output plays a more important role than merely generating input, it provides the opportunity for meaningful and contextualized use of one’s linguistic performance and therefore helps them to extend the learners’ linguistic competence with the learners trying to transfer messages precisely” (1985, p. 163). Output can concentrate the learners’ attention not only on the
meaning but also to the forms. In sum, “comprehensible output is a necessary mechanism of acquisition independent of the role of comprehensible input” (Swain, 1985, p. 182). She also points out that learners’ output through interaction with their peers may push them toward “the delivery of a message that is not only conveyed, but that is conveyed precisely, coherently and appropriately” (Swain, 1985, p. 210) due to the negative input they may receive from their peers. Based on these ideas, Swain proposed the concept of “comprehensible output hypothesis.”

Swain (1985, p. 246) also emphasizes that “the state of output hypothesis does not aim to minimize the role of comprehensible input, but it is to hold people’s attention to the role of output in second language acquisition”. As is generally known, producing language can promote language learning. This can also match the old saying “practice makes perfect,” and it is consistent with people’s knowing that one can be good in a language if he or she can practice and use it a lot. However, Swain proposes that “producing language has other functions in language learning which relate more to accuracy than fluency” (1985, p. 268). In conclusion, the language classroom may offer chances for learners to produce their output mainly in the form of interaction and so on.

Regarding the importance of errors, behaviorism dominated the linguistic field until the end of the 1960’s. The idea of interference is a central point, which means differences between the first language and the target language create learning difficulties that finally result in errors.

With the development of Noam Chomsky’s transformational-generative grammar, researchers in the 1970s found the innovation of studies of applied linguistics, among which the most prominent one was SLA studies (Li, Q., 2010). The growing interest in SLA was stimulated by the focus of learners. It came into people’s attention with the tendency of regarding learner and learning process as central points of English learning. Language is seen as an innate system. It can be concluded that language learning is a process of building and testing hypothesis for most of the students. As for the second language students, learning a language is a process of making hypotheses about the structures of the target language. The errors a learner makes can be just seen as incorrect hypotheses about the target language. The cognitive scientists take regard of errors as a strategy, and evidences of the internal processing process of learners, which means a natural and necessary component in learning and acquisition of language. In the middle of 1980s, Ellis (1985) proposed a concept of the main points of development in SLA, among which error analysis and interlanguage, two important issues naturally called great attention from researchers with both theoretical and practical concerns.

It should be known that Seidlhofer’s (1999) “interlanguage” concept is the most productive one of researches among all the aspects of students’ language, also as Rod Ellis stated that “the starting point for any discussion of the mental processes responsible for L2 acquisition is interlanguage” (Ellis, 1985, p. 98).

In sum, the implication that can be drawn from the interlanguage theory is the recognition that L2 learners’ language is the linguistic system employed by the learners who try to use in the target language. Such a language system is neither that of the mother language nor that of second language, but it contains elements from both sides.

**Applying OH on Interlanguage in Learning**

In the English teaching classroom, the author finds that it is very hard for students to keep attention to input information for a long time. According to the survey by Jiang Hong, “the first 10 minutes, most of the students is interested in learning content or have specific learning purpose, the excellent attention
proportion is up to 86%. At the same time, the memory state of that time is better and partial to conscious memory, memory excellent ones accounted for 74%” (Jiang Hong, 2005, p. 14). In the middle of the class, “attention quality accounts for 62% of the surveyed students, the index of main psychological change is the decrease of students’ interest in course material and the acceptance quality of learning contents, the toll of obscure objective is increasing” (Jiang Hong, 2005, p.15). In addition, students may have over-expectations to teachers, lack in independence and awareness of self learning process, which leads to a blind study and make English learning passive both inside and outside the classroom.

According to the above situation, the author draws that the teacher should increase effective input at the early stage of the classroom teaching and let students participate in classroom activities at maximum during the middle period (second 10 minutes), thus changing the teacher-centered class into student-centered class. The key point is that teachers should speak less, encourage students to do more, and make the students understand their language behavior through the output activities. On the other hand, according to students’ language behavior, teachers should give corresponding guidance so that the students can feel ownership to the learning process and make leaning their own business, not just finishing the tasks assigned by teachers.

First, language input is incomplete. Classroom teachers convey a lot of language knowledge to students within class time, but teachers’ efforts cannot be understood and taken in by students completely because of teachers’ ignorance of learning characteristics of students. In the first ten minutes of a class, the intermittent concentration rate increases, and the given knowledge is discontinuously taken, which leads to incomplete information.

Second, language output is far from enough. Due to insufficient output, the language knowledge that has been understood and mastered by students may also appear repeatedly misused. Avoiding use of passive sentences for a long time will cause cognitive deficiencies in passive voice. Many studies have proved that learners need to have enough chances to use the language material to make language improvement. If learners do not have enough opportunities for effective language output, they may lose the chance of self-discovery and self-correction. If language errors remain untouched for a relatively long time, the errors will turn into a wrong language habit. That finally leads to a bad performance in second language communication.

Third, native language may infer interlanguage. College students have passed the key period of language learning; they have to use their mother language as a bridge for second language acquisition.

The author thinks the negative transfer from a mother language is really a hindrance for second language acquisition; students who are at the stage of second language learning should recognize this problem and get in touch with as much target language material as possible, such as novels, movies, music, etc. Original materials contribute to learning and help move the fixed cognition for language and plan the target language mode. From this solution, students may largely receive the target language information, and this can help form ruled interlanguage; besides, this form process will gradually be similar to the target language. As a result, the interlanguage can be improved and the stagnation would be removed.

Fourth, target language rules generate from one to another. Overgeneralization of target language refers to the idea that students themselves have learned the target language rules, but they expand to other classes that do not suit learning. The author thinks that the above four causes of students’ interlanguage development obstacles can be summed up in the idea that teachers do not use the output hypothesis theory to guide teaching activities in the traditional classroom. Output activities allow students to realize what
kind of knowledge has not been effective input, and they can repair knowledge gaps in a timely manner, which will later help mobilize the students’ classroom participation. Repeated language output gives students enough chances to use language material and helps students internalize what has successfully been input, thus improving their ability in language use. So, if the teachers don’t arrange enough output activities, the problems brought by native language transfer and the target language generalization will not be tested and corrected effectively. This will cause stagnation of interlanguage development.

Although teachers have explained language rules to students many times, students still cannot master it most of the time. One of the effective suggestions to solve the problem is that teachers should spend more time studying how to teach students the way to learn, not just focus on how to teach. The most obvious way to study is to observe the learner’s oral and written output, namely called “learners’ interlanguage language.” The output data can be publicly observed, and it can also reflect the learners’ “inner ability – output ability.” Research of students’ output data is mainly concerned with the students’ language mistakes, including error analysis and contrast analysis. They give the students their language feedback. The learning process for a foreign language is just the same as other human learning: the learners will inevitably make mistakes. However, only through the process of error can they draw a lesson from the different forms of feedback and gradually learn to output the ruled target language.

Based on the analysis of the above two parts, the author thinks that the output hypothesis theory has important guiding significance to promote the development of interlanguage in the teaching practice. Successful second language learners not only need to contact a large number of comprehensible inputs, but also need comprehensible output in order to verify their ability of using language. Output activity can attract learners’ attention to interlanguage pragmatics and make a positive, pragmatic contrast between interlanguage and the target language, so the learners can notice their own language problems, put forward the hypothesis, try to output, and, finally, make improvement through receiving feedback. At the same time, this process provokes learners’ thoughts so they can adjust their learning strategy.

Starting from the theory, the author adopts two kinds of basic teaching strategies: (1) for students who have the cognitive knowledge, use “output-input-reflect on comparison, validation, fixed output” strategy; (2) for new knowledge that students have not been in contact with, use the “input-output hypothesis-validation-fixed output” strategy. In the teaching process, output is both teaching means and teaching purpose, and the output hypothesis and error analysis are kinds of cognitive strategies of interlanguage, whose uncertain performance is of assumed contributions to learning as motivation to push the new cognition. Without output, they cannot transfer grammar knowledge into pragmatic ability. Functional grammar study of second language acquisition points out that learners with grammar knowledge often do not have the ability to put grammar into the practical application like other skilled language users do. If teachers can create a language environment in the classroom and let the students correct grammar knowledge by participating in output activities under guidance, their pragmatic competence will be closer to the target language norms. At the same time, speech output and communication behavior can cause students to focus on language and themselves, and, naturally, they can then make a self-evaluation.

**Suggestions on Interlanguage Teaching**

Make the students bold to express themselves in the studied language. First, teachers must make efforts to reduce students’ anxiety, improve, and protect their interest in language expression. Due to the lack of self-confidence, many students hesitate to express themselves, so teachers can choose the relatively
excellent students to speak first. The language output of the class can be diversified, such as in Q & A, retelling, discussion, debates, translation, lectures, reports, and so on. Introducing task methodology is also an effective way to achieve comprehensible output; it can mobilize the students to participate in the activities of learning and expand the teaching process to the maximum; it can also be able to focus emphasis on the language and learning process according to the situation. If the students have difficulties in completing their tasks, teachers could allow students to make their own choices to turn to someone for help. Teachers should try to provide a relatively relaxed language output environment.

Timely and effective feedback plays a vital role in promoting language acquisition. Teachers should observe students’ performance carefully and give a sincere praise for the progress they may have made. Errors of the students should be treated differently. In general, their mistakes (i.e., due to negligence arising from non-standard language output) teachers can temporarily ignore. However, for their errors (i.e. due to the lack of knowledge of the language specification output), teachers should provide accurate, negative feedback so that students can verify their own assumptions. Teachers can also use peer feedback and group feedback to stir students’ attention, enabling them to avoid their mistakes through their own consciousness and improve their language accuracy at last.

To avoid what Ellis (1985) said that students use the Communication Strategies to compensate language skills, or achieve the accuracy only in a limited language structure, teachers must be careful to create successful scenarios and tasks. Classroom activities must simulate real communication; only when both sides have communication information gaps can students produce a clear communicative purpose. In this process, students use their knowledge of the language or cognitive strategies to solve problems, to acquire new knowledge, or to consolidate old knowledge. The so-called appropriate difficulty means that the task should be slightly higher than students’ language proficiency. On the one hand, the moment the students have expression difficulties, teachers can introduce new knowledge. This may stimulate learning interest and be conducive for mastering knowledge rapidly and getting better output; on the other hand, when the students cannot complete the communication with their simple language, they have to use the target language to think and give a complex expression. This will also improve the ability to use language.

College English is no longer an examination-oriented education, but aiming to pass the exam is still an important part of learning motivation. So, teachers should change the traditional test focusing on students’ mastery of language forms to a test focusing on students’ language use. The format of the examination can be oral and written simultaneously. Make the mid-term exam an oral form, ask students to dictate a problem, make a group complete a communicative task, and encourage students to enhance awareness of usual training by being involved in oral communication activities actively. The final exam can be taken in the form of written and thesis writing papers. Reduce objective questions, add subjective questions, such as paragraph dictation, sentence formation, interpretation, paragraph translation, and written summaries of articles or essays. Take a key test on the student’s overall language proficiency to encourage students to pay attention to strengthen the training of written output, and gradually achieve automate fluency.

**Conclusion**

Internal decision plays an important role in the development of things; if learners can increase the degree of attention to language form, he/she can promote the inductive ability for language knowledge, which will, thus, promote the establishment of the target language system. Only when teachers cause the
attention of learners themselves can teachers’ make output become students’ comprehensible input. Therefore, for classroom teaching, after the appropriate amount of comprehensible input, teachers may cause students to focus on language form through the tasks of classroom learning and the tasks include those Swain mentioned as output activities, such as cooperation, dialogue, solo, expression, and speech. Output can make the students notice the differences between their interlanguage and the target language so they will consciously build a new hypothesis to accept the noticed information and prepare for the next comprehensible output. In this process, teachers should build a language output platform for students, which is called metalanguage environment, make students consciously try to use the language in the target language environment, from trying to error and then get feedback from the environment, then try again, finally close to target language by steps.

Based on output theory, as the instruction of classroom teaching's preliminary results show, we can conclude that besides seizing the critical period of classroom teaching and increasing the effectiveness of the input, reducing the dependence on avoiding learning strategies, increasing effective output, creating metalanguage environment, making more time for students, and letting students learn from the output, can improve the effectiveness of second language acquisition. Guided by the practice of paying more attention to students’ individual experience of classroom teaching, not only can they improve the students’ practical ability, but also endow the individual meaning for teachers teaching, all of which make the teaching more effective.

References


A Study of Engagement in Chinese Crisis Coverage

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[Abstract] Analyzing data on ten crisis topics, such as earthquakes, H1N1, and air crashes, under the theoretical framework of the engagement system in Appraisal Theory, the present study analyzes the distribution of engagement resources in Chinese crisis coverage, probes the features of the occurrences and tells how the authors use engagement resources to release objective, authentic, and neutral reports.

[Keywords] Appraisal Theory; engagement resources; Chinese crisis coverage

Introduction
Crisis coverage has a great effect on the public: it may calm them down or cause them to panic. As one of the main sources to get information, crisis coverage plays an important role in society, and has been studied by plenty of scholars and experts. However, the former researches of crisis coverage mainly focused on reporting concepts, function, models, policies, strategies and the problems. Sherry J. Holladay (2009) probed communication strategies of crisis reports. Elizabeth M. Perse (2001), and Lisa K. Lundy (2007) discussed the function of mass media in a crisis. Ye Boshuang (2009) studied the phenomenon and causes of media anomie, discussed how to keep harmony of the society for the media, and advocated communication strategies in crisis events. The study on crisis coverage from the perspective of discourse analysis, especially under the theoretical framework of Appraisal Theory is limited. Ma Weilin (2007) made an analysis of the report about the earthquake in Pakistan with the view on how to figure out the attitudes and viewpoints held by the news reports. However, Ma’s study was confined to attitudinal analysis, which just tells the author’s attitude, but does not figure 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 attitudinal analysis.

The study of crisis reports 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, or the 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 the 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...
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, “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” (Martin & White, 2005, 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 is realized through modal auxiliaries, modal adjuncts, modal attributes.

Attribute refers to the resources which disassociate the proposition from the text’s internal authorial voice by attributing it to some external source (Martin, 2005). Within attribution, there are two subcategories: 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, and announce, etc. Under Distance, there is an overt distancing of the authorial voice from the attributed material. The speaker/writer can detach himself/herself of the presented external views by using 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: 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 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.

**Research Methodology and Data Collection**

The data analyzed in the thesis were collected crisis news from influential Chinese newspapers’ official websites such as Xinhua Net (http://news.xinhuanet.com/), and China Daily (http://www.chinadaily.com). Twenty Chinese reports about crisis events were selected. These texts were chosen from ten crisis topics: Tsunami, droughts, fires, traffic accidents, financial crisis, air crashes, typhoons, snow storms, H1N1 and earthquakes. The collected crisis news was processed by the professional linguistic software – UAM Corpus Tool V.2.0 – which helped count the frequency of the engagement resources of the corpus. After coding the segments to the defined features and assigning features to the whole text, we obtained the frequencies of engagement resources in the collected news.
Results and Discussion

After assigning the features to the text segments and statistic processing, we got the following results of the engagement variables and their frequencies. The distributions of engagement of Chinese 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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Feature</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Engagement Type</td>
<td></td>
<td>N=117</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Monogloss</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Heterogloss</td>
<td>100.00%</td>
<td>117</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Heterogloss Type</td>
<td></td>
<td>N=117</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contract</td>
<td>27.35%</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expansion</td>
<td>72.65%</td>
<td>85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contract Type</td>
<td></td>
<td>N=32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disclaim</td>
<td>6.84%</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Proclaim</td>
<td>20.51%</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disclaim Type</td>
<td></td>
<td>N=8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deny</td>
<td>0.85%</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Counter</td>
<td>5.98%</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Proclaim Type</td>
<td></td>
<td>N=24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Concur</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pronounce</td>
<td>0.85%</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Endorse</td>
<td>19.66%</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expansion Type</td>
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<td>N=85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Entertain</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attribute</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acknowledge</td>
<td>69.23%</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distance</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2. Local Statistics of Engagement Resources

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Feature</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Engagement Type</td>
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<td>N=117</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Monogloss</td>
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<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Heterogloss</td>
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<td>117</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Heterogloss Type</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contract</td>
<td>27.35%</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expansion</td>
<td>72.65%</td>
<td>85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contract Type</td>
<td></td>
<td>N=32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disclaim</td>
<td>25.00%</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Proclaim</td>
<td>75.00%</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disclaim Type</td>
<td></td>
<td>N=8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deny</td>
<td>12.50%</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Counter</td>
<td>87.50%</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Proclaim Type</td>
<td></td>
<td>N=24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Concur</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pronounce</td>
<td>4.17%</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Endorse</td>
<td>95.83%</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>N=85</td>
</tr>
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<td>Entertain</td>
<td>4.71%</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attribute</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acknowledge</td>
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<td>81</td>
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<tr>
<td>Distance</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1 presents the global statistic results of engagement resources for Chinese crisis news. The results show that in total 117 engagement resources occur, among which Expansion has the frequency of 85 time, accounting for 72.65% and Contract has the frequency of 32 times, accounting for 27.35%. Within the subsystem of Contract, Disclaim takes 6.83% occurring 8 times, and Proclaim is 20.51%, with the frequency of 24. With respect to the disclaim type, Deny has one occurrence accounting for 0.85%, but Counter occurs 7 times which accounts for 5.98% in the engagement system. In the subsystem of Proclaim, Concur does not appear in the corpus, while Endorse occurs 23 times accounting for 19.66%, followed by one occurrence of Pronounce which accounts for 0.85% in the entire engagement system. Under the category of Expansion, Attribute has the majority percentage 69.23%, occurring 81times; however, Entertain is 3.42% occurring 4 times. Among the 81 occurrences of Attribute, all are Acknowledge, accounting for 69.23%, but Distance does not occur.
Table 2 shows the local statistics of engagement resources of Chinese crisis news. Altogether 117 heterogloss resources occur in the Chinese crisis news. The frequency of Expansion is higher than that of Contract, with the number of 85 versus 32, and the former accounts for 72.65% while the latter accounts for 27.35%. Under the category of Contract, Proclaim is 75%, occurring 24 times, while Disclaim just takes 25% with the number of 8. Deny has one occurrence in the data accounting for 12.5% and Counter is 87.5% with 7 occurrences. Under the category of Proclaim, Endorse reaches 95.83% with 23 occurrences, followed by one occurrence of Pronounce for 4.17% and Concur does not occur. Among the expansion type, Attribute overcomes Entertain with 81 occurrences versus 4, which accounts for 95.29% and 4.71%, respectively. Acknowledge takes the complete proportion of Attribute type with 81 occurrences and accounts for 100% while Distance has no occurrence.

To sum up, the global and local statistic results of engagement resources for Chinese crisis news indicate that: 1) compared with contract, the Chinese crisis news reporters use more expansion resources to enlarge the space for speaking, with 27.35% versus 72.65%; 2) in the subcategory of Expansion, Attribute resources almost take all of it, with the local statistic of 95.29% and Acknowledge occupies the entire part of Attribute with 100%; 3) under the subcategory of Contract, the Concur resource has not appeared in the study, while Deny (0.85%), Counter (5.98%), Pronounce (0.85%), and Endorse (19.66%) take a small part of the whole engagement system.

**Analysis of Dialogic Expansive Resources**

Dialogic expansion 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 Chinese crisis news, the Entertain resources take 3.42% in the entire engagement system.

The Entertain resources are realized by the expressions such as: 可能 (may), and 预计 (anticipate). The author uses these entertain resources to predict or guess the development direction of the crisis event. These words 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 3.45%.

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.

Through direct or indirect speech, such as 一名发言人说 (a spokesman said), the authors cite other people or organizations’ sayings into the news to show the factuality, authority, reliability and authenticity of the reporting. These expressions are made by the people or organizations who are the authorities in the related field. These news sources are from governors, experts, investigators, famous agencies and so on,
which supply a strong backing 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 are not influenced by the reporter’s personal ideas.

Crisis is an unexpected state. Therefore, it is reasonable to adopt the Acknowledge resources to leave space for the alternatives. For the above reasons, the resources of Acknowledge have the highest frequency in Chinese crisis news, and account for 69.23% in the entire 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.

Using these Deny resources 无, 没 (not and no), the authors put forward an opposite position to the mostly accepted ones. In the public’s eyes, the crises certainly ravages property or even takes away somebody’s life. Deny shuts down other alternative, so as to correct some misunderstanding or misconception on the addressee’s part, and therefore, help to relieve and give a hope to the public. Using Deny, the authors present comment on the government, or related agencies, that have not correctly taken action. Deny implicates the government’s, or related agencies’, responsibility and how should they deal with the crisis event. Deny leaves a minimal dialogical space to the alternative positions. Therefore, these resources strengthen the author’s position and 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.

Those Counter resources such as: 但 (but), 然而 (however), represent the current proposition as replacing or supplanting with a proposition which would have been expected; 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, and thus he/she achieves the aim of persuasion.

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 saw two examples from the collected data.

The formulation, 事实上 (actually), constitutes an overt intervention into the text by the authorial voice, by which the author expresses his ideas 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 as objective to some extent, and therefore it has limited used in the data.

Endorse refers to the resources by which the authorial voice construes the position as correct, valid, undeniable or maximally warrantable through attribution to external sources. The formulations, 报告显示 (the report shows), 根据～数据 (according to the data), 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 themselves, but are uncertain about what happened to others or what will happen in the future. Everything is a mess, and it is difficult to get the exact information or truth, so crisis reporting supplies the limited information that is at hand. For the purpose of an early release and a quick response, the reporter must compose the limited information they have into a report. For the above reasons, the information supplied in the reports is just a portion of the truth.

Crisis coverage plays a very important role in 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 advice to the public and related agencies. Third, these crisis reports play a very important role in the cultivation of the public’s knowledge and pacifying their tension, anxiety, and fear. All of these functions demand for objective, authentic, neutral, authorial and reliable reports on the crisis.

Because of limitations of the information, the reporters choose to adapt more Expansion resources than Contract resources and almost the same rate of Entertain resources to leave space for alternative information. In order to give objective, authentic, neutral, authorial and reliable reports, 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 of misalignment to any other. They present the writer as some sort of “informational fair trader” who simply conveys the views of others. The information suppliers are someone who witnesses the crisis or are related to the crisis, and whose words are reliable and authorial. Distance and Concur resources express the author’s disapproval or approval 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.

**References**


The Implicate of *be going to* Construction:
From the Grammaticalization Perspective

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**[Abstract]** As a common expression in futurity, “be going to” construction has attracted a lot of attention from linguists, who have tried to interpret this phenomenon mainly from three different perspectives: a pedagogical grammar approach, semantic approach and relevance-based pragmatic approach, each of which has its own significance, as well as limitations. This paper introduces a new perspective, that is, the grammaticalization approach. It explores the grammaticalization process of “be going to” construction along the continuum of English development and different aspects of conventional implicatures of this construction.

**[Keywords]** “be going to” construction; grammaticalization; conventional implicature; interface

**Introduction**
In the literature review of English tense usage, expressions of futurity such as *be going to* construction have already received a lot of attention, especially in the pedagogical descriptive tradition of English linguistics. With the development of descriptive semantics and pragmatics, these future tense expressions are further developed aimed at interpreting the meaning of these constructions, especially the *be going to* construction. From relevant literature concerning the meaning of this construction, debates on the interface problems between semantic and pragmatic explanations are largely involved. It is obvious that the main interface problem centers around the issue of conventional implicature, and neither side cannot achieve the adequacy of both description and explanation (Recanati, 2004).

In this paper, the author offers a new perspective to the interpretation of *be going to* construction, that is, the perspective of Grammaticalization Analysis, which is believed to give a relatively convincing and adequate description of the *be going to* construction. The Grammaticalization Analysis taken in this paper is to present a diachronic study of the English *be going to* construction along a historical continuum, that is, from Old English, to Middle English, to Early New English and at last to Modern English. The analysis of *be going to* construction starts with the research on the appearance of the main semantic component *go* in Old English, and then the completion of the progressive form *going* in Middle English. After that, characteristics of intentions were found in Early New English, and later its Modern English use as a marker of present intention and future prediction. From the Grammaticalization Analysis of this construction, it can be seen very clearly that the semantic content of this construction is gradually weakened, and at the same time, the pragmatic meaning is gradually strengthened and enlarged. When the pragmatic aspects developed to be the stable conventional implicature of the language, the process of grammaticalization is temporarily finished (Zhang, 2010, p 10).

**Grammaticalization**
Grammaticalization is basically a cover term for a group of connected historical processes. It is traditionally defined as an evaluative process that shifts either a phrase, word, or morpheme from a predominantly lexical function into a more grammatical function in a language. Grammatical markers can be inflectional
morphemes, which express concepts of tense, aspect, modality, number and person on a verb, as well as case, number, and gender on nouns. Within the sentence, grammatical items include markers such as negatives, interrogatives, appositions and connectives. This list is not meant to be an exhaustive one. In fact, any item, which shifts from a less grammatical to a more grammatical role, is said to have grammaticalized. It has long been recognized that traces of the lexical meaning can remain in the existing grammatical meaning (Fries, 1927, p. 90).

While the exchange between lexical and grammatical content forms the core of grammaticalization, it can be preceded by a change in lexical content only, or followed by a change in grammatical content only. When placed in sequence, an item may first change only its lexical semantic content (for example, it may undergo a change of class, as in noun > adjective, or acquire a metaphorical use) before that content then goes on to weaken and a grammatical meaning is adopted. Lastly, the grammatical meaning may itself be replaced by another grammatical one. While early work in grammaticalization (Meillet, 1912) dealt primarily with the second stage listed above, most work in this area today (Lehmann, 1982, 1985; Traugott, 1982; Heine & Reh, 1984; Bybee & Pagliuca, 1987) has now been extended to include the final stage also – “expansion”. A final extension has seen the inclusion of the first stage – “metaphorisation” (Sweetser, 1988; Traugott, 1988).

**The Grammaticalization Process of be going to Construction**

The origins of the English *be going to* construction can be traced back to Old English (OE) times. While much of the earlier history of *go* relies on reconstructed forms and hypothesis, there was a close connection between this verb and a sense of immediacy. While we may contribute this to the likely ancestor of *go*, OE *gān, gangan*. *Gān* means “to go”, while *gangan* is “to stride” (Middle English Dictionary Vol. 7, p. 235). This is the start of the chain of *be going to* construction, which shows that the construction originated from the verb *go* and contains the meaning of “quick spacial movement” at the very beginning, and this central meaning can also be found in the modern use of *be going to* construction.

Until the mid-17th century, the construction of *be going to* do settled down as a relatively stable pattern, but the essential element of *be* is still not found to be an inevitable element to the expression. During this process, the meaning of this construction gradually sees an extension from “traveling to a place”, to “travelling to perform an action”: that is, the infinitive implicitly involves intention, thus, the meaning of physical motions shifted to intention.

Because the meaning of intention and the meaning of movement is such a fuzzy area, it is hard to say how long the form of *be going to* has been used to express future prediction. However, a sure indicator that the meaning of motion is not implied is found in the co-occurrence of *be going to* construction with the verb *go* or *come*. The former is found in the example from the novel *The Life and Times of Martin Chuzzlewit* by Charles Dickens (as cited in Potter, 1969, p. 124), “He [Mr. Pecksniff’s horse] was full of promise, but of no performance.” It is difficult to find further examples in the literature of this time. Since the turn of the century, however, its appearance in the written language has increased remarkably, as any examination of texts will quickly show. It has to be pointed out that the uses of this construction to express the future have greatly increased. Over the last 400 years, there has been an increase in this construction’s use, along with the general increase in the use of the progressive (Scheffer, 1975, pp. 272-273) for a count of the construction’s frequency.

In tracing the history of the *be going to* construction, we see that there are two major factors that contribute to its ultimate use as a future marker: the fact that the components that constitute the construction...
are ideally suited towards its use a future marker and its entry into and development along a regular path of grammaticalization from that of a movement verb, to a construction indication intention, and finally to a future tense marker signifying predication.

The Implicature of *be going to* Construction

**Satisfaction of Pre-Conditions**

The grammaticalization process of *be going to* construction has evolved out of an expression of movement. What is vital to its development is the co-occurrence of *go* with the progressive, which incorporates the auxiliary verb *be*, and a marker of direction towards, *to*. All these factors add emphasis to the sense of progression away from the speaker to a preconceived goal. Perhaps the most important factor in this movement is that at the moment of speech some condition must have already pre-existed that suggests the subject is already moving towards that goal. Thus, when we are comparing the two sentences:

**Example 1:**

(a) She *is going to* have a baby.

(b) She *will* have a baby.

Only in the first example, 1(a), the *be going to* construction has the implicature of the fact that she is already pregnant, that is to say the subject has met at the time of speech any necessary conditions for the event that is implied in the verb.

The notion of satisfying a condition forms one of the major distinctions between the two future expressions *will* and *be going to*. A sentence with *will* relies on a condition evident in the context that will enable the proposition to take place. Thus, if I say “She *will* die”, then the listener would presume that some unmentioned condition, such as her swallowing poison, has already been understood as the specific context in which the utterance is being mentioned. When we isolate the sentence with *will* from the specific context, the sentence seems unfinished, or elliptical in its content.

**Expression of Premeditated-Intention**

From the Grammaticalization Analysis of the *be going to* construction, it can be seen that a common channel of grammaticalizational process from movement>*intention>*prediction is followed. Of the three stages in this continuum in English, the first stage, that is, from movement to intention, takes the longest time to be completely accomplished. It is only in the accomplishment of a progressive with the meaning of ‘movement away from the speaker to a pre-determined goal’ that the second stage of ‘intention’ of grammaticalization can be adopted. Though in the process of grammaticalization, the original lexical meaning of the construction is gradually weakened, the notion of ‘intention’ is not lost completely, and now it is still an important aspect of the implicature of *be going to* construction.

It is claimed that *be going to* construction expresses the subject’s intention to perform a certain future action. This intention is always premeditated and there is usually also the idea that some preparation for the action has already been made. Actions expressed by *be going to* construction are therefore usually considered very likely to be performed. The following example may be illustrative:

**Example 2:**

(a) I *am going to* visit John.

(b) I *will* visit John.
Intention to visit John originating prior to any request is indicated in 2(a), that is, the speaker was already intending to visit John; 2(b), on the other hand, indicates intention to visit John may originate to specific request, that is, the speaker had not been intending to visit John, but only decides to do so on being asked.

When comparing with will, the implicature of intention of the be going to construction seems to be more obvious. Far from being ‘completely colorless’ (Joos, 1964, p. 22), the be going to construction seems to convey a clear sense of ‘intention’, and more specifically, ‘intention with forethought’ (Coates, 1983, p. 200). As the example shows, be going to refers to a future event envisaged as happening almost immediately after the moment of speaking.

Furthermore, the be going to construction always implies a premeditated intention, often an intention and also a plan. While the will+infinitive form can only imply intention alone and this intention is usually, though not necessarily, unpremeditated. Therefore, if the preparations and plan for the action have been made before time, we must use the be going to construction. Similarly, if Ann says “Where is the telephone book?”, and Tom says “I will get it for you”. He is expressing a decision made immediately after Ann’s question. If he said “I am going to get it”, it would mean that he had decided to do this before Ann spoke that out. Generally speaking, premeditated or planned intentional actions are commonly expressed with be going to construction, which might as well be renamed the ‘intentional future’ (Eugene, 1974, p. 188).

**Representation of Immediate Future**

Another aspect of be going to construction is that it represents an immediate future. This aspect of the conventional implicature would seem to be tied to many aspects with the idea of ‘current relevance’ or ‘present orientation’ as we mentioned in the previous part. As it is in general, but certainly not always, the case that something with relevance to the present is not likely to be of too long distance from a point in the future.

**Example 3:**

(a) The ladder is going to fall.
(b) The ladder will fall.

The example of 3(a) implies that it is beginning to do so, or it is about to do so as I speak, compared to the ladder will fall. If we consider the sense of immediacy from the grammaticalization perspective, just as we have shown in the OE period, it is also possibly a retention of the original lexical meaning of go, as a subject is already heading towards a situation, which is then further enhanced by the sense of the progressive which can be found expressing an ongoing activity as early as Old English and in the Middle English form going when combined with the preposition to.

It can be easily found that the be going to construction is normally and widely used about the immediate or the near future, and on the other hand, will does not imply any particular time and could refer to the remote future in most cases. Just as Coates (1983, p. 198) says, “A crucial feature of the meaning of be going to construction is that the future event or state referred to in the main predication is seen as happening very soon after the moment of speaking and as being related to the present”.

It is worth mentioning that, in fact, there is little written on the negative and interrogative use of be going to construction. With regard to the interrogative use, it seems that the sense of the immediate future is at its strongest in this form, as invariably in the interrogative use of the construction, the speaker is definitely questioning the next possible action or happening. Coates (1983, p. 200) also suggests that there
is often some aspect of premeditation involved in the use of *be going to*, in that the questioner expects there to be a solution.

**Example 4:**
(a) What *are* you *going to* do with it?
(b) Now, what *will* you do?

The sentence 4(a) implies that the subject has already given some thought to a possible plan of certain action in the immediate future. The other sentence containing *will* may probably suggest that the subject has no better idea than the speaker as to what the next course of the events will be. Clearly so far the preference for an immediate future of the *be going to* construction in questioning has been fully indicated in the example above.

**Conclusion**

From the analysis of the grammaticalization process of *be going to* construction, we can see clearly that the conventional implicature of this construction is acquired along with a historical continuum that coincides with the weakening or loss of the original lexical meaning or semantic content. The loss of lexical content can be perceived as either a generalization or abstraction of the lexical meaning of the item. Thus, after desemanticization, the item will have a less concrete and more abstract meaning that can be applied more generally and in a wider range of contexts than the original lexical meaning. During the process of grammaticalization, the semantic meaning is gradually weakened, but not completely lost, and the pragmatic meaning is thus strengthened and enlarged. At last, the pragmatic aspect of meaning is adapted to be conventional or grammatical, and pragmatic adaptation gives a temporary end to the whole grammaticalization process.

Therefore, both semantic and pragmatic changes contribute to the current meaning and usage of a certain linguistic expression, for example, *be going to* construction in this paper. Thus, it can be taken as the reason why the meaning of this construction is under the consideration of both semantic and pragmatic and at the same time, offers us a possible perspective to the solution of the interface problem. The semantic and pragmatic aspects should not be clearly separated. Different aspects of the conventional implicature of this construction should be taken as different stages of the whole process of grammaticalization.

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Research on English Vocabulary Learning Strategies Adopted by Non-English Majors in Dalian Jiaotong Higher Vocational School

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[Abstract] As a fundamental branch of linguistic studies, the research of vocabulary learning strategies has shifted to be a hot spot in the field of pedagogy and psychology. However, from the materials at hand, the research on higher vocational school students is still devoid. Students of the higher vocational schools have their specific learning characteristics, so it is exigent to explore suitable vocabulary learning strategies that pertain to their studies, as well as to provide reference for future teaching and adjustment of strategies. The paper will explore the vocabulary learning and teaching from pragmatic and empirical perspectives to facilitate teaching and learning vocabulary.

[Keywords] vocabulary learning; strategies; higher vocational school; teaching

Introduction
The relative neglect of the study of vocabulary acquisition and related areas of lexical research in second language acquisition has often been commented on within the field of language teaching and applied linguistics. Compared to works in grammar, phonology, and discourse studies, much less is known about the nature of the second language learners’ lexicon. Yet adequate theories of L2 vocabulary acquisition and usage are central to a wide range of issues in applied linguistics, including performance assessment, proficiency testing, and curriculum development. Fortunately, in the last 25 years, the field of second language acquisition has seen the reemergence of interest in one area of language study—vocabulary, and the appearance of a newly recognized aspect—learning strategy. Appreciation of the importance of both these areas has led to considerable research in each, yet the place where they intersect—vocabulary learning strategies—has a noticeable lack of attention (Cohen, 1998). With the shift in emphasis, the classroom teacher is faced with the challenge of how to help students store and retrieve words in the target language more efficiently. Most L2 practitioners today have been trained in teacher education programs or molded by textbook writers to understand the terminology and teach the systematics of grammar. However, our understanding of the relationships between words, even the metalanguage to discuss those concepts, is decidedly lacking.

As a teacher, I have been considering the following questions for a long time: how to reduce the vocabulary load, how to handle specific problems or teach specific learners, and what methods of vocabulary teaching or learning have proved successful and effective while most research as such was neglected. This is the most important reason for doing this thesis.

To probe deeply into the effects of new vocabulary teaching approaches and appropriate learning strategies, this paper aims to access students’ attitudes toward vocabulary learning. The results of this survey will aid in designing and perfecting an appropriate approach to vocabulary teaching and learning.
Research Purpose and Orientation

When studying vocabulary learning strategies as a unified concept, however, it must not be forgotten that they are for the benefit of the learners. Thus, we must consider the learners’ feelings, and take note of what they think of the various learning strategies. In most cases, we often focus on what the students should be doing instead of what students are doing (Carter, & McCarthy, 1988). So one way forward is to continually research which vocabulary learning strategies the learners are using, and at the same time, ask them how effective they believe those strategies are. A survey study was undertaken for this purpose, using an early version of strategy taxonomy. It attempted to answer the following questions:

1. Which vocabulary learning strategies do target students most commonly favor?
2. How helpful do target students perceive the various strategies to be? (Ellis, 1985).

Survey Procedure

In order to collect data from as many subjects as possible, a survey instrument was created, taking care to avoid some of the problems normally associated with survey research. Although the survey had a high degree of structure in the sense that it offered a list of strategies to the respondents, it also allowed for creativity by inviting them to offer any additional strategies they could think of. The survey was kept anonymous among 40 higher vocational school students to help counteract the tendency for respondents to answer in a way they think the teacher would like. A relatively appropriate sample (40) was collected to provide more reliable results.

The survey was conducted among non-English major sophomore students in Dalian Jiaotong Higher Vocational school, so all the students speak Chinese as L1 and have already taken EFL classes for one and a half years. The survey was designed to provide a variety of results which could be compared. An explanation of each strategy was listed in Chinese with two spaces next to it. In the first space, respondents were asked to indicate whether they used that particular strategy or not, and in the second place, whether they thought it was helpful or not. If a respondent did not use the strategy, they were asked to respond whether they thought it sounded helpful. Next, they were asked to rate the top five most helpful strategies for both the Discovery and Consolidation sections. Thus, the survey provided information on strategy use, perception of individual strategy helpfulness, and a rating of the most helpful discovery and consolidation strategies.

Result of the Research

The percentage of respondents indicating Yes to whether they used each strategy or not was calculated and the results are shown in Table 1. The rank figure indicates the position out of the 20 strategies which were included in the survey (Zang, Shi, & Huang, 2006).
Table 1. Most- and Least-Used Strategies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank/20</th>
<th>Discovering meaning</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Consolidate meaning</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Monolingual dictionary</td>
<td>85</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Verbal repetition</td>
<td>83</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Written repetition</td>
<td>79</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Study by spelling</td>
<td>76</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Guess from textual context</td>
<td>74</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Ask teachers for meaning</td>
<td>73</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Say new word aloud</td>
<td>69</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Take notes in class</td>
<td>64</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Study the sound of a word</td>
<td>60</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Word lists</td>
<td>54</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Use physical action</td>
<td>13</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Check for LI cognate</td>
<td>11</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>Use cognates in study</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>Use flash cards</td>
<td>9</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>Interact with native speakers</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The discovery strategy column makes it clear that there is a strong affinity for a monolingual dictionary. It was the most used strategy of all. But 74% of respondents also reported that they guessed meanings from context, which should be encouraging to teachers who believe in its importance. The only other frequently-used discovery strategy was asking teachers, at 73%. As for the consolidation category, there was a preference for strategies that focused on a word’s form. Repetition of a word’s verbal or written form was at the top of the list. This can, at least partially, be attributed to the study style encouraged by the Chinese school system; students are required to memorize English grammar and vocabulary, usually through repetition. Often, vocabulary is presented via word lists, in which word form and meaning are usually the only foci. The other most-used strategies show an even clearer emphasis on form (study spelling, say the new word, and study sound of the word).

It is not surprising that cognates are relatively unused among students because Chinese is not an Indo-European language, and so there are simply few if any cognates to take advantage of (Li, & Chen, 2006). As cognates are virtually nonexistent, it is unlikely that the 11% of respondents who checked ‘Yes’ actually used cognates in their EFL language study. They may have answered the item with loanwords in mind, but even if this is so, it would seem that the use of this kind of cross-linguistic strategy is very limited. It is important to note, however, that in cases where a language has a large number of cognates, L1-based strategies are much more common. The other least-used strategies are unsurprising, considering that the traditional Chinese teaching model tends to favor traditional vocabulary techniques (Wen, 2004) and these strategies were probably seldom introduced to the respondents.

When the Most-Used list is compared to the Most Helpful, we find that they have six strategies in common. They are: ‘monolingual dictionary’, ‘written repetition’, ‘say a new word aloud’, ‘study spelling’, ‘ask teachers for meaning’ and ‘take notes in class’. We can conclude that these are all strategies that learners already use and believe are beneficial. Some high helpfulness ratings for strategies with less than half of the respondents reported using suggest that learners can see the value in those strategies they do not currently use. These results imply that learners may be willing to try new strategies.
if they are introduced to and instructed in them. Additional data on learners’ perceptions of helpfulness come from the rating task. Respondents were asked to rate the five most helpful strategies in each section.

Table 2. Helpfulness Rating List

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Discovery of Word’s Meaning</th>
<th>Consolidation of Word’s Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Monolingual dictionary</td>
<td>Written repetition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Bilingual dictionary</td>
<td>Verbal repetition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Ask teacher for paraphrase or synonym</td>
<td>Say a new word aloud when studying</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Guess from the context</td>
<td>Study spelling of word</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Analyze pictures or gestures</td>
<td>Continue study over time</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the results in Table 2, we found that all of the Most-Used strategies in Table 1 appear in Table 2. Once again we find the monolingual dictionary at the top of the list, with written repetition in second place. The overall agreement of the results should allow us to accept them with some confidence. A large number of the respondents judged ‘use bilingual dictionary’ as helpful, placing it in a relatively top place. So although bilingual dictionaries are not commonly used in their daily study, they do seem to realize their potential utility and might be more willing than teachers to try a good bilingual learners’ dictionary.

Data Analysis and Implication: Theoretical and Practical

Many commentators have advocated the use of bilingual dictionaries in the classroom. There are several pedagogically sound reasons for this, but one of the most important ingredients for success is learners’ acceptance (Deng, 2005, p. 42). Although bilingual dictionaries are clearly the most favored, the relatively high helpfulness rating for monolingual dictionaries indicates that learners may more readily accept their use than previously assumed.

This questionnaire has applied a taxonomy of vocabulary learning strategies and has given some initial indications to the higher vocational school students. The proposed taxonomy and survey research presented here has likely raised numerous questions for second language learners and instructors. If the questions serve to generate further discussion or additional research, thus leading us to the development of this aspect of vocabulary study, the survey’s aims will have been fulfilled.

From the surveys carried among Non-English Majored in Vocational school, it is not difficult to find that the awareness of using vocabulary learning strategy has become more and more evident. (Ma, 1997). More students tend to use vocabulary learning strategies to facilitate learning even though it seems that more mechanical strategies are often favored over more complex ones. But this may be balanced against the fact that relatively shallow strategies can more suitable for beginners as advanced vocational institute students usually have relatively low English foundations (Ding, & Wen, 1999). We also have some idea of which vocabulary strategies are most commonly used. And for students with different English levels, the teacher will need to pay a lot of attention to meet different requirements and adjust to different learning characteristics.
Nowadays, the characteristics of learning English vocabulary among higher vocational school students are: learning motivation and attitude are not very clear, self-esteem is relatively low, learning strategies can be more perfect, learning ability is not high, self-management and self-evaluation abilities are weak, and the amount of vocabulary is seriously lacking (Dai, 1994, p. 59). Strategies for enhancing learning efficiency of vocabulary are: making students rightly face setback, establishing confidence and permanently maintaining good learning motivation and attitude, cultivating and enhancing vocabulary sense, guiding students to select memory models suitable for their characteristics, properly applying the dictionary, and creating a good learning environment, etc. An ideal L2 learner would be one who has high motivation in L2 learning, has a positive attitude to L2 learning and culture, has positive self-concept and confidence about himself or herself, and is receptive to teachers, materials, teaching styles and learning environment (Han, 2000). These traits in L2 learners manifest the emotional expectancy of L2 teaching.

Suggestions for Future Research
The renewed importance of vocabulary instruction will continue to be a fertile area for the efforts of second language researchers and instructors in the new era. The first challenge is to systematize the vocabulary of English. Advances in technology will help us collect and analyze current and specialized corpora and academic English, and to develop better descriptions of collocations and lexical phrases (Zhang, & Li, 2006). This work will be increasingly more significant as practitioners strive to provide more explicit vocabulary practice. Once we know more about the system and metalanguage to discuss it, teacher training programs will be better able to prepare L2 instructors to teach vocabulary in a principled and systematic way.

Secondly, more research on the effectiveness of methods of vocabulary instruction is necessary. Three crucial areas are semantic elaboration, ways to productively learn collocation and lexical phrases, and computer-assisted vocabulary activities.

Finally, we need to take more advantage of the possibilities inherent in computer-assisted learning, especially hypertext linking, and create software which is based on sound principles of vocabulary acquisition theory. At present, there is also the fairly undiscovered area for vocabulary acquisition and much more research and effort should be made in guiding teaching better and learning in a more efficient way.

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A Cognitive Study of Four-Character Frame Construction

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Abstract This paper puts forward the theoretical hypothesis about the core construction of Chinese four-character frame construction. The Chinese four-character frame construction can be classified into four levels and with the continuity of productivity, emotional colors, integration degree, as well as typological significance. The stronger the symbolization of the four-character frame construction is, the broader content it contains, and the weaker the symbolization is, the narrower the scope includes.

Keywords] frame construction; The Core Schematic Construction; construction integration; typology; cognitive grammar

Introduction
Using the theory and methods of cognitive linguistics, this study aims to explore the classification, productivity, emotional colors, integration degree, as well as the symbols of modern Chinese framework. This paper puts forward the theoretical hypothesis of Core Schematic Construction. The research significance is to intensify our understanding of Chinese four-character construction. Therefore, this study provides empirical and theoretical significance for the practicability of cognitive construction grammatical theories in the study of complex sentence structures.

Literature Review
Goldberg (1995, p. 4) points out, “a distinct construction is defined to exist if one or more of its properties are not strictly predictable from knowledge of other constructions existing in the grammar.” Jackendoff (1997) maintained “…syntactic configurations whose structure contributes semantic content above and beyond that contained in the constituent lexical items” (p. 553). Kay & Fillmore (1999) also pointed out that construction“…is a set of conditions licensing a class of actual constructs of a language …the one that determines those aspect of form and meaning…” (p. 3). Fried & Ostman (2004, p.18) argued, “a construction is an abstract, representational entity, a conventional pattern of linguistic structure that provides a general blueprint for licensing well-formed linguistic expressions.” These studies explain this construction from different aspects. The theoretical foundations that are regarded as to be reasonable for supporting the study will be discussed in next chapter.

Hypothesis of The Core Schematic Construction Theory
Construction is a series of linguistic expressions with fixed formats. And four-character frame construction refers to such expressions as “Lian Beng Dai Tiao” (with hopping and skipping), or “You Chi You He” (to eat & to drink). The author hypothesizes that [α β γ δ] is the core schematic construction of the four-character construction. As the deep construction of [α β γ δ], schematic construction [X A Y B] has some surface constructions (representative constructions) like “You A You B”(have both A & B), “You A Wu B” (if have A, no B), “Lian A Dai B” (with A & B) and “A Lai B Qu” (to A & to B), etc. The instantial constructions (concrete constructions) contain expressions like “You Qiang You Pao” (have
both gun & cannon), “You Ni Wu Wo” (if you leave, I must go away), “Lian Ren Dai Che” (with the people & the car) and “Pao Lai Tiao Qu” (to run & to jump), etc.

In the development history of four-character frame construction, there have been several like “You A You B” (have both A & B), “You A Wu B” (if have A, no B), and “Wu A Wu B” (not have A and B), back in the Pre-Qin period, during which the core schematic construction [α β γ δ] has existed at the bottom of human psychology.

Under the effect of the core schematic construction [α β γ δ], there appeared the “A Lai A Qu” construction in the Western Han Dynasty and “You A You B”, and “A Lai B Qu” constructions in the Southern and Northern Dynasties. The Song Dynasty witnessed the emergence of the “Lian A Dai B” construction. It is doubt that new four-character frame construction will also appear in the future.

As a deep cognitive model that lies in human’s cognitive psychology, schematic constructions need to be obtained through logical deduction. However, instantial constructions are specific and sensible practical examples in real life. Generally speaking, human beings first master instantial constructions one after another in their early childhood, such as “Lian Ren Dai Che”, “You Qiang You Pao”, and “Pao Lai Tiao Qu”. Then they obtain the universal rule that the words stand for A and B should be filled in such constructions as “Lian A Dai B”, “You A You B”, and “A Lai B Qu”. In this way the schematic constructions are reflected in their brains, and they continue to recognize more surface constructions, and use or create more instantial constructions, which is a perpetual circle enabling human beings to produce instantial constructions under schemas.

The Heredity, Evolution and Habitat of Four-Character Frame Construction

The Heredity Genes of [α β γ δ]
In Chinese, the core schematic construction [α β γ δ] has derivative schematic constructions like [X A Y B], [X A Y A], and [X A B Y]. [α β γ δ] pass on genes to these derivative constructions, the surface constructions and further, the instantial constructions. Variation also occurs curing the process of heredity. Take “You A Wu B” for example. A and B, which were once confined to monosyllables, could be filled in later with disyllables, polysyllables or phrases. In some cases, they turn into clauses respectively.

Tree-form Evolution
Four-character frame construction has been in a constant evolving path. Ancient Chinese language already had some patterns like “Bu A Bu B” (neither A nor B), “You A You B”, “You A Wu B”, and “Wu A Wu B” (have neither A nor B), which have remained to this day. Through analogy and extension, a great amount of similar construction have been invented, such as “A Lai B Qu” in the Western Han period, “You A You B” in the Southern and Northern Dynasties and “Lian A Dai B” in the Song Dynasty.

Habitat
Lakoff (1987, pp. 23-29) believed, “the emergence or development of any construction in a language can be accounted for by the nurturing environment in the inventory of linguistic units. This kind of environmental inventory is referred to as ‘habitat’. Any unit will find its habitat in the complex unit network. In a sense, grammatical inventory is the grammatical knowledge accumulated and stored in a language user’s brain through a great deal of language practices”.

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Four-character frame construction like “Lian A Dai B” is an organized inventory of a prescriptive linguistic unit which does not stem directly from grammar or grammatical rules, but is the prescriptive linguistic knowledge in the language user’s mind. Prescriptive linguistic knowledge provides the language user with a large amount of linguistic units, or rather, an inventory including units like morphemes, words, phrases, sentences, as well as established patterns. The constructions that already existed before the Song Dynasty, like “Bu A Bu B”, “You A You B”, “You A Wu B”, and “Wu A Wu B”, formed a dynamic habitat for the new construction “Lian A Dai B” to finally emerge. More new constructions will be produced in the future too.

**The Levels of Four-Character Frame Construction**

Frame construction consists of two parts: fixed frame and fillable vacancy. It is the author’s contention that the four-character frame construction can be divided into four levels:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>GSC</th>
<th>Analysis</th>
<th>DSC</th>
<th>Analysis</th>
<th>RC</th>
<th>IC</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(core construction)</td>
<td></td>
<td>(underlying construction)</td>
<td></td>
<td>(representative constructions)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The core schematic construction \([\alpha \beta \gamma \delta]\) contains derivative schematic construction, representative construction andinstantial construction. Derivative schematic construction further covers representative construction and instantial construction. Representative construction includes instantial construction. When people conduct a study, they normally notice instantial constructions (concrete constructions) at first, such as “Lian Ren Dai Che”, “You Qiang You Pao”, and “Pao Lai Tiao Qu”. Then they obtain surface constructions (representative construction) and schematic construction (underlying constructions) further after logical deduction.

**Continuity of Productivity and Emotional Colors in Four-Character Frame Construction**

**Continuity of Productivity**

The productivity of Chinese four-character frame construction varies in the synchronic development process, with \([X A Y B]\) as the highest. The continuity of it is shown as below. The reasons for the variation include pragmatic and semantic ones. In this case, \([X A Y B]\) sound more semantic, which makes it easier for collocation and creation. Therefore, it has the highest productivity.

\[ [X A Y B] > [A X B Y] > [X A X B] > [X Y A B] \]

**The Continuity of Emotional Colors**

Different four-character frame constructions vary in terms of emotional colors. The first reason for this lies in the frame mark. If the mark is negative, the construction is most likely to be derogatory, such as “Mei…Mei…”, etc. The second reason is the variable A and B. If their emotional colors tend to be negative, the whole construction is subject to be derogatory, such as “Mei Da Mei Xiao” (show no respect for one’s elders). The continuity of emotional colors in four-character frame construction is shown as below:

Positiveity (Yi A Yi B) > Weak positivity (Qian A Wan B) > Neutrality (Lian A Dai B) > Weak Negativity (Ban A Ban B) > Negativity (Mei A Mei B)
Integration and Integration Degree of Construction

Fauconnier (2002, pp. 75-79) points out, “the conceptual integration is an important cognitive device for human beings. When people communicate, they constantly build a Mental Space, in which some elements are composed to help them understand and generate language, to form a new concept.” The model of Conceptual Integration Space not only highlights the function of discourse, but also reveals the dynamics of meaning construction process from the perspective of space structure. Therefore, it explains the spatial mechanism of dynamic semantic generation.

The integration of four-character frame construction promotes newly-created meanings to emerge. Frame mark stipulates the constructional and relational meaning of the whole construction, while variable refers to the concrete and practical meaning of it. Let’s take a look at the case of “Lian A Dai B” after conceptual integration.

1. Meaning added. Lian A Dai B > A+B. e.g. Lian Ku Dai Jiao.
2. Meaning equivalent. Lian A Dai B=A+B. e.g. Lian Ben Dai Xi.
3. Meaning compounded. Lian A Dai B=AB. e.g. Lian Qin Dai Qi.
4. Meaning included. Lian A Dai B⊆ A or B. e.g. Lian Ren Dai Shou.
5. Meaning as metaphor or metonymy as a whole. Lian A Dai B≈Lian A +Dai B. e.g. “Lian Da Dai Xiao.

“You A You B” has only two types of meaning:
2. Meaning as metaphor or metonymy as a whole. You A You B=You A +You B. e.g. You Ai You Xiao.

The fact that different four-character frame constructions vary in the quantity of instantial construction with meaning addition can be referred to as the different integration degrees, which leads to a continuity. The proportion of instantial construction with meaning addition in “You A You B” is much larger than “Lian A Dai B”, so the continuity of the two expressions’ integration degree can be described as: You A You B > Lian A Dai B.

Meaning addition is shared by all of the four-character frame construction, which reflects the emergence of newly-created meanings after frame construction integration. As a “2+2” basic format of rhythm combination, four-character frame construction has made significant contributions to word integration.

Typological Significance of Four-Character Frame Construction

The process of human beings perceiving the real world goes as follows: real world ↔ cognitive image ↔ schematic construction ↔ instantial construction. Real world is the whole world people perceive, including the external and internal world, and the material and spiritual world. It is the foundation of human cognition, the object of linguistic expression and perception. This kind of perception is manifested as cognitive image, which activates schematic construction. And the specific stipulations of construction generate vivid instantial construction. As the human being’s perception of the real world, cognitive image reflects upon language, activates schematic construction and generates one and another specific instantial construction. The former two steps are the perception of the real world, and the latter two are linguistic expressions, which are a “stimulus–cognition–feedback” process. Take the Pre-Qin period for example, the real world of Han nationality was featured as deprivation. Based on its perception, cognitive image stimulates the schematic construction [X A Y B] and representative construction “Wu A Wu B”.

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Four-character frame construction is economic in language, graceful in phonetic rhythm. As the double of the Chinese bisyllable, it is symmetric in grammar and rich in typological significance. We choose “Lian A Dai B” as the study case.

In the human mind, the simultaneous appearance of two meaning categories produces the “Lian A Dai B” construction. But the concrete construction varies in different languages. In English of the Indo-European language, there exists similar format. If A and B are nouns, the construction is “both A and B”. If they are verbs, they are connected only by “and” in the middle.

Croft (2001, pp. 97-101) pointed out, “the formal structure of construction is not universal, since it’s impossible to find a group of formal structural features to clearly define the so-called ‘equivalent constructions’ in different languages; even the same constructions in different languages have evident gaps in structure.” Croft’s opinion may be right for different types of languages, but not for different Chinese dialects, among which such expressions as “Lian A Dai B” stay unified. The thinking mode of the Han nationality enhanced the emergence and development of this construction. Through the comparison of different dialects, it can be found that such formats thrive in Chinese.

**Symbolization of Four Character Frame Construction**

As a unity of phonetics, morphology and semantics, language constitutes the basic form of communication and information symbol, which is also regarded as a special and most important symbolic system. Language itself is a special symbolic system. Not only does it possess the general features of symbols, but also forms a special branch of a symbolic system because of its arbitrariness, stability, evolvability, universality, compatibility, primacy, linearness, segmentation, dependence, productivity and systemativeness.

Four-character frame construction is also a type of linguistic symbols, in which A and B respectively form polymerizations bearing similarity under the effect of metaphor. It is the author’s contention that metaphor is also a construction and abstract construction of thinking. The combination of X and Y with A and B embodies the closeness achieved by metonymy.

\[ [\alpha \beta \gamma \delta] \leftrightarrow [X A Y B] \leftrightarrow \text{Lian A Dai B} \leftrightarrow \text{instantial construction} \]

The formula above describes a deepening process of a symbolization degree with increasing abstractness from the right to the left, the so-called symbolization process. The opposite direction portrays a weakening process of symbolization degree with increasing concreteness, the so-called de-symbolization process.

\[ [\alpha \beta \gamma \delta] \] is most obvious in abstractness, including all of the four-character frame constructions like “[X A Y B], and [A X B Y]”. [X A Y B] includes “Lian A Dai B”, and “You A You B”, etc. “Lian A Dai B” includes “Lian Ren Dai Che”, and “Lian Beng Dai Tiao”, etc. It can be concluded that the stronger the symbolization of frame construction is, the broader content it embodies; the weaker the symbolization is, the narrower the scope includes.

In former linguistic studies, we may have neglected the influence of textual language towards Chinese linguistic heredity. The strong ancient language tends to be the language or articles used by scholars, because they were considered elegant cultural language. This kind of textual language was primitive in the very beginning, representing the language of the core schematic construction. The interaction between texts has a profound affect on the language using subject and influenced the analogy and extension construction of scholars. In the process of language use, there are some misuses of
four-character frame construction. The misuse of “Wu Shi Wu Ke” (All the time), for example, can be attributed to many factors, such as the language acquisition in the early childhood.

Other writers who have misused “Wu Shi Wu Ke” include Liang Yuchun, Wang Shuo, Yu Qing (Taiwan) and Liang Fengyi (Hong Kong), etc. The words under the circumstances they used can be substituted by “Mei Shi Mei Ke” (Every moment). What is worth noticing is that “Wu Shi Wu Ke” is normally replaced by “Mei Shi Mei Ke” in oral Cantonese, since the pronunciation of “Wu” is close to “Mei”. Therefore, “Wu Shi Wu Ke” in Cantonese is the partial tone of “Mei Shi Mei Ke”.

Conclusion

In conclusion, four-character frame construction is a rather high-productive construction, which will produce newly-created meanings after integration. It has been going through heredity and variation with remarkable symbolization and typological significance. The stronger the symbolization of frame construction is, the broader content it embodies; the weaker the symbolization is, the narrower the scope includes.

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Question-Answering System Design in Teaching and Learning, Based on Natural Language Processing

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[Abstract] The present question and answering process of teaching and learning is mainly realized through the communication between teachers and students. In order to improve the teaching efficiency and student learning motivation, this paper proposes an intelligent curriculum question-answering model based on the natural language processing and .NET technology. The research of the model is a new mode of teaching and learning reform. It has a realistic significance to the development of teaching and learning in the future.

[Keywords] teaching and learning; natural language processing; .NET technology; similarity opposing calculation; feedback system

Introduction
During teaching and learning, when students meet some problems, they usually ask their teachers, classmates, and friends for answers, either directly or through indirect ways like Email, telephone and message. Besides this method, they can also find the solution via the Internet, however, using this way of finding a solution there are always occasions when the answer doesn’t match the question or the transition of information is wrong. This is because there isn’t a professional curriculum of a question-answering system aimed at teaching and learning. If a professional question-answering model were established according to the learning condition of students, it is anticipated that it would better improve students’ current situation of self-learning. While asking a question, students often use natural language to express their purposes, and thus, natural language processing technology is introduced. Meanwhile, in order to accomplish this technology model, the use of .NET technology is proposed to establish a question-answering system where natural language processing incorporates with information retrieval (IR).

The Natural Language Processing
Naturally speaking, the writing systems in Chinese and western languages have large differences. Chinese is firmly combined by Chinese characters, while the writing system in western languages is the combination of words. These two different methods of combination indicate the difference in language processing. As for a computer, the combination of words has two significant advantages: it has the definition of a word, so it is convenient for a computer to understand. Between the words, there is a blank space to link them, so it’s easy for a computer to distinguish the words. In order to improve Chinese phrase status and clarity in expression, Mr. Lv Shuxiang proposed the ideology of Chinese word link (Chen, 2013). In brief, for both experts and computers, their purpose of processing Chinese is the same: to
make its application in science and technology become more and more convenient. Therefore, Natural Language Processing, i.e. NLP, is the first step in Chinese information processing.

NLP can be divided into four common research directions: Linguistics-Applied, Date Information Processing, Artificial Intelligence and Cognitive Science, and Language Engineering. Although each direction has different emphases, their chief research target is to use information technology and linguistic foundation to process oral and written language. It is a significant development direction in computer science and artificial intelligence, and it’s a kind of multidisciplinary language processing technology. NLP has already been used successfully in all fields of social life.

Based on computer natural language processing technology, making full use of campus network resources and the interaction between the human and computer information, we can achieve a smart, efficient automatic answering system for professional courses based on natural language understanding (Zhao, & Dang, 2015). The answering system belongs to the field of question-answering system. The Answer Bus is a multilingual automatic question-answering system developed by a German research institution. It supports input questions using languages including English, French, Spanish, German, Italian, and Portuguese. Ask Jeeves is another question-answering system developed by the Ask Company in America. When the user inputs a question, it can automatically present a question list that could match it. What’s more, in addition to returning the answer to the question, the system also provides interlinking of relevant documents. Visiting the Ask Jeeves website, for example, when you input “Can you teach me English?”, the system will give an answer according to its network database. Then you can find varieties of search results.

In our country, the question-answering system can be divided into the following categories (Wang, 2010):

1. The No-answering platform. Teachers and students communicate with each other through talking face-to-face, emails, messages and telephones, etc. This method is the most common at present. Because teachers and students have already gotten used to the traditional teaching method, to a certain extent, this method can exert the biggest effect.

2. The preparatory answering platform. This mainly means a BBS, or conducting a format kind of like chatting and discussing. As for teachers and students, establishing some discussing method like a BBS is also a common teaching model. Meanwhile, that model is also beneficial for introverted students to question their teachers, classmates, and friends.

3. The answering system which has the answering function. The prime example of that is the Answer Web network automatic answering system (Wang, 2010) designed by Shanghai University of Communications. The FAQ pool of that system has memorized the question-answering data pool that users could come up with. It matches questions and their relevant answers, and consequently answers users’ questions.

The Countermeasure Analysis of an Intelligent Question-Answering Model for Teaching and Learning

Key Technology

Establish an appropriate-scaled Chinese-English segmentation dictionary. Dictionaries belong to a research branch relating to the language database, which is one of the aspects of natural language
processing technology. The main function of a segmentation dictionary is to assist the system to process Chinese and English segmentation.

**Design an algorithm of Chinese-English segmentation.** The commonly-seen segmentation algorithms are positive maximum match method, reverse maximum matching method, bi-direction matching method, segmentation-understanding method, and integrated processing method. How to design an algorithm that fits question-answering model of teaching and learning is one of the vital problems which should be solved.

**Design a resemblance-and-opposition computing method.** Resemblance and opposition relate to multiple aspects. The concrete function of characters, words and sentences should be considered, as well as the weight problems of computing formulas. Searching the most suitable answer through Chinese-English mixed input, and finding the opposite answer through opposite calculation, it is beneficial for students to have a deep understanding of knowledge.

**Design a course database.** The design of course database should be considered based on the features of the course and the system frame. Besides, the design of the database is required to be widely applicative and be compatible with other courses.

The integrated design of the system should take the following aspects into consideration.

1. Interface design of the system. The main target of the design is that the system interface interacts well and is accepted easily. What’s more, every single user’s usage permissions should be considered, such as students’, teachers’ or administrators’. Different users have different user permissions, which guarantees the safety of the system. Meanwhile, administrators and teachers are able to manage specifically.

2. Design of a specific database. The design of the database mainly includes the database of user group, the database of function recording, and the database of dictionary, etc.

3. Design of the system function modules. Design modules which have various functions according to demands of the system.

4. Debugging and testing after the design of the integrated system. When the system has been completed, debugging is needed to make sure there are no obvious errors in this system. The system can be released and employed only after being debugged and tested after a period of time.

**Difficulties in System Model Design**

**Analysis of modules.** It mainly relates to the analysis of the user’s statement, and resemblance-and-opposition computing method, etc. The user’s statement probably requires some basic process, such as eliminating punctuations, removing non-used words and so on. Those processes lay a foundation for Chinese-English segmentation and resemblance-and-opposition calculation. Resemblance-and-opposition calculation is a process that compares the analysis based on the result of Chinese-English segmentation, as well as data that already exists in database. The method of calculation remains a difficulty when efficiency should be taken into consideration.

**Improvement in Chinese-English mixed input of natural language process.** Aiming at this issue, we should design a well-working segmentation algorithm to solve difficulties such as segmentation standardization and disambiguation. Segmentation standardization relates to a basic issue of the Chinese segmentation technique. That means people have conflicting understandings of a word definition and word division up to now. Another difficulty in the Chinese automatic segmentation technique is
disambiguation, which is attributed to the fact that it’s inclined to segment a Chinese sentence with ambiguity. For example, the sentence “America will attack Iraq” is divided into “America/will/attack/Iraq”, but it can also be divided as “America/congress/will/attack/Iraq”. These two segments have an obvious influence in data processing because the subject of this sentence has changed. So, how to eliminate such ambiguities is a difficult problem. Those difficulties lead to unsatisfactory results of the natural language process. Meanwhile, the segmentation technique links with an appropriate-scaled and well-constructed segmentation dictionary, which is the foundation of Chinese segmentation technique. If the dictionary is oversized, the efficiency will be influenced. But if the dictionary is too small in scale, the accuracy will be influenced.

**Design for resemblance-and-opposition computing method of Chinese-English mixed input.** The resemblance-and-opposition computing method is important because we have to face all circumstances that may happen in the system. Different questioners may raise similar questions but express those questions in a different way, which requires repeated revisions in the resemblance-and-opposition computing method.

**Design for multiple databases that focus on the teaching and learning process.** For example, the design for course database should be considered from two main aspects: on one hand, the system can give the correct answer efficiently only if the course database is well designed. On the other hand, the course database design should involve all relating knowledge comprehensively. In the dictionary database design, whether the scale is proper should be considered. In the user database design, user permissions should be considered.

**General Structure Design**
In the development of Visual Studio.NET and SQL Server (or Access), designing a related Chinese-English segmentation dictionary and system database (user database, course database, etc.), using a C# language designed functional module, and employing software like Photoshop to design and beautify the option interface, a question-answering model for teaching and learning can be completed based on ASP.NET technique. The new system is shown in Figure 1:

![Figure 1. New Question-answering System Design](image-url)
The main steps of the workflow are as follows:

1. Students input Chinese and English questions by natural language, and then the system will pre-process natural language according to the pre-processing algorithm.
2. The system will segment Chinese sentences and acquire definitions according to the natural language algorithm, and then return keywords for resemblance-and-opposition computing.
3. The result of resemblance-and-opposition computing interacts with the core information database, and then gives the search results.
4. Output the result if it can be searched, and go to step 7; return to the question-storage module if the result can not be searched.
5. The question-storage module will respond to teaching experts. Submit information when teaching experts have solved the problems.
6. Administrator makes further improvements on the question-storage module and deletes the question after receiving the feedback information from experts, and records the answer to the core information database. Meanwhile, the administrator should maintain the core algorithm and question-storage modules, as well as update the core information database periodically so that the intelligence of the system can be guaranteed.
7. Output the result.
8. Students are able to ask teaching experts if they are not satisfied with the result. If teaching experts should answer the question, go to step 5.

Different tasks for different users:

1. Students input questions and wait for the system to output the result; if they are not satisfied with the result, they can ask the teaching experts.
2. The teaching experts are a teaching group that consists of experts. They can negotiate about specific operating modes, such as shift work schedule.
3. The main work of the administrator is to maintain the normal operation of the system and update the algorithm database.

**Implications and Conclusion**

At present, information technology is applied in every educational area, including a question-answering system. However, the research that has combined artificial intelligence (natural language process, and intelligent algorithm, etc.) with a question-answering system are new, and in particular, the applications that bring the natural language process into a question-answering system are not many.

Therefore, it’s significantly meaningful to design a question-answering system for teaching and learning based on the natural language process. First, the system can answer all questions being asked by students, relieving the extracurricular burden of teachers and students. Also, the system will improve teachers’ working efficiency and reduce staffs’ labor strength, which is useful to promote communication between faculties and students, and increase the rate of answering questions. Second, a question-answering system based on the natural language process is convenient for users to learn efficiently because it eliminates limitations in time and place that the traditional question-answering system may have. The system establishes a friendly interface on which teachers and students can communicate with each other, making communication more flexible and easy. With the help of database technology, questions and answers can be reserved for searching and referring by students. Third, the system can count the difficult questions that are raised by students and point out the key teaching points,
so teachers can give more specific explanations to those difficult key points. Lastly, the system will intrigue students’ learning enthusiasm and autonomy. For multiple reasons, some students may not ask questions when they are in contact with teachers and other students in and out of classes. There is no time limit with this system, which motivates students to continue thinking and avoids the situation that students are weary of studying because of accumulative questions.

Key work in the future should include: first, implementation of the practices that understand users’ language through the natural language process, and establish an intelligent resemblance-and-opposition algorithm. Above-mentioned practices should be based on .NET technique. Second, the realization of question-answering system in the teaching and learning field mainly involves the design of a segmentation dictionary, Chinese-English segmentation, resemblance-and-opposition algorithm, knowledge base, course database and other aspects of system design. Third, the realization of a question-answering model for teaching and learning should be based on the natural language process. It can inject fresh energy into education reform if the system can be achieved. The research of the question-answering system can provide technical and theoretical support for combining other knowledge with the natural language process.

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On Contextual Adaptation in Advertising Language

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[Abstract] Advertisements are a kind of persuasive language used in public promotion, and a cultural communication. This paper attempts to analyze advertising language with Verschueren’s Linguistic Adaptation Theory as theoretical support. Issues under investigation include applicability of Linguistic Adaptation Theory to analyze the advertising language and aspects that should be adapted in advertising language use. The author points out that the use of advertising language is a continuous choice-making process and needs to adapt to the physical, social, and mental world of both parties of communication.

[Keywords] advertising; Linguistic Adaptation Theory; context

Introduction
With the development of economic globalization, business all around the world is continually expanding into overseas markets. Undoubtedly, advertising is one of the most direct and efficient ways to launch a product to the international market and attract prospective consumers. Advertising refers to any commercial advertisement, which a commodity operator or service provider pays for, through certain media or forms, directly or indirectly introducing their commodities being sold or services being provided. A complete written advertisement usually consists of four parts, namely headline, body copy, slogans and illustration (Zhang, 2009, p. 87). Functions of advertising lie in: information, persuasion, maintenance of demand, expanding the market and quality (Liu, 1985, p. 348). The two major functions of advertising are informing and persuading. Advertising language has evolved into an independent type of writing over the last 100 years. This paper attempts to analyze advertising language with Verschueren’s Linguistic Adaptation Theory as theoretical support.

Linguistic Adaptation Theory
Jef Verschueren, a Belgian linguist and secretary-general of the International Pragmatics Association (IPRA), brought forward “Linguistic Adaptation Theory” in his book Understanding Pragmatics (He & Yu, 1999, p. 429). The theoretical framework of Jef Verschueren’s Adaption is summarized as follows: one general question (What do people do when using language?), three key notions (variability, negotiability, adaptability) and four angles of investigation (context, structure, dynamics and salience). To answer the general question, Verschueren believes that making choices is not the utterer’s unilateral activity and the interpreter is also involved. “Using language must consist of the continuous making of linguistic choices, consciously or unconsciously, for language-internal (i.e. structural) and/or language-external reasons,” (Verschueren, 2000, pp. 55-56). The reason why a language user can choose languages in the process of language use is that language possesses three major inherent properties: variability, negotiability and adaptability. Variability refers to that the available scope of language choices is variable. Regarding variability, the range of possible choices will not be seen as anything static or stable; it is constantly changing. Negotiability refers to the fact that the process of language choice is uncertain and needs negotiation. Negotiability indicates that language choices are made on the basis of highly flexible principles and strategies, not mechanically, or according to strict rules or fixed form-function relationships.
Adaptability, in the process of language choice, enables the language user to choose negotiable language structures and language strategies from a series of uncertain possibility ranges so as to approach the points of satisfaction that communication needs to reach. The three notions are fundamentally interrelated and inseparable properties of the overall object of investigation for linguistic pragmatics (Verschueren, 2000, pp. 58-63). In the process of language use, variability and negotiability are the foundation of adaptability and provide concrete contents for adaptability; adaptability is the basis and gives play to the meaningful function of language, belonging to the functional orientation of language choosing. Using adaptability as the starting point, Adaption Theory describes and explains pragmatic phenomena from four angles of investigation: contextual correlates of adaptability, structural objects of adaptability, dynamics of adaptability, and salience of adaptability process. Adaptation Theory can be applied to the explanation and analysis of various language phenomena, and advertising language belongs to monologic discourse. But the present paper only has space to select contextual correlates of adaptability from the four investigation angles.

**Contextual Adaptation in Advertising Language**

Language use is actually a process of communication and those involved in communication include the intended utterer, the actual utterer, the intended interpreter and the actual interpreter. In general, utterers or speakers are considered to be the unmistakable sources of the meaningful utterances, but in fact, language use is never so simple. According to Adaptation Theory, the utterer possesses multiple voices to indicate different information sources and it is required to distinguish the utterer from the sources. Specifically, in advertising language, the utterers of advertising include communication media, advertising planners and advertisers (or advertisement sponsors). Generally speaking, the advertiser is the intended utterer of advertising and serves as source 1, while the actual utterer can be communication media, the specific advertising planner or even the advertiser itself, as source 2 or source 3. The advertiser provides the advertisement producer with information about the product to be promoted and its intention for the advertisement, the advertisement producer designs and packages the information obtained from the advertiser and then communicates to the media (e.g. newspaper, film and TV, radio and Internet), and they deliver such information to the audience. In many cases, communication media, advertising planners and advertisers are overlapped; sometimes the advertiser is the advertising planner and there may be three, two or one source. Take the following advertisement for example:


This advertisement was produced by JoySaloon Advertising Ltd. for Lenovo PC and from the advertisement it could be seen that source 1 was Lenovo, JoySaloon Advertising Ltd. was source 2 and source 3 was the media delivering the advertisement.

The interpreters, including the intended interpreter and the actual interpreter, are the end of communication. Just like the utterer having multiple voices, the interpreter may play many different roles. These roles belong to a subcategory of presences, which refer to “the totality of persons who are ‘present’ at or in the vicinity of a speech event” (Verschueren, 2000, p. 82). In advertising language, the intended interpreter refers to the prime prospect that advertising targets and the actual interpreter is the reader or audience that actually receives advertising language. The intended interpreter is not completely the same as the actual interpreter and they should be distinguished from each other. In general cases, the intended interpreter is the actual interpreter and the prime prospect is the audience; e.g. in a DOOV female mobile advertisement, of which the audience and the prime prospect are consistently both female. Sometimes, the
intended interpreter is not the actual interpreter; e.g. Readboy student computer advertisement, of which the prime prospect is obviously different from the audience. The audiences are school age children, and prime prospects are their parents.

Advertising language is designed by the advertising utterer for the interpreter. In order to ensure the advertising language receives continual attention and reaches the ideal degree of understanding, the utterer must enable the forms of expression of advertising language to keep on adapting to the role of interpreter. The process of adapting is that of the role of interpreter gradually embedded into the utterer’s world; as shown in the figure, the interpreter closes up to the utterer slowly and possibly overlaps with it completely. The interpreter of advertising is merely a virtual role imagined by the utterer when making utterances; with the virtual interpreter available, the utterer will adjust its language choices so as to adapt to the interpreter’s expectation. The process that the forms of expression adapt to the role of interpreter is called recipient design by conversation analysts: “utterances are designed specifically for an intended audience, to ensure continued attention as well as the desirable level of understanding” (Bakhtin, 1982). And such process also verifies Bakhtin’s opinion to some extent: language use is always directional.

Context is not only an important linguistic category researching language use and functions, but also an indispensable vital notion in linguistic research. “Contextual correlates of adaptability” refers to “all the ingredients of the communicative context with which linguistic choices have to be interadaptable” (Verschueren, 2000, p. 66). Adaptation Theory divides context into two categories, namely, communicative context and linguistic context. Therein, communicative context consists of the mental world (state of mind), the social world (social relationships) and the physical world (physical surroundings); and linguistic context consists of linguistic channel and discourse context.

**Adaptation to Mental World**

Verbal interaction is communication from mind-to-mind and between the utterer and the interpreter. In long-term social life, peoples’ mental worlds have possessed rich recognition and emotive deposits. Cognitive elements and emotive ones in the utterer’s and the interpreter’s minds can only be activated in their respective choice-making practices. Advertising has to possess certain appeal, i.e. emotional appeal and rational appeal. Rational appeal refers to that the advertising positions its appeal to the audience’s rational motive and delivers the objective conditions of the enterprises, products and services in an authentic, accurate and impartial manner so that the audience can make rational decisions via thinking processes like conception, judgment and deduction. Emotional appeal refers to that the advertising positions its appeal at the audience’s emotional motive and delivers advertising information by expressing emotional and sentimental elements in relation to the enterprises, products and services, in a bid to impact the audience emotionally and sentimentally, and enable them to generate the desire and action of purchasing products or services. These appeals are accomplished via language. Emotional and rational appeals revealed by advertising language are the expression of mutual communication between the mental worlds of both parties. On the occasion of advertising design, the copywriter fully mobilizes the cognitive and emotive elements in the mental world and delivers it to the audience in terms of language, symbols or image and other forms of expression; after receiving such advertising information, the audience’s inner mental world will be activated, which triggers the audience’s emotional or rational recognition or resonance to the advertising subject, and accordingly, they may get interested in the advertised product or information, facilitating the purchasing behavior.
Take the video advertisement for iCloud, for example. “Cloud connects you and your Apple devices in amazing ways. It makes sure you always have the latest versions of your most important things – like photos, documents, apps, notes, and contacts – on whatever device you are using. It lets you easily share photos, calendars, locations, and more with friends and family. It even helps you find your device if you lose it. And iCloud does it all automatically. Just like that” (retrieved from http://www.apple.com/). The advertisement takes rational appeal: the advertising language is simple and plain, without rhetoric or excessive decoration and processing; its main goal is to deliver information and introduce the product’s basic functions. Instead of employing lots of confusing jargons, the advertisement uses colloquial language in daily life and allows the users to know specific usage of respective functions more clearly, so that the audience would implement the purchase plan after rational judgment.

One competitive point in the current mobile market is a large screen, which even the iPhone could not make light of, although the iPhone always values single-handed operation. The iPhone6 is a product familiar to everyone and the English advertising slogan is “Bigger than bigger” (retrieved from http://www.apple.com/). The twice occurrence of “big” doesn’t cause misunderstanding, because the second “big” refers to size while the first “big” boosts the revolutionary significance of the iPhone6. The general meaning of the slogan is that, iPhone6 is not only bigger than the previous iPhone versions in size, but also boasts many better qualities. The slogan design of the iPhone6 and iPhone6 Plus adapts to the consumers’ mental motives and satisfies their pursuit of a smart-phone with a large screen and high performance.

**Adaptation to Social World**

There is no principled limit to the range of social factors that linguistic choices are inter-adaptable with, but most factors therein are associated with social setting or institutions. The social world has the most effects on linguistic choices in regards of the setting-, institution-, or community-specific communicative norms of the linguistic events. Social setting or institutions may specify contents and implementation forms of linguistic practice. Specifically, in advertising, the main social factors that advertising language has to adapt to are advertising laws and industrial regulations in the regions where the advertisement is launched. Advertising language must adapt to the legal environment of advertising. In order to standardize advertising language, most countries have promulgated corresponding laws and regulations on advertising to specify advertising language materials, forms of expression and implementation means. For instance, in Germany, it is forbidden to use words like “superb” and “best” in advertising language; in France, all advertisements are requested to avoid using foreign words. In case of any advertising language violating advertising laws and regulations, the authority would not allow the company to release it.

In Advertising Law of the People’s Republic of China, Subparagraph (III) of Paragraph 2 in Article 7 specifies that it is not allowed to use words like “state-level”, “top-level” and “best” in advertising language; and pursuant to Article 10, data, statistics, investigation results, abstracts and quotations, if any, in advertising shall be authentic and accurate, with sources indicated. Beijing Municipal Administration for Industry and Commerce, Haidian Branch, began to investigate Smartisan Technology Co., Ltd. for being suspected of being involved in violations of laws and regulations since August 11, 2014. The advertisement of SmartisanT1 mobile released by Smartisan Technology Co., Ltd. on its website contained the absolute word “top-class” and quoted the investigation result of “globally second best smart phone” (retrieved from http://www.smartisan.com/) without the source indicated, and thus, was deemed as violation against
Subparagraph (III) of Paragraph 2 in Article 7 and Article 10 of Advertising Law of the People’s Republic of China.

A positive model is Gionee; the Gionee advertisement that launched in China is “ELIFE S5.1, the Guinness World Record Holder for the slimmest smart phone” (retrieved from http://www.gionee.com.cn/). Since there is no related regulation in India, it can be “ELIFE S5.1 The Sexiest phone in the world” (retrieved from http://www.gionee.com.in/).

**Adaptation to Physical World**

Linguistic activities are always generated and conducted in a certain physical world and such physical world mainly consists of both temporal and spatial reference. Undoubtedly, linguistic events of advertising must develop in certain temporal and spatial ranges. As for linguistic events of advertising, temporal reference refers to the era which advertising is in and the time when advertisement is released; spatial reference refers to countries and regions which advertising language users are in, as well as regions and forms of advertisement broadcasting. Time and space in the physical world of linguistic activities will be ever-changing, thus advertising language must make corresponding adaptations to ever-changing temporal and spatial factors and live up to being suitable to time and local conditions.

In the iPhone4 advertisement, “This changes everything. Again” (retrieved from http://www.apple.com/), several simple words convey a strong aura field and the self-confidence of Apple Inc. “This changes everything.” indicates how strong the product functions are, while “Again.” doubles the effects. Moreover, the slogan responds to “iPhone reinvents the phone” (retrieved from http://www.apple.com/), which was the slogan released when iPhone first appeared in the market in 2007. The slogan responds to iPhone fans’ hope that there will be new products able to “change”. The design of the slogan manifests how advertising keeps pace with the times.

The advertisement of Microsoft aired during the live broadcast of the Super Bowl and starred by Steve Gleanson, who was a well-known American football star. In the advertisement, he made the computer talk in place of him by using the outstanding software on Microsoft Surface Pro Tablet (Sun Shi, 2015). Inviting local stars as spokespeople helps to adapt to local conditions.

**Adaptation to Linguistic Channel**

The primary forms of expression of the human language are oral and written and these two channels can extend, develop and evolve into multiple secondary forms, e.g. language out of human’s vocal organs can be transformed into language out of media like the radio, TV and film. There are many types of linguistic channels for advertising communication, specifically including news communication, poster communication, broadcasting communication, video communication and Internet communication. These advertising communication channels are respectively distinctive and different communication channels may have different requirements on advertising language; therefore, advertising language must adapt to the characteristics of corresponding communication channels so as to achieve the desired effects.

Newspaper advertisements are featured by broad reach, steady readership, immediacy, heavy and detailed information and long shelf life, and require the advertising language to deliver heavy, detailed and timely information, with the form and contents to remain steady for a while. Newspaper advertisement is a kind of visual media and its design should consider visual effects, e.g. arrangement, font, color and other elements of advertising language. Poster advertisements feature flexible form, strong changeability and less information content, requiring the advertising language to be sloganed, popular, simple and easy to memorize, concurrent with visual elements taken into consideration. For broadcasting media, advertising
language has to be clear to the audience and easy to understand and remember, while for video media, advertising language has to be precise, colloquial and complementary to the frames. Since most interpreters are young people, internet advertisements use original and modern advertising language.

**Adaptation to Discourse Context**

An advertising linguistic event is actually a discourse. The quality of discourse is mainly reflected in two aspects: contextual cohesion and intertextuality. The linguistic context of advertisement has great influence on the use of advertising language. As a discourse with acceptable meaning, an advertisement must be of discourse quality. That is to say, the ingredients of an advertisement in respect to linguistic levels are consistent and constitute some cohesion structurally, and correlation and coherence semantically; meanwhile, they are required to respond to other advertising discourses in order to have intertextual connection with each other, i.e. there is intertextuality between languages of one advertisement and others in theme, linguistic style and literary style. For example,

“iPhone4. In so many ways, it’s a first. While everyone else was busy trying to keep up with iPhone, we were busy creating amazing new features that make iPhone more powerful, easier to use, and more indispensable than ever. The result is iPhone4. The biggest thing to happen to iPhone since iPhone” (retrieved from http://www.apple.com/).

This is an internet advertisement of iPhone4 launched by Apple Inc. and it constitutes an independent discourse, with the discourse quality inside. It can be seen that, structurally, this advertisement realizes cohesion by means of repetition and parallelism, e.g. using comparatives of three adjectives as parallelism and the occurrence of “iPhone” six times as repetition.

Intertextuality of advertising discourse is mainly embodied in series advertisements of the same brand or company. For instance, every advertisement of Apple products is consistent with others in promotion theme and linguistic style, especially the advertisements in recent years. Several words have been tagged as Apple style, such as “introducing…”, “say hello to…” and “…is here.”; once they appear, people know that it is an advertisement from Apple, even without seeing pictures. They have become symbolic advertising copies of the Apple brand due to the relationship established between these expressions and the Apple brand.

**Implications and Conclusion**

Through the examination of adaptability of advertisements, we see that monologic advertising discourse, with two major functions – informing and persuading – fulfilled by language, should possess the following features:

- Adaptation to the mental world (possessing rational appeal or emotional appeal);
- Adaptation to the social world (abiding by the relevant laws);
- Adaptation to the physical world (suiting the ever-changing temporal and spatial factors).
- Adaptation to the Linguistic Channel (including news communication, poster communication, broadcasting communication, video communication and Internet communication)
- Adaptation to Discourse Context (including contextual cohesion and intertextuality)

As a special communication behavior, advertising is persuasion-oriented. If classified according to speech act theory, it can be called “persuasive” speech act and its intention is to draw the attention of communication objects, arouse their interest and facilitate their actions. There are no traditional fixed
language modes for design of advertising language; on the contrary, original and exceptional advertising design is more highly praised. The research in advertising language use is the key to effective creation and advertisement interpretation.

References
Corpus-Based Study on Backchannel “Yes”

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[Abstract] Based on the self-built corpus CEMSQAU, the author searched all the backchannels of “yes”. According to the change of the intonation, the length of the duration, and the strength of the intensity, “yes” was classified into eight types. By analyzing them, the author found “yes” has different functions and meanings. The findings can help people have a better understanding about backchannel. At the same time, it will effectively improve the quality of the conversation. What’s more, the finding will also play an important role in English teaching process.

[Keywords] backchannel; yes; phonetics; pragmatic function

Introduction

With the development of discourse analysis, more and more researchers at home and abroad have begun to study conversations from various perspectives and the research contents are also very colorful. By studying words more specifically, people know how to communicate with each other more effectively. Therefore, backchannel, as an important part of conversations, has caught wide attention of the world’s researchers. On the basis of analyzing former researchers’ works, the author has a study on the backchannel “yes”.

In fact, backchannel is a common feature of human beings. It refers to the listener’s response to the speaker. When a person is speaking, words are not the only thing that expresses the information; it’s how he speaks that really matters. The way he speaks involves duration, intensity, intonation, pitch and other factors. In this research, intonation, intensity and duration are especially studied. All three factors have a joint effect on the pronunciation of a word. Thus, understanding the meanings of these factors is of great significance. Applying them reasonably will help the information be conveyed exactly.

Literature Review

Since the 1960s, backchannel aroused the broad interest of researchers. The first to treat backchannel as an independent element was modern linguist Charles Fries who called it “response of listener”. Hatch had this description about backchannel, “When we talk, we expects the listener is really involved in the conversation, and we hope the listener make some remarks. We call the listener’s reaction as backchannel” (1992, p. 49). Later, backchannel’s conception was extended to include sentence completions, request for clarifications, brief statements and non-verbal responses (Duncan & Niederehe, 1974; Duncan & Friske, 1997). Talbot (1998, p. 32) thought, “backchannel refers to some short responses. They are some sounds made by the listener, such as ‘mm’, ‘yeah’, ‘ok’ and so on. They are important parts of conversations.” White (1999) divided backchannel into several forms: acknowledgement, acceptance, endorsement, prompt and clarifier. Gardner’s classification are continuers, acknowledgements, news-markers, change of activity tokens, assessments, brief-questions and collaborative completions. At the same time, research about classification, function and feature of backchannel are getting more.

In China, studies about backchannel are not as popular yet. The study remains in the preliminary stage. Researchers give backchannel different names, such as “signal of listener”, “reactive token”, “acknowledgement tokens”, “continuer” or “remarks inserted suddenly when others are speaking” (He, 145
1998, p. 7). Yu Guodong (2003) presented his view, “backchannel can be roughly divided into two kinds, supportive backchannel and non-supportive backchannel. Supportive backchannel is the reaction of the listener activated by the speaker. The aim is to support or help the speaker to complete his talk. And supportive backchannel can even show the listener’s viewpoint and attitude. Their most basic feature is that they are not used to catch the right to speak.” He analyzed the classification, features and pragmatic function of supportive backchannel in detail. Compared with researches abroad, Chinese researches are fewer and less mature. More specific studies need to be done.

To sum up, although backchannel is called by various names, they all basically refers to the same thing. That is, it is the listeners’ response to the speaker. Of all names, backchannel is mostly used. Generally, backchannel can be divided into three classifications: positive backchannel, neutral backchannel and negative backchannel. Backchannel has five obvious features. 1) backchannel is the response of the listener incited by the speaker; 2) backchannel is not a new round of talk; 3) backchannel is often very short; 4) the location where backchannel appears is not fixed; 5) backchannel tends to be used more by women compared with men. Usually, backchannel has four major functions: First, it shows the listener is willing to be involved in the conversation. Second, it shows what the speaker just said to have aroused the notice of the listener. Third, by giving a backchannel, the listener confirms the present conversation. Last, backchannel can reflect the listener’s opinions on what the speaker said, whether or not he or she agrees or disagrees with the speaker, or something else.

**Research Design**

The subjects of this research were Chinese learners of English from the English Department of Qingdao Agricultural University. The author chose 130 students as the research subjects from the English speaking and listening class. The research instrument included equipment in the audio-visual classroom, recording pens, and mobile phones. In the listening and speaking class, students often had conversations with each other. And at the same time, were asked to record their conversations and transfer them into texts. After inputting all the text into the software PowerConc, the author built a corpus of English major students of Qingdao Agricultural University with almost 70,000 words, shortened for CEMSQAU.

During the process of sorting the material, the author found that “yeah” was another frequently-used backchannel. Considering that the word “yeah” was one of the variations of “yes”, both “yeah” and “yes” were researched. By using the software PowerConc, the author searched 364 “yeah’s” and 424 “yes’s” in the self-built corpus. Here are some samples.

<p>| | | |</p>
<table>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>309.</strong> CEMSQAU</td>
<td>A: <strong>Yes</strong>, I can’t agree</td>
<td>B: <strong>yes</strong>, we often can see</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>310.</strong> CEMSQAU</td>
<td>A: <strong>yes</strong>, on protecting environment we</td>
<td>B: <strong>yes</strong> you are right, we</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>311.</strong> CEMSQAU</td>
<td>A: <strong>Yes</strong></td>
<td>B: <strong>yes</strong>, it is the necessary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>312.</strong> CEMSQAU</td>
<td>B: <strong>Yes</strong>, we can know how</td>
<td>A: <strong>Yes</strong>, I think so</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>313.</strong> CEMSQAU</td>
<td>B: <strong>Yes</strong>, I think our government</td>
<td>A: <strong>Yes</strong>, I can’t agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>314.</strong> CEMSQAU</td>
<td>B: <strong>yes</strong>, on protecting environment we</td>
<td>A: <strong>yes</strong> you are right, we</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>315.</strong> CEMSQAU</td>
<td>A: <strong>Yes</strong></td>
<td>B: <strong>yes</strong>, it is the necessary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>316.</strong> CEMSQAU</td>
<td>B: <strong>Yes</strong>, we can know how</td>
<td>A: <strong>Yes</strong>, I think so</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>317.</strong> CEMSQAU</td>
<td>B: <strong>Yes</strong>, I think our government</td>
<td>A: <strong>Yes</strong> you are right, we</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In this research, three factors are taken into consideration: intensity, duration, and intonation. According to these three factors, “yes’s” are classified into four kinds, with each kind classified into two
small groups. In all, there are eight types. The author made a chart in order to illustrate the three factors. See Figure 1.

Figure 1. Chart of Intensity, Duration and Intonation Factors

In Figure 1, the abscissa axis represents the duration of the pronunciation. From left to right, the duration becomes longer and longer. The vertical axis represents the intensity of the pronunciation. The higher it goes, the stronger the pronunciation is. The two axes divide the plane into four parts. They are Part 1, Part 2, Part 3 and Part 4.

In Part 1, the pronunciation is loud and prolonged. In Part 2, the pronunciation is loud and short. In Part 3, the pronunciation is low and short. And in Part 4, the pronunciation is low and prolonged. Besides, symbol \( \uparrow \) represents the intonation is rising, and symbol \( \downarrow \) means falling.

Specifically, the author uses some other symbols to illustrate “yes” and “yeah” in the texts as follows:

- ** means synchronous discourse
- [ ] means non-language sounds
- ’ means the word is pronounced with strong intensity. It is loud.
- --- means the word is prolonged.
- *o* means there is a pause or blank during the conversation.
- … represents some words in the conversation that are omitted by author.

**Results and Analysis**

“*Yes*” is Pronounced Loudly and Prolonged

If the intonation is rising, it shows that the listener is really involved in what the speaker has said, and it seems that the listener is thinking about the conversation. At the same time, the listener is expecting the speaker to continue his talk. Here are the examples.

(1) A: … freshmen should enrich their college life. *Mmm* On one hand…

B: *Y’ eah ---*

(CEMSQAU, Conversation 1)
In this example, student A is presenting his viewpoint and is giving his reasons. Student B is listening to him. After A has presented his viewpoint, B is expecting A’s reasons. B shows this intention by saying “yeah” like the above shows. B does not intend to get the right to speak; instead, he is waiting, thinking and encouraging A to continue.

If the intonation is falling, it basically has three meanings. One is that it shows the listener has understood what the speaker said. The next is that the listener agrees with the speaker. The third is that the listener is very excited about the talk.

(2) A: …so many things, such as going to library, doing exercise, going on a trip, hanging out with friends, or having a part-time job. *o*...

    B: *Y’ eah ---*

    (CEMSQAU, Conversation 8)

In this example, student A is listing some things they can do in their spare time. At the end of his sentence, student B shows his attitude by saying a falling and prolonged loud “yeah”. It means that student B surely understand student A, and he agrees with A very much.

“Yes” is Pronounced Loudly and Shortly

If the intonation is rising, it shows that the listener may have not totally understood what the speaker said or he can’t believe it. He may have some doubts, or he actually disagrees with the speaker. However, he is not eager to stop the speaker and would like the speaker to continue.

(3) A: …is very easy. *I believe* the country will solve the problem in three years…

    B: *Y’ eah?*

    (CEMSQAU, Conversation 40)

In this example, the way that student B says “yeah” shows that he is a little shocked by what student A has just said. And he is doubtful. It seems that student A believes that the problem is not that easy to solve. Here “yeah?” in a way, has the same function with “really?”

If the intonation is falling, one case is that it shows the listener agrees with the speaker very much, and he is emphasizing what the speaker said by saying one or more loud and short “yes”. Another case is that the listener may hope the speaker speaks a little more quickly, so that the conversation can be finished earlier. However, it doesn’t mean the listener dislikes the conversation. He does not intend to interrupt the talk, either. There may be some other object factors.

(4) A: … adjust themselves to the new life.*o* They must be independent and…

    B: *Y’ eah, y’ eah*

    C: Time is up. Please stop talking.

    (CEMSQAU, Conversation 11)

From this example, we know this is a conversation in which time is limited. Student B worries that the speaker may not be able to finish the talk, so he implies this to student A by saying a falling loud short “yeah” two times. He does not mean to interrupt student A, he just hopes A would speak faster and finish the conversation before time is up.
“Yes” is Pronounced Lowly and Shortly
If the intonation is rising, it may reflect that the listener is careless about what the speaker has just said and he was not concentrating on the topic. Or the listener is not patient with the speaker. He hopes the speaker could stop talking about the present topic and turn to other topics or just stop talking.

(5) A: … you should not stay up late. You should not be impolite to Tom. You should listen carefully *in class. You should* finish your homework. You should…or …
   B: *Yeah, yeah, yeah.*
   (CEMSQAU, Conversation 39)

In this example, we know that student A is trying to tell student B what to do and what not to do. By B’s reaction, we can clearly see that B has no patience to listen to A. He is tired of those preaching. At the same time, he has no other choice as what student A said is right. So he has no reason to be angry or raise his voice. He could only accept the truth by murmuring “yeah” several times.

If the intonation is falling, it basically has two functions. First, “yes” is more like a modal particle. It is to perfect the conversation. Secondly, it may show the listener feels a little sorry about what the speaker said.

(6) A: … is worse than before, *and [ ]* this arouses the awareness of…
   B: *Yes*
   (CEMSQAU, Conversation 66)

From the content of the talk, we know that student A and B are talking about some serious topics. When student A pauses to think, student B will say a falling low short “yes” or “yeah” to let A have time think, so that their conversation becomes more smooth and perfect. At the same time, specially, the low voice can convey the low feelings of a person.

“Yes” is Pronounced Lowly and Prolonged
Compared with Part 3, the emotion of “yes” in Part 4 is stronger.

(7) A: …It turns to you to clean *the dormitory*. Please clean the floor *and take*
   B: *Yeah ---* *Yeah ---*
   A: the trash away.* Also * don’t forget to tidy the table and…
   B: *Yeah --- Yeah ---*
   (CEMSQAU, Conversation 32)

From the reaction of student B, we know that he is reluctant to be on duty. And he is sort of impatient with student A’s chatter. He is not willing to do the cleaning; however, he has to accept the reality. In addition, we know his attitude is negative.

If the intonation is falling, it may reflect that the listener is in a low mood. The listener may be disappointed at or reluctant about what the speaker said. Or there may be some special cases in which the listener has to lower his voice, not because of the low mood.
8) A: …you are allowed to… until you finish the tasks. *There’s no * bargain…

B: *Yeah ---, alright.*

(CEMSQAU, Conversation 86)

From this example, we know student B accepts the conditions with reluctance. He is not allowed to do what he wants to do immediately, so he is kind of disappointed. His reaction implies he is in a low mood.

**Conclusion**

By analyzing “yes” from the perspective of phonetics, especially from its intonation, intensity, and duration, “yes” meant different things when it was said in different ways. Intonation, intensity and duration each influenced the pronunciation of “yes” in their own ways. The final pronunciation of “yes” was a joint result. In turn, through the way a person says “yes”, people inferred his attitude, his viewpoint, or his state of mind. Therefore, Chinese learners of English will know how to use backchannel “yes”, as well as other backchannels.

What’s more, this thesis analyzed “yes” from the intonation, intensity and duration of its pronunciation, and classified “yes” into eight types according to the three factors. It will be helpful for people to convey and receive information correctly to achieve successful communication.

Finally, the findings can also help those who are learning English and those who are teaching English. They will have a better understanding about English conversations. Thus, communication between people will become more effective and easier.

There are some shortcomings in this thesis. First, as researches about backchannel are relatively fewer in China, and it is not easy to get literature from abroad, so there are not enough materials for the author to refer to. The theoretical basis of this research may not be comprehensive. Secondly, although there are some findings, however, they are not enough. The factors of pronunciation are very complicated, especially when they are combined closely, and it is difficult to describe them exactly. Even if the pronunciation is the same, the meaning of the word can be different. It also depends on specific occasions. Also, every individual is unique. As goes the saying, “One thousand readers, there are one thousand Hamlet”. Therefore, we can not judge a person’s meaning only by the way he says things. What the author has found is just a summary of general cases. It can be referred to when it is needed. Although many efforts have been made to study backchannel, there are many more things waiting to be discovered and they deserve much more researches.

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**References**


Localized White Theory: A Critical Reflection on the Signifyin(g) Theory

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[Abstract] The Signifyin(g) Theory Henry Louis Gates, Jr. proposed has provided a new approach in Afro-American literary criticism and explains the intertextual relations between individual black literary works. With many great contributions, Gates has caused just as many criticisms for this new theory. Based on The Signifying Monkey, this paper attempts to discuss some problems discerned during the establishing process of this distinctive black literary discourse, and points out that Signifyin(g) Theory is the result of an imperfect localization.

[Keywords] signifyin(g); rhetoric; intertextuality; Afro-American literature

Introduction
Tracing the history of African-American literary criticism before the 1980s, people could find two fallacies, namely the “fallacy of content” and the “fallacy of imitation” (Wang, 2011, p. 1). The dominant literary discourse either focused attention on the content of African-American literary works, oversimplifying them as documentary reflections of social aspects of black people’s life, or belittled them as mere imitations of white literature, thus denying the originality of African-American writers (Gates, 1988, p. 113). Opposed to this biased treatment, black scholars tried to subvert the status quo with the emergence of many great black writers since the Harlem Renaissance. Instead of creating characters like the subservient Uncle Tom by white writers, this new generation of black writers’ endeavor to present the image of new blacks, making progress in searching for their collective identity and making their voices heard. From Ralph Ellison’s Invisible Man to Alice Walker’s The Color Purple, every effort had been made to change the Eurocentric prejudice. With African cultural nationalism in mind, some critics at this time (Gayle, 1971) seemed to go to the other extreme by overemphasizing the importance of blackness and negritude in African-American literature. In this way, they were trying to replace the Eurocentric criticism with Afro-centrism directly, which did not make any sense in eliminating the fallacy of content, because it just turned the focus from the reflection of black life to some political appeals. The distinctness of black writing was meant to appear in response to the fallacy of imitation when improvement had been made in black aesthetics, but few critics noticed this in that “blackness”, as a transcendentalist signified, refers to theme rather than form.

It was against this backdrop that Henry Louis Gates, Jr. (1984, 1988) started to undertake his project of establishing the black’s own discourse on literature. According to Gates (1984), he wanted to change the perception that African-American texts were transparent reflections of the history, sociology, and psychology of African-Americans (p. 5). He started to explore African-American literary tradition in Figures in Black: Words, Signs and the “Racial Self”, in which the Signifying Theory sprouted and became fully-fledged in his next work. Upon the publication of The Signifying Monkey: A Theory of African-American Literary Criticism in 1988, Gates received both massive praise and attacks for this seminal work on the history of African-American literature and literary theory. In Gates’ opinion, his theory is “more precisely a theory of literary history” (1988, p. xiv), but its influence is much more than...
that. According to Lubiano (1989), “it also provides an extremely valuable critical apparatus useful in approaching all kinds of texts” (p. 566). Gates accomplishes two goals through *The Signifying Monkey*: on the one hand, he reiterates the fact that there has always been an African-American literary tradition in which most works have something in common, each new work being the repetition and revision of former ones; on the other hand, he establishes, or rather rediscovers, the African-Americans’ own literary theory, i.e., the Signifying Theory. As a revolutionary step, the Signifying Theory has caused great attention in academia, and scholars and students have started to take this approach to read single African-American literary works or discuss the relationship between different black literatures. However, accusatory voices from both white and black scholars came together with compliments.

As Lubiano (1989) pointed out, “his work has generated more heat than light, the ubiquitousness of his written and public presence having rendered him and his work phenomena more talked about than read, more excoriated than understood, more inveighed against than engaged” (p. 561). Through a review and rethinking of the Signifying Theory, this paper sees Henry Louis Gates, Jr. as a mediator between black people’s political agenda and western literary theory. In view of a considerable amount of reviews and comments having summarized Gates’ contributions, more attentions will be paid to problematic and inconsistent issues in his theory.

**The Cultural Archaeology of Esu and the Signifying Monkey**

In order to “demystify the curious notion that theory is the province of the Western tradition” (1988, p. xx), Gates finds an ideal way to explore the black vernacular, from which the black’s own reading theory derives, and thus he turned to two signal trickster figures, Esu-Elgebara and the Signifying Monkey.

As the divine trickster figure of Yoruba mythology, Esu recurs throughout black oral narratives. It is called Esu-Elegbara in Nigeria, Legba among the Fon in Benin, and transforms into different variations and bears various names in Brazil, Cuba, Haiti, and the loa of Hoodoo in the United States. Albeit different names, Gates (1988) believes that these individual tricksters, as related parts of a larger, unified figure, represent the traditional motif rooted in the Pan-African vernacular tradition, and he therefore, calls them collectively as Esu, or as Esu-Elegbara. Hermes, as Esu’s direct relative in the West, is the messenger and interpreter for the gods, and hence, the principles of interpretation, hermeneutics. Similarly, critics name the principles of black texts Esu – ‘tufunaalo, literally means “one who unravels the knots of Esu” (Gates, 1988, p. 9). Hermes is also considered to be the inventor of language and speech, a liar, a thief, and a trickster. However, the Greek view of language consisting of signs that could lead to truth or falsehood was the essence of Hermes; that is to say, the interpretation through Hermes is to some extent determinate. In Yoruba mythology, Ifa is the god of determinate meanings, but Esu rules the interpretive process. As a master of figurative language, Esu enjoys the privilege to interpret the Ifa text (equivalence of the *Bible*) to the human according to its own understanding at will. People have to pay tribute to Esu when they seek for the divine message, but what they get in the end can never be the definite truth. In this way, Esu’s interpretation, full of arbitrariness and indeterminacy, defers the meaning people search for, making it an open-ended process. Referring to Hermes in the West, Gates practically signifies on the Greek mythology through repetition and revision, rediscovering the black hermeneutics that is supposed to be there already.

It should be noticed here that although Gates constantly claims to establish an independent African-American literary discourse, he could not stop referring to or appropriating western discourse on some occasions. According to Gates, if Ifa is the metaphor for the text itself, then Esu is the metaphor for
the uncertainties of explication, for the open-endedness of every literary text (1988, p. 21). In terms of its function in black oral narratives, Esu is more precisely the metaphor for literary critics mediating between texts and explications. Influenced by deconstructionist critics at Yale, Gates seems to be following the proposition with his black hermeneutics that the meaning of text, and of language, is always uncertain and unstable. On a second thought, however, we can say Gates fails at this point. According to Joyce’s telephone interview with Omi, Associate Director of the Center for African and African American Studies and a practitioner of Yoruba-based philosophies, while Esu is a divinity of indeterminacy, indeterminacy is not the same as arbitrariness. In the Yoruba religion and philosophy, Orun (the world of divine forces) can tell who the individual is by looking at choices he/she made before, and the individual will receive information he/she can hear when seeking divine guidance (as cited in Joyce, 2008, p. 376). What Gates proves with the trickster Esu is that interpretation of black texts is uncertain, but not the text itself. When we reread the mythology, it is clear that the Ifa text is determinate. Gates probes into Esu’s variations along the way; it traveled from the west coast of Africa to the New World in different countries and regions, trying to find the connection between Esu and the Signifying Monkey. He does find “a fascinating conflation of the Monkey and Esu in Afro-Cuban mythology,” (1988, p. 17), but as he admits, “we lack archeological and historical evidence to explain the valorized presence of the Monkey in Cuban mythology” (p. 20). The seemingly relevant textual evidence is that Echu Elegua (the Cuban Esu) frequently has a monkey by his side in Cuban mythology. The argument for connecting Esu with the Signifying Monkey is interesting:

The Signifying Monkey emerges from his mysteriously beclouded Afro-American origins as Esu’s first cousin, if not his American heir. It is as if Esu’s friend, the Monkey remains as the trace of Esu, the sole survivor of a disrupted partnership. Both are tropes that serve as transferences in a system aware of the nature of language and its interpretation (1988, p. 17).

It is safe to conclude that Gates believes the Signifying Monkey is the cousin of Esu mainly because they both have the tendency to reflect on the uses of formal language, and are tropes of interpretation and rhetorical strategies, which seems to preexist in Gates’ mind, leaving his cultural archaeology imperfect, albeit all the detailed readings and findings he has done.

Rhetoric or Narrative: What is Signifyin(g)?

It is imperative to catch a glimpse of the Signifying Monkey in African-American folk tales before further explicating the Signifyin(g) Theory. In various versions of narrative poems, the Signifying Monkey frequently claims to report to the Lion a series of insults uttered by the Elephant about the Lion’s closest relatives (his wife, mother and grandmother). The Lion realizes that his self-imposed superior status in the jungle has been challenged, and dashes out to the Elephant to avenge. However, the Elephant refuses to apologize and suggests that he might be mistaken, and the Lion, insisting on preserving his title, gets punched violently. The Monkey easily dethrones the self-assumed King of the jungle through his mischievous tricks, which is written in those narrative poems as “signifying”. Defeated and in outrage, the Lion learns that he was cheated and comes back to the Monkey, tending to physically lash out the trickster so that he could restore some dignity. Unfortunately, the Monkey who still luxuriates in his success of deception continues to signify upon the conceited Lion. It is believed that the Lion misunderstands the Monkey because he does not know the complicated rhetorical strategies, of which the Monkey is a great
In Gates’ opinion, “unlike his Pan-African Esu cousins, the Signifying Monkey exists not primarily as a character in a narrative but rather as a vehicle for narration in itself” (1988, p. 52). If Esu represents the mediating interpreter, the Monkey is a trope of the trope and signifies upon Esu. It sounds reasonable, but Gates has not told us why the Monkey is rather a vehicle when both Esu and the Monkey are found in African and African-American vernacular cultures. It seems that, again, Gates puts his presupposition into use while establishing his own discourse, while a careful rethinking makes his arbitrary proposition untenable.

When considering the formulaic tale of the Signifying Monkey only, we are told that the Monkey signifies with the play of rhetorical strategies, through which the literal meaning in the disguise of figurative language conceals the real intention. In this sense, Signifyin(g) is naturally the African-American cousin of rhetoric in the western literary discourse. Distinctive black rhetorical tropes including marking, loud-talking, testifying, calling out (of one’s name), sounding, rapping, and playing the dozens, are subsumed into the African-American Signification. Gates presents in a chart the corresponding relationship between Western rhetorical tropes and Afro-American Signifyin(g) tropes (1988, p. 87). If “stylin’ or woofing” being the equivalence of “hyperbole” still makes sense according to the chart, it is not easy to make connections between “Signifyin(g)” (one specific trope) and “irony”, “naming” and “metaphor”, and “capping” and “metalepsis”. Gates claims that his identifying black tropes with the figures of signification from classical and medieval rhetoric is partly motivated by Harold Bloom’s “map of misprision”, which is also listed in that chart. Without any further evidence to justify the similarity between each pair of tropes, the comparison is charted only for the sake of comparing. What leads to the Monkey’s success in de-throning the Lion is primarily the Monkey’s so-called report rather than his masterful play of formal language, for the Lion gets irritated just because he believes all the insulting remarks are uttered by the Elephant. Consequently, Signifyin(g) in the Monkey’s story is more of a special narrative technique than African-American vernacular tropes, and Gates clarifies this distinction later in his own way.

Signifyin(g) is a neologism coined by Gates himself in a similar way with which Derrida coins his term différence. Derrida repeats and revises “difference” in structuralism with a French homonym, and his deconstructionist notion that meaning is unstable is therefore cleverly inscribed in this term. In order to prove the existence of a black discourse distinct from and parallel with the white world, Gates takes the same approach to repeat and revise the structuralist “signifying” in standard English. He capitalizes the initial letter “s” and brackets the last letter “g”, making the brand new terminology, “Signifyin(g)”. In Standard English, signifying or signification has always been referring to the relation between the signifier (sound-image) and the signified (concept); in black vernacular, however, “the relation of signification itself has been critiqued by a black act of (re) doubling,” (Gates, 1988, p. 48) and the relation is between the signifier and rhetorical figures. In other words, to Signify is to engage in certain rhetorical games. Gates takes issue with the commonly acknowledged structuralist viewpoint that meaning is formulated on the horizontal axis through combination of certain signifiers, arguing that the neglect of associative meanings on the vertical axis is erroneous. With the support of Bakhtin’s double-voiced word and the Lacanian “other”, Gates polemicizes that Saussure is wrong in saying that the masses have no voice in the matter of controlling a signe word with his practice of changing the concept of the signifier signification. Gate’s revolutionary subversion is courageous given the historical context, but his contention is not unproblematic. The introduction of two axes it to demonstrate the similar relationship
between some pairs of notions, but those notions cannot be substituted with each other freely. Saussure’s preference for synchronic linguistics is not the same as the disgust with rhetorical figures in Western culture and literature. Jakobson (1998) views metonymy on the axis of combination and metaphor on the axis of congregation (pp. 76-77), so the rejection of the horizontal axis is like the denial of metonymy as a rhetorical trope. When Gates unabashedly utters that “retaining the identical signifier argues strongly that the most poignant level of black-white differences is that of meaning,” (1988, p. 49) one wonders how he could keep the signifier identical after he rewrites the letter “s” in upper case and brackets “g”. Just like his reference to Hermes and Harold Bloom, Gates cannot help making use of, or signifies upon those Western precursors to justify his argument, but some minor errors often come with his revision, and here again.

With this refreshing term, Gates examines what other Afro-American writers and scholars say about Signifyin(g). Roger D. Abrahams (1970) regards signifying (not using “Signifyin(g)”) as “a technique of indirect argument or persuasion,” “a language of implication”, “to imply, goad, beg, boast, by indirect verbal or gestural means” (pp. 66-67). Mitchell-Kernan (1973) insightfully points out that Signifyin(g), more than a tactic employed in verbal dueling, “also refers to a way of encoding message or meanings which involves, in most cases, an element of indirection” (p. 311). Compared with Abrahams and others such as Neale Hurston and Ralph Ellison, who see Signifyin(g) as the umbrella term for black vernacular tropes, Mitchell-Kernan’s view is doubtlessly progressive and inspirational for Gates to expand the Signifyin(g) theory. Besides, Mitchell-Kernan defines the distinction between the metaphorical type of signifying and third-party signifying, which answers the confusion in the Monkey’s story mentioned above. Gates also notices this distinction, as he writes, “I have been drawing a distinction between the ritual of Signifyin(g), (…) and the language of Signifyin(g)” (1988, p. 85). Unlike the distinction we mentioned between narrative techniques and rhetorical figures, Mitchell-Kernan and Gates seem to purposely fuse the two different types of signifying while realizing the distinction and propose that Signifyin(g) the black trope for all other tropes, the trope of tropes for the sake of the establishment of a black theory. What lies in Mitchell-Kernan and Gates’ thoughts is that to Signify is to speak indirectly, or rather to repeat and revise. Being aware that signifying is hard to pin down, Gates does not give his own definition, but rewrites it and expands the term’s denotation, and this might be explained by his ambition to apply the Signifyin(g) theory in finding the Afro-American literary tradition.

**A Continuous Tradition: Intertextuality Between Afro-American Literature**

Although the Signifyin(g) Theory has exerted great influence on Afro-American literary criticism, Gates made more contributions in the field of literary history, and this paper holds that the primary achievement of *The Signifying Monkey* is also his exploration of the interwoven relationship between individual literary works.

To clarify the distinction between metaphorical signifying and third-party signifying, Zhu Xiaolin (2004) divides Gates’ Signifying(g) theory into three parts when it is applied in literary criticism: language signifying, image signifying, and textual signifying (p. 144). To put it specifically, language signifying is the use of figurative language in Afro-American verbal games; image signifying means the revision or rewriting of some common images in Afro-American literary tradition, like “the talking book”; textual signifying is the succession or rewriting of a certain literary theme. In view of the similarity between the first two types, they can also be integrated as formal signifying, so that stylistic,
narrative and structural signifying could be included. It is interesting here that some white terms are really helpful in explicating the complicated and mysterious black theory.

Gates has done a meticulous work in tracing the use of various black tropes in different literary works, but his use of terms is frequently confusing. Looking in *The Oxford Classical Dictionary*, he finds pastiche “caricatures the manner of an original without adherence to its actual words,” and in parody proper “an original, usually well known, is distorted, with the minimum of verbal or literal change, to convey a new sense, often incongruous with the form” (as cited in Gates, 1988, p. 107). Gates intends to compare these two figures with Signifyin(g), and so far so good. However, things get complicated with the intrusion of Bakhtin’s two subdivisions of double-voiced discourse, viz. parodic narration and hidden polemic. Gates reminds us that “what Bakhtin means by parody can, depending on context, refer to either what we call ‘parody’ or ‘pastiche,’ as defined above” (1988, p.110). We have been told in the *Introduction* that parody corresponds to what Gates calls motivated Signification and pastiche to unmotivated Signification, and then what does parody mean? In face of different definitions of parody and pastiche, Gates fails to present his understanding while using them.

In the second half of *The Signifying Monkey*, Gates fully demonstrates the explanatory power of the theory he has proposed. Four sorts of double-voiced textual relations are specified in the *Introduction*: tropological revision, speakerly text, talking texts, and rewriting the speakerly, and Gates examines these relations in four chapters, respectively. He first reviews the tropological revision of the “Talking Book” in five slave narratives thoroughly. In these narratives the image of a book that can converse with white people but rejects the black recurs and is revised in different ways. The second relation is examined through Hurston’s combination of the heroine’s vernacular language with the narrative language of Standard English in search for the black voice. The relation of talking texts is best illustrated by Reed’s *Mumbo Jumbo*, a motivated Signification of *Invisible Man*, *Native Son*, and *Black Boy*. Alice Walker’s rewriting of Hurston’s speakerly text, replacing the free indirect discourse with her epistolary style, is an example of unmotivated Signification, and by “unmotivated”, Gates means the absence of a negative critique that is ubiquitous in *Mumbo Jumbo*. With his scholarship and far-reaching knowledge of Afro-American literature, Gates has accomplished an amazing project, so that few will doubt the existence of the Afro-American literary tradition. What leaves this work imperfect is his seemingly casual categorization of these four sorts of textual relations, which are definitely interconnected and interdependent. The first two relations, tropological revision and speakerly text could be taken as formal signification; the relation of talking texts is like a general principle of intertextuality as its name suggests; Walker’s rewriting of Hurston is both formal and thematic, and thus it becomes an independent category. Without a recognized standard beforehand, it is advised to rethink this classification.

**Conclusion**

Throughout *The Signifying Monkey*, Gates critiques the negative effects on Afro-American literature brought about by Eurocentric theories, expressing Afro-Americans’ struggle against literary, social and political repression. The theory Gates has proposed not only proffers a new perspective for approaching black literature, but also helps to explain African Americans’ own literary tradition, building the black’s own literary discourse parallel with the white world. However, as this paper claims, imperfection is found in the Signifyin(g) Theory. There are two major voices against it. Most Afrocentric writers and scholars find Gates, educated and institutionalized in the Western world, consciously deconstructing the “blackness” on social and political agenda, which results in an Afro-American formalism. Female
scholars such as Sandra Adell (1994) and Joyce Ann Joyce (2008) are dissatisfied with his deconstructionist paradigm or “poststructuralist sensibility” (Lin, 2008, p. 103). Other scholars find him consciously avoiding the mention of white literature’s influence on black literature. Cain (1990) gives abundant examples to prove Gates’ ignorance of the intertextuality between black and white writers (pp. 661-662). While condemning some black writers’ anxiety of their black precursors’ influence, Gates is not bold enough to overcome his own anxiety of the white influence. Actually, the inclusion of white writers’ influence would make his work more comprehensive and persuasive, because “such analysis does not lessen the distinctiveness of the Afro-American tradition” (Cain, 1990, pp661-662).

Gates is fundamentally a practitioner of deconstructionist thoughts, and throughout The Signifying Monkey he freely repeats and revises white theories and appropriates them into his own, but not without problems. As a result, Gates has put himself into a contradiction in this book: on the one hand, the trace of white literature is excluded from the Afro-American literary tradition, and on the other, he candidly admits the establishment of his theory a process of localizing.

References
An Analysis of the Excellent Micro-Lectures from the Perspective of Register Theory

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[Abstract] In recent years, the emergence of flipped classroom and MOOC has forcefully subverted the traditional teaching model. A micro-lecture, which is mainly designed to guide students’ autonomic and individual learning, attracts more and more attention from scholars both at home and abroad. Within the framework of the Register Theory, the paper discusses eight excellent micro-lecture videos as subjects and finds out some prominent and distinctive register features.

[Keywords] micro-lecture; literature review; Register Theory; winning entries

Introduction
In recent years, the emergence of flipped classroom and MOOC (short for Massive Open Online Courses) has forcefully subverted the traditional teaching model and, more importantly, ignited the interest and enthusiasm of teachers to be committed to teaching reform. Under this circumstance, the micro-lecture comes into existence and is widely adopted by the online educational circles (Jiao, 2013, p. 13). With its short form and focused content, it is mainly designed to guide students’ autonomic and individual learning (Zhang, 2013). The micro-lecture has undoubtedly exerted certain influence on the traditional, current teaching and learning model; the teacher-centered, classroom-centered, textbook-centered teaching conception has gradually been threatened and replaced by the student-centered, problem-centered, and activity-centered model that highlights the cultivation of the students’ creativity (Song, 2015). It is believed that the micro-lecture has not only provided more extensive learning resources for students but also created a precious platform for teachers’ sustainable development. This paper selects the eight first-prize entries of the First Micro-Lecture Contest of Foreign Languages in China held by Higher Education Press as subjects. To some extent, they are the best representatives of all the entries submitted and demonstrate the highest level of achievement in many respects. The paper will mainly focus and elaborate on the characteristic register features shown in those micro-lecture videos from the perspective of the Register Theory, expecting to provide certain implications for making high-quality micro-lectures for beginners.

Literature Review
Micro-lecture, short for the micro video online lecture, is an online video learning resource, situational, and available for diversified learning methods; it is designed according to a certain point of a subject (key point, important point, and doubtful point, etc.) or teaching process (learning activity, theme, experiment, and task) for learners’ autonomic learning after class (Hu, 2013). The original conception of the
micro-lecture can be dated to 1993 when LeRoy A. McGrew, a professor at the University of Northern Iowa, came up with his “60 seconds organic chemistry course,” aiming at helping the non-professionals get acquainted with a certain chemistry point or several chemistry points (Tang, et al., 2015). The Khan Academy, established in 2006 in America, is generally regarded as a milestone and bears great significance in its development with micro-lecture videos beginning to serve learners as a learning resource. It is David Penprose who formally proposed the conception of the micro-lecture and applied it in online courses. According to him, a micro-lecture, with an online learning or mobile learning purpose is a 60-second lecture guided by constructivism, based on a certain theme, and presented by voice or video record (Guan, 2011). In 2011, Salman Khan, founder of the Khan Academy, delivered a famous speech entitled “Let’s Use Video to Reinvent Education” in a TED lecture that greatly aroused the attention of the education researchers in China and inspired them to conduct relevant research and teaching reform.

However, the interpretation of the conception of the micro-lecture has not reached a consensus in China. Hu Tiesheng (2011), Jiao Jianli (2013), Li Jiahou (2013), and other scholars have tried to define the term; Li’s definition seems to be the most acknowledged and is used in the present paper, since it is consistent with the definition and the requirements of the First Micro-Lecture Contest of Foreign Languages in China. According to Li, a micro-lecture should be last under 10 minutes, have a clear and concrete teaching objective, and be short and focused (Li, 2013, p. 11). It can be easily calculated that in the past five years, the study of micro-lectures has been well established, and it has flourished. Thousands of articles covering a wide range of research questions can be found. Tang (2015) analyzes the literature-related micro-lectures published from 2011-2014 through content analysis. After the relativity processing and elimination, 456 pieces of literature have been finally selected as samples to research. The results advocate that the study of micro-lectures in China could be roughly classified into three stages: the initial formation stage-theoretical study (2011-2012); the deepening development stage-technique study (2012-2013); and the reaping rewards stage (2014-now). As for the content, 11.18% of the previous studies focus on fundamental research (including its definition, methods, strategies, significance, and status quo), 4.17% on relevant technical research, 36.18% on applied research, 31.58% on the construction of resources, 14.25% on the practical achievements, and a negligible percentage on its assessment and others. However, the study of the high quality videos of micro-lectures, their register features in particular, has been rarely touched upon. Therefore, the present paper intends to probe into this question and reveal the most prominent language features embodied.

**Theoretical Framework**

The register or the context of a situation was originally put forward by Malinowski (1923) and further developed by Halliday (Liu, 2014). Halliday (1978) defined register as “the set of meanings, the configuration of semantic patterns that are typically drawn upon under the specific conditions along with the words and structures that are used in the realization of meaning” (p. 23). Register has three multidimensional variables: field, tenor, and mode of discourse, which are correspondent to one of the meta-functions, respectively: experiential meaning, interpersonal meaning, and textual meaning. A field of discourse is a kind of social activity in which there are discourse functions in the entire event and the purposeful activities of the speaker or writer (Halliday, 1985). Fields covers speech topics, events, and the purpose of participants in the communication (Liu, 2014). The tenor of the discourse refers to the relationship between participants, meaning what role that they play, including permanent and temporary
relationships, the types of role that they take on in the communicating activities, and the entire complicated social relationships in which they are involved (Halliday, 1985). The mode of discourse refers to the medium or the channel of the speaking activity, and it determines, or to be more exact, correlates with the role played by the speaking activity in the situation (Halliday, 1964). In short, field refers to “why” and “about what” a communication takes place; mode is about “how”; and tenor is about “to whom” (Hudson, 1996, p. 46). In other words, field is concerned with the purpose and subject-matter of the communication; mode refers to the means by which communication takes place – notably, by speech or writing; and tenor depends on the relations between participants (He, 2011). The Register Theory is one of the most important theories in Systematic Functional Grammar (SFG), and Halliday (2000) states that the purpose of his constructing SFG is to provide a theoretical framework for discourse analysis, including oral discourse and written discourse (Liu, 2014, p. 25). Therefore, the present paper adopts the Register Theory as its theoretical framework to analyze the register features of the excellent micro-lectures.

**An Analysis of Register Features of Excellent Micro-lectures**

The term “register” is widely used in sociolinguistics to refer to varieties according to use (Hudson, 1996, p. 45). Radford, et al. (1999) defines that a register is a set of features of speech or writing characteristic of a particular type of linguistic activity or a particular group when engaging in it. Based on these two definitions, we can safely conclude that a micro-lecture, which takes the teaching video as the main carrier and is used to record the short and complete teaching process to impart knowledge or skills, is a register. With the sampled videos and the video transcription made, this part makes an attempt to analyze the eight winning entries within the framework of Halliday’s Register Theory, revealing its distinctive and prominent register features.

**Field of Discourse**

A field of discourse is the linguistic reflections of the purposive role of the language user in the situation in which text has occurred (Gregory, et al., 1978). According to Leckie-Tarry (1995), field refers to situational inherent characteristics and the social ongoing activity. There are three sub-elements to tell the different fields apart: social place, different participants, and the subject matter. As for the sampled teaching videos of the eight excellent micro-lectures, they almost share the same and simplified place – the virtual online classroom. One exception is the micro-lecture named “Western Business Dining Etiquette,” which has a lovely classy restaurant as its setting. Besides, the monological domination of the teachers is another distinctive feature, since with no exception there is no real student participating and interacting with the teachers in the sampled videos. Although the rules of the contest provide options for the participation of the students, the sampled videos seem to have reached consensus on having no real students involved, which many judges of this contest have approved and, generally, have highly recommended. As far as the subject matter, the teaching content, to be more exact, is concerned, the sampled videos cover a wide range of topics. Roughly speaking, the diverse topics can be categorized into three groups: topics on cultivating students’ comprehensive skills (for example: How to Translate English Color Words?, Writing Techniques of Expository Essay); topics on elaborating Chinese culture (for example: Festivals and Chinese Culture) and topics on ESP (for example: Western Business Dining Etiquette, IT English). Diverse as the topics are, they are all focused, accurate, and operable. Besides, it can be easily figured out that the purpose of these micro-lectures is to impart knowledge or skills in a
vivid and concise way with the help of information technology. Therefore, the sampled micro-lectures can be summarized as 5-10 minute, monologically organized, and information technology assisted teaching events occurring in a virtual online classroom with focused and accurate topics to impart the knowledge and skills of English.

**Tenor of Discourse**
The tenor of discourse refers to the role the relationships among people who participate in a certain topic (He, 2011). Different from the traditional classroom teaching, which has the innate characteristic of face-to-face interaction between the teacher and the students, the sampled videos have no real students on camera. However, all the eight teachers studied have their imaginary students in mind, delivering their lecture as naturally as if they were facing real students. Almost all the teachers express greetings, assign homework, and say farewells to their “imaginary” students, just as they do in the traditional classroom. It is found almost all the sampled videos have warm and sincere greetings that are intimate and informal. For example:

*Hello. Can you guess where we are?*
*Hey, what’s up guys?*
*Hello, everyone. Welcome to today’s extensive class.*
*Hi, there! Welcome back to the world of critical thinking and thoughtful writing.*

In addition, it is found that the teachers studied tend to employ varied tone and pleasant pitch to seize students’ attention and show their friendliness and desire for intimacy. Usually, the varied tone will directly demonstrate the teachers’ good command of the language, and the pleasant pitch will easily ease boredom and avoid distraction, making the students focus on the lecture more readily. For example:

Take a look of the two cartoon pictures. In the first one, two chickens are talking about the issue of whether the chicken or the egg comes first. They are saying:

*Chicken 1: The chicken comes first. (rising tone, high pitch)*
*Chicken 2: No, the egg. (falling tone, low pitch)*
*Chicken 1: Chicken. (high pitch)*
*Chicken 2: The egg. (low pitch)*

By role-playing the two chickens using different tones and pitches, the teacher can successfully arouse the students’ interest and create a lovely and friendly image that the students love to accept. In order to enhance the intimacy with their imaginary students, the teachers studied also prefer to appropriately add some personal comments to either arouse interest or seek resonance from the students. The commonly used expressions in this way are as follows: *Don’t you agree?; You are right!; Great, you got it.* All these expressions can be used to shorten the spatial and psychological distance between them and bring forth resonance more easily. However, this does not necessarily mean those personal comments can be overused. Appropriate or even sparing use of them is recommended. So far, it can be safely concluded that the sampled micro-lectures aim to establish an informal intimate relationship between the teachers and the imaginary students.

**Mode of Discourse**
Mode refers to the means by which communication takes place – notably, by speech or writing (He, 2011). Based on this definition, the mode of micro-lectures should be regarded as an oral one. Besides,
since all the sampled micro-lectures are the winning entries of the contest, the teachers must have prepared and then submitted them, so the mode of micro-lectures should, also, be well-prepared rather than impromptu. Besides, the requirement of the contest that all the videos submitted should not exceed ten minutes will definitely exert some influence on the teacher talk in the micro-lectures. It is found that the teacher talk tends to be succinct and concise in the sampled videos, and the teachers all incline to approach the topics directly after greeting the students. For example:

Hello, everyone. Welcome to today’s extensive class. The topic of today’s lecture is the translation of the Chinese word “君子”.

Hey, what’s up guys? Today, I am gonna talk about the elements that make up a story.

In addition to the conciseness and directness, the teacher talk in the sampled videos seems to be objective and credible, as well. One reason for this effect lies in the fact that almost all the teachers realize the importance of modifying their utterance. Tactful use of hedges is one realization. A hedge is an important manifestation of fuzzy language. Expressions like kind of, sort of, I think, as far as I am concerned, a little bit, approximately, and so on are categorized as hedges. It is considered to be a way of reducing or increasing semantic fuzziness, a way to seek agreement with others and a strategy to achieve politeness. The underlined words in the following three sentences are used either to enhance credibility and objectivity or to avoid absoluteness so that what is being said seems to be more scientific and persuasive.

Chinese people are quite familiar with these stories

Basically, conflicts can be divided into two categories.

As far as the festivals are concerned, probably we have to explain further.

It is also found that questioning is largely used by the teachers in order to call forth students’ attention and create a certain kind of artificial, mutual interaction that they are accustomed to and feel comfortable with. This question-motivated way of teaching will definitely grasp students’ attention, set them to watch and think along, and give them the impetus to devote their maximum involvement, and enhance their learning efficiency.

For example:

Is he making an argument?

Do they mean the same?

Do you know how to translate it?

What are color words? How do you translate them?

According to Liu (2014), there are two types of questions: display questions and referential questions. Display questions refer to questions with definite answers or ones whose answers the questioners surely know. Referential questions are those without definite answers, and they are used by teachers to encourage students to think creatively. It is calculated that an absolute majority of the questions used by the teachers are referential ones, indicating that the teachers attach great importance to the cultivation of the independent and creative thinking of the students, which is very favorable to the development of the students.
Conclusion
The micro-lecture is gaining more and more attention and recognition in China. It can not only better satisfy students’ need for individual learning, but also largely motivate students’ learning initiative. As an important supplement and extension of traditional teaching, the micro-lecture is exerting more and more beneficial effect on the students. This paper focuses on the register features of eight excellent micro-lecture videos from the perspective of the Register Theory. The major findings of the paper are the sampled micro-lectures can be said to be 5-10 minutes, monologically organized, and information technology-assisted teaching events occurring in a virtual, online classroom with focused and accurate topics to impart knowledge or skills; in the whole process, the teachers aim to establish an informal intimate relationship between the teachers and the imaginary students, and they tend to be well-prepared; the language they employ in the micro-lectures is largely oral, succinct, direct, and objective; special emphasis is put on cultivating the students’ critical, independent, and creative thinking by the teachers employing a large quantity of referential questions. However, due to the small-scale corpus, the findings many need further improvement and modification. It is hoped that the present paper provides some implications for the new beginners to make excellent micro-lectures; more studies of this kind will be conducted in the future.

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References
Taoism and Confucianism in *Moment in Peking*

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**Abstract**  
Three leading roles in *Moment in Peking* are analyzed in this paper from the perspective of their attitudes toward social conventions, love and marriage, independence and hardships. The comparative analysis tries to objectively evaluate the author, Lin Yutang’s viewpoint on his philosophy of life, and the perfect harmonious coexistence of Taoism and Confucianism in *Moment in Peking*.

**Keywords**  
Taoism; Confucianism; patriarchal society; coexistence; *Moment in Peking*

**Introduction**  
*Moment in Peking* is an English novel written by Lin Yutang (1895-1976) in 1938. Mr. Lin wrote it in the hope of spreading the Chinese culture to the world. As a matter of fact, a great many westerners knew nothing about China before they learned of Lin Yutang’s works. Like Lin’s other famous work *The Importance of Living* (1937), it became a selection of the Book-of-the-Month Club. It earned great attention as soon as it was published. According to Time magazine, *Moment in Peking* “may well become the classic background novel of modern China.” More than 50,000 copies were sold within the first six months of its publication in America at the end of 1939. Lin has been nominated the Nobel Prize for Literature for four times.

*Moment in Peking*, was the long novel which began with the Boxer Rebellion in 1901, and ended with the breakout of the Sino-Japanese War. The story lasted 30 years, from which you could figure out the Chinese social changes in modern Chinese history. Many scholars abroad and at home have studied the book, mostly from the literature aspect, the differences between the west and the east, and translation. Few focus on the perspective of the author’s philosophy. This paper, analyzing it in the aspect of Confucianism and Taoism, can give readers a full understanding of the book, the Chinese culture, and the Chinese philosophy. Three characters, Mr. Yao, Mannia and Yao Mulan, are mainly discussed to express the ideal philosophy of the life that the author prefers.

**Taoism and Confucianism in China**  
Confucianism is highly appreciated by the Chinese, especially by the government officials. As the main supporter of Confucianism, Confucius (551-479 B.C) is regarded as the first and greatest teacher for all generations in China, the sage without flaw. He was “not a philosopher in the ordinary technical sense, he was concerned with drawing up a set of rules for human conduct rather than with the elaboration of theories” (Hu, 2012, p.106). Not only did Confucius give the new interpretations to the Six Classics, but also he had his own ideas about the individual and the society, heaven and man, especially the former. In terms of society, Confucius held that the most important thing in the world was to carry out the rectification of names in order to have a well-ordered world. Every name in social relationships had its own responsibilities and duties. “Confucius based his moral philosophy on human relationships – the relationship between father and son, between husband and wife, between elders and the young, between friend and friend, and between ruler and subject” (Hu, 2012, p. 106). Confucianism is not a religion, but
“the greatness of Confucianism is that, without being a religion, it can take the place of religion. It can make men do without religion” (Ku, 2009, p. 21).

Whereas “Confucianism is a compromise”, “Laotse’s naturalism was radically nihilistic, denying God and knowledge” (Hu, 2012, p. 106). Its major work is widely regarded to be the *Tao Te Ching*, containing teachings attributed to the sage Laotse (571-471 B.C) as well as Chuangtse (369-286 B.C). Supported by some emperors for political reasons, Taoism welcomed its silver age from Tang Dynasty (618-907) to Northern Song Dynasty (960-1127). The ideas expressed in the main part of the *Dao Te Ching* represent an attempt to reveal the laws underlying the changes of things in the universe. Things change, but the laws underlying the changes remain unchanging. Laotse in *Dao Te Ching* said: “The reason that I have great disaster is that I have a body. If there were no body, what disaster could there be” (2006, Chap. 13)? These are developed by Chuangtse, in which mentions the equalization of life with death and the identity of self with others. This is also a kind of developed “escape”: not one from society to mountains and forests, but another from this world to another world.

Confucianism is the philosophy of social organization, and is also the philosophy of daily life whereas Taoism emphasizes what is natural and spontaneous in him (Fung, 2007, p. 36). Comparatively speaking, Confucianism is thought to be “This-worldliness” while Taoism is “Other-worldliness”. Based on the study of the relationship between Lin Yutang and the Chinese culture, Wang Zhaosheng concludes that Lin aims to “put thought of Taoism into the ethics Confucianism is devoted in” (Wang, 2007, p. 61).

**The Characters’ Embodiment of Confucianism and Taoism in *Moment in Peking***

Lin Yutang intended to reveal his attitudes toward Confucianism and Taoism in *Moment in Peking* through three characters – Mannia, Mr. Yao and Yao Mulan – among whom Mannia represented a Confucian, Mr. Yao, a Taoist, and Mulan, the combination of a Confucian and Taoist. The analysis of the three people’s attitudes toward social conventions, love and marriage, hardships will help us fully understand Lin Yutang and his philosophy of life.

**Mannia, A Sorrowful Confucian Woman**

“In the Taoist work, *the Chuangtse*, we see that the Taoist often ridiculed Confucius as one who confined himself to the morality of human-heartedness and righteousness, thus being conscious only of moral values, and not super-moral value” (Fung, 2007, p. 74). Mannia is such a traditional girl deeply affected by these moral values. Brought up by her Confucian father, she had a completely crooked education of the classical type for girls. The Confucians are worried about the consequence of teaching, especially girls’ education. “The danger in the teaching of history is that people may be filled with incorrect legends and stories of events. The danger in the teaching of philosophy is that the people become crooked” (Lin, 2009, p. 164). The Confucian family made Mannia different from Mulan, in that she had a bound feet. “She seemed an antiquated rarity, like a picture that leaps out of the pages of an ancient book. Hers was a type that apparently could not or did not survive in these modern days” (Lin, 2005, p. 46).

Mannia is a real follower of social conventions in the patriarchal society. The women were supposed to have certain kind of ordinary skills, such as good cooking, and neat sewing. Mannia was such a perfect Confucian girl to have all these virtues before marriage. After marriage, the Confucian Tseng family developed her Confucian traits. Mr. Tseng was an official who bore the strong mark of Confucianism like other officials at that time. He forbade his young widowed daughter-in-law to go out to a movie while he himself would go with his concubine. Mrs. Tseng best exemplified the Confucian criteria of a good
woman of her time, being absolutely obedient to her mother-in-law, encouraging her husband to marry her maid. Living in this family, Mannia was more passive, subdued and vulnerable.

French female author Simone de Beauvoir claimed, “One is not born, but rather becomes, a woman” (de Beauvoir, 1952, p. 301). Mannia was a fair example of the classical womanhood and she was happy when she felt that what she did was exactly the thing a girl was required to do. She was always taking up her embroidery if possible and was confused when Mulan told her that she wanted to be a boy. Mannia “died” in a way at age of eighteen when her husband died the third day of their wedding. In ancient China, not only women were destroyed but also men. “The better the boy was in his studies, the paler and weaker he became, usually” (Lin, 2005, p. 79). Pinya, the eldest boy in the Tseng family and Mannia’s fiancé, was this kind of boy. When a telegram from the Tseng family claimed that Pinya was ill, Mannia was determined to visit him as soon as possible. Unfortunately, when she arrived at the Tseng family, Pinya was more sick than before. At last, a wedding aiming at Tsunghsi was held to save his life, after Mannia said, “Living, I shall be a Tseng family person; dead, I shall be a Tseng family ghost” (Lin, 2005, p. 95). Tsunghsi didn’t save Pinya, and he died. Since then, Mannia never touched her jewels again and started a long vegetarian fast for the benefit of her husband's soul. She lived like a nun in the rich mansion until the coming of a boy.

Brought up by her Confucian family, Mannia had never crossed the line demanded by the patriarchal society. She lived in Shandong while her fiancé lived in Peking. The greatest obstacle was that they were not supposed to correspond with each other. The long-distant relationship made the young Mannia have a feeling of strange loneliness and she became unusually quiet. She cried at her father's tomb unusually bitterly so that she caught a cold, which allowed her to stay in bed thinking of her Pinya. All that Mannia was doing was waiting to go to Peking and be married. The Confucian Mannia swallowed her bitterness without any trace when she was too young to deserve it.

The greatest hardship Mannia encountered was loss of her dear fiancé when she was only eighteen years old. Even in this horrible situation, she dared not weep aloud in front of others. During the whole first half-year of her widowhood, she kept to herself in her courtyard alone even though she saw little of Peking. She started her vegetarian period and spent most of her time “making the eight pairs of embroidered shoes which she as a bride should have presented to her mother-in-law on the morning after the wedding, during the formal reception, but which she had not been able to make because of Pinya’s illness” (Lin, 2005, p. 143). She heard in her courtyard the street cries of the Peking hawkers and the evening drums from the Drum Tower and the morning bells from the Bell Tower, however, they had nothing to do with her. As a virgin widow, she lived in the Tseng family for the rest of her life as a daughter-in-law. The courtyard she lived became a kind of tomb to her.

It is unfair to consider Mannia as a funerary object of a feudal society, or a victim of Confucianism. She was a typical image of the well-bred girls of her time.

Mr. Yao, a Controversial Taoist Man

As a head of the wealthy Yao family, Mr. Yao was not a follower of conventions. He had no great interests outside of his books, curios and his children. He refused to be excited even when something urgent happened, since a true Taoist believes that, “When one is simple and unaffected and mellow, sorrows and fears can’t disturb him and evil influences can’t affect him” (Lin, 2009, p. 212). “The Taoism was intended to be a rival or a substitute for Buddhism, it was too much imitation—indeed a crude imitation…. The Taoist idea was also to flee from the this life and this world and seek individual
salvation. It was as selfish and anti-social as the Buddhist” (Hu, 2012, p. 227). So, as a Taoist, a father, a husband, and a master of a big wealthy family, Mr. Yao was confused and struggled against self-doubt at the bottom of his heart occasionally.

Mr. Yao didn’t care about social conventions. In Mr. Yao’s time, sing-song girls and the actors and actresses belonged to the lower social class, but he taught his daughters how to sing Peking operatic selections according to Confucianism. Mr. Yao encouraged his daughters to have several unwomanly accomplishments, “as if purposely to defy her mother and society in general. Such was Mr. Yao’s broadmindedness that it made him among the first to seize the ideas that were beginning to change Chinese society. And up to the age of sixteen, Mulan still often accompanied her father to the Lungfusze Temple Fair in search of antiques” (Lin, 2005, p. 67). Mr. Yao was a free-thinking Taoist and like Lin Yutang’s father he was not a follower of conventions.

Mr. Yao loved three things during his entire life: his books, curios and his children, among which I think children were his favorite, however, he let his wife, with cynical wisdom, handle their education mostly. This revealed that maybe Mr. Yao was not so unconventional in the bottom of his heart, or it could be also considered as a kind of compromise with the cynical world. Any interpretation could make us fell that he was sort of controversial. The real world couldn’t tolerate a true Taoist.

All the children in the Yao family, including the black sheep Tijen, the eldest son, admired their father greatly. He taught his daughters special skills which ordinary women were not allowed to learn. Mulan and her sister Mochou were quite famous in the capital city of Peking, mainly because of their father’s influence. Mrs. Yao generally regarded Mr. Yao as a corrupting influence, because they really had entirely different ideas of family education. It was obvious that Mr. Yao realized the difference, but he allowed his wife to take care of the whole family, showing that he agreed with his wife’s cynical wisdom to some extent.

Mr. Yao’s attitudes towards hardships show his Taoist calmness. At the beginning of the book, the Boxer Rebellion and the Sino-Japanese war occurred. Lots of people ran away from Beijing, but “Mr. Yao had refused to flee until the evening of the eighteenth” (Lin, 2005, p. 6). He believed that a true Taoist should never be excited, because “Excitement is not good for the soul” (Lin, 2005, p. 7). Mulan never forgot what her father told her, “When you yourself are right, nothing that happens to you is ever wrong” (Lin, 2005, p. 7). On the occasion of the sudden death of Tijen, the eldest son in the Yao family, Mr. Yao’s reflection was quite different from his wife’s. He was deeply concerned but controlled himself throughout the whole affair while his wife’s hair went almost entirely white overnight. “Through his readings and meditations, he had reached a point where he had lost his sense of the ego and the distinction between “self” and “non-self” (Lin, 2005, p. 328). Tijen had always been a burden on the bottom of his father’s heart, but his death worked an totally unexpected change in Mr. Yao. He decided to break up the family fortune and become a monk as a gesture of so-called defiance.

From these events, a controversial Taoist was revealed. The starting point of Taoist philosophy is the preservation of life and avoiding of injury. The method for doing so is “to escape.” This is the method of the common recluse who escapes from society and keeps himself in the mountains and forests. Mr. Yao, like an ordinary recluse, determined to leave home for ten years. By doing this Mr. Yao felt that he could avoid the complicated and noisy human world; however, it is strongly doubted that the mountains and forests could help a person out of this world for quite a long period of time if the heart or soul is still in this world.
Yao Mulan, an Ideal Woman with the Combination of Taoism and Confucianism

*Moment in Peking* told a story about the changeable modern Chinese history, which involved many political historical events, such as the Boxer Rebellion, Warlords Fighting, The Second World War, and The New Cultural Movement. Lin Yutang described a large number of figures in different features, among which Yao Mulan was the ideal character. She was not a total Confucian like Mannia, and she was not a total Taoist like Mr. Yao, however, she was both a Confucian and Taoist. She found a balance between the coexistence of Taoism and Confucianism, leading to her becoming an ideal character in the book.

The era Mulan was born in was not pleasant, but her family mostly enjoyed a democratic atmosphere. Mulan’s attitudes towards social conventions depended on two sides, one side from her Taoist father, and the other from her strict mother. Her critical mother, influenced by the feudal culture and society, wanted to bind Mulan’s feet, “but her father, having read the ‘Essay on Natural Feet’ by Liang Chichao and being caught up with new reformist ideas, strongly opposed it. It was one of those questions of the times affecting one’s personal life” (Lin, 2005, p. 39). When Mulan was only eight years old, she was required to sit on a chair with both of her legs held tightly together by her mother. Mrs Yao was severe toward her daughters while she pampered and spoiled her son without a bottom line. Mulan was such a smart girl that she had possessed all the womanly virtues before she was fourteen years old. In the eye of traditional Chinese, she was a typical perfect girl who followed all the social conventions. Mr. Yao liked to read the books and magazines about the New Cultural Movement and Western culture, so he tried to give his daughters a new advanced education. He encouraged Mulan to do what men could do, for example, whistling like a boy, singing a Peking Opera only men were allowed to do at that time – a curious collection and appreciation no women were expected to have the special skills. The cynical mother taught Mulan the common skills that women could live on in the male-dominating society and the wise father taught Mulan great knowledge that she could confront the patriarchy. In a way, Mulan followed the social conventions, but in another way Mulan defied them by doing something the women were forbidden to do at that time.

Compared with Mulan’s attitudes toward social conventions, her attitudes towards love and marriage were quite conservative. During Mulan’s time, neither boys nor girls had the right to choose a future spouse by themselves. It was the parents’ obligation to help their sons or daughters do the search. Usually the parents went to a matchmaker with the young man’s horoscopes, then the matchmaker tried to make the proper couple’s horoscopes exchange. With both sides of the parents’ permission, the young man and young woman started their marriage.

Mulan fell in love with Lifu when he first came into her life in the Western Hills, although Lifu was only an intelligent young man from a poor scholarship family. She appreciated the contact with Lifu any time and they had a lot in common, and actually, they were good companions for each other soon afterwards. As a Taoist daughter, she couldn’t help thinking of Lifu especially when the spring came. She created every chance to stay with Lifu. Once when the Yao family ate crabs with Lifu, Mulan disobeyed her father’s advice that “excitement is not good for soul”, talking so much that her mother had to remind her of focusing on eating. As a matter of fact, they were soul mates rather than lovers. By staying together, they could totally understand each other even without words. It was obvious that the Taoist Mulan was in love with Lifu head over heels, but the Confucian Mulan chose Sunya following the parents’ arrangement.
A few years after Mulan married Sunya, they were forced to Hangchou because of the civil war. There Mulan’s marriage was challenged by another young woman. When Mulan found Sunya was distracted and unusually quiet, she sensed something. The Confucian Tseng family taught her that a master could have a wife and a concubine, so she encouraged her husband to find one like his father. With the help of Taoism, Mulan made the marriage life in a Confucian family lively and successful.

As an idealistic character in the book, Mulan has also suffered many hardships. When she was a child, Mulan received a good Taoist family education from her true Taoist father. It became kind of philosophy for her, from which she derived much of her good joy and courage. Taoism believes that if you are right, nothing happening to you can be wrong, so you must have courage to live and to endure what you meet in your life. “The Taoists maintained that the sage who has a complete understanding of the nature of things, thereby has no emotions. This, however, does not mean that he lacks sensibility. Rather it means that he is not disturbed by the emotions, and enjoys what may be called ‘the peace of the soul’” (Fung, 2007, p. 176).

Mulan was seen as quite calm even when she was a child. When separated from her family on the run-away journey to Hangchou, she met the Boxer soldiers. Although she was frightened, she tried to negotiate with them, “Good uncles, help me to find my parents. They have money and will reward you” (Lin, 2005, p. 38).

When Mulan’s eldest brother Tijen died from falling down while he was riding on a powerful mare in the northern suburb, all the family were deeply struck. The old mother, who loved her eldest son more than any other children in the family, sat beside her son’s deathbed, wept silently and even refused to eat and sleep. It was Mulan who shouldered the responsibility by comforting her mother. The hair of the mother who was still under fifty, was almost entirely white. She loved her son to the end so much that she began to regret preventing her son from marrying a girl she disliked, but Mulan believed as a Taoist who believes, “men strive while gods decide”.

Taoism also helped Mulan go through a devastating disaster. Aman, her dearest daughter who Mulan was quite proud of, was killed in a massacre when she was joining in the demonstration. According to an American who was at the scene, this massacre would cause an instant revolution in any city in America, however, in that special period in China, the sad mother couldn’t sort out who was supposed to take responsibility for the merciless murderers. Her daughter was but a little girl, but she became the victim. The side of Mulan’s Taoism did all she could to diminish the trauma from her daughter’s death since she had a proper understanding of the natural things (Ma, 2012, p. 33). In the words of Taoists, it is “to disperse emotion with reason”. Taoism also encouraged Mulan to go through her husband’s affair with an art school student and rescue Lifu when he was put into prison.

**Implications and Conclusion**

The traditional Chinese cultural values were explored in *Moment in Peking*. The system of these three families, the Yao family, the Tseng family and the New family involved in this book, were built up on the basis of the Confucianism with the supplement of mostly Taoism and sometimes the Western culture. In this work, Doctor Lin tried to explore the balance between Taoism and Confucianism, by observing life from his own creative philosophy, where the social order, the universe and the nature are combined together harmoniously. Mannia, an elegant and kind young woman, was suffering a lot due to the belief of Confucianism because she found no way “out of this world”. Mr. Yao, a true Taoist, found it hard to achieve the spiritual peace in his life since mountains and forests couldn’t offer him the real relief. Yao
Mulan, who was brought up by a Taoist father and trained in the Tseng family believing in Confucianism after marriage, was the ideal character (Jiang, 2013). Mannia is as nice as Mulan, and Mr. Yao is as natural as Mulan, but both of them are not as perfect as Mulan, who honors both of Confucianism and Taoism.

The Confucian were quite positive that Mulan abided by the social order and valued the social morality above all and Taoism absolutely agreed with Mulan’s spontaneous manners toward life. Lin Yutang once said, “We are all born half Taoists and half Confucianists” (Lin, 2004, p.108). “If I was a woman, I would be Mulan” (Shi, 1997). Shaped into an ideal woman by Lin Yutang, Mulan had a limited understanding of the new advanced thoughts because of the patriarchal society she grew up in, but the coexistence of Confucianism and Taoism is the ideal philosophic idea Lin Yutang appreciates.

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References
The Absurd Narrative in Beckett’s Waiting for Godot

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[Abstract] Samuel Beckett’s Waiting for Godot vividly illustrates the concept of absurdity in Albert Camus’ philosophy in The Myth of Sisyphus, which claims that fantasticality apprises happiness and Sisyphus is happy. From the perspective of absurdity, this paper mainly analyzes the absurd narrative of characters, plots, language and structure in this play. Finally, it will conclude that seemingly absurd narrative implies the Sisyphus-like resistance and happiness.

[Keywords] absurd; narrative; Sisyphus; Waiting for Godot

Introduction
Samuel Beckett is one of the most important and influential writers of the twentieth century. With the appearance of Waiting for Godot, the literary world was shocked by the appearance of a drama so different and yet so intriguing that it virtually created the term “Theater of the Absurd,” and the entire group of dramas which developed out of this type of theater is always associated with the name of Samuel Beckett. Deeply influenced by the thoughts of Camus, Beckett vividly illustrates the concept of absurdity in Waiting for Godot. This play highly unifies the contents and the art of narrative techniques and has renounced arguing about the absurdity of the human condition. This paper first introduces the embodiment of Camus’ Absurdity of Philosophy in Waiting for Godot. Second, it analyzes the narrative of characters, plots, language, and structure to reveal its absurd consciousness. Finally, it concludes the causes of absurdity in this play to reveal that the characters’ waiting is the Sisyphus-like struggle and happiness.

Camus’ Absurdity of Philosophy in Waiting for Godot
What’s absurdity? As the spokesman for the philosophy of the absurd, Albert Camus deals with “the absurd” as the impossibility of the human search for logic and order amidst a chaotic and uncertain world (Ren, 2008). People who escape from the deadening routine of everyday life will lead only to a sense of displacement. In Camus’ opinion, absurdity is the embodiment of modern people’s living condition. In the essay The Myth of Sisyphus, Camus chooses to return to an ancient myth for his definition of the modern hero of the absurd. He argues that most people in the world are like Sisyphus, condemned perpetually to push a boulder up a mountain, whence it will inevitably roll back down again. Happiness and absurdity are two sons living on the same earth. They are inseparable. So one must imagine Sisyphus happy and emulate his resilience in the endless and ever-defeating effort to surmount this fate (Camus, 2005, p. 90). If Camus argues that in our disillusioned age the world has ceased to make sense, he has done so in the elegantly rationalistic and discursive style of an eighteenth-century moralist, in his well-constructed and polished plays.

Samuel Beckett’s absurdist play Waiting for Godot is a two act play in which two men, Vladimir and Estragon, wait endlessly and in vain for the arrival of someone named Godot. With a more careful look, it’s not difficult to recognize that Camus’ philosophy of the absurd runs throughout the whole play. If Camus defined the possibilities for the absurd hero in terms of myth, Samuel Beckett has actually created
a modern myth. Therefore, we can easily find that the modern myth of Sisyphus reappeared in this play because the seemingly absurd waiting is resistance and happiness like Sisyphus (Ren, 2013).

The Absurd Narrative in Waiting for Godot

Waiting for Godot is a modern tragedy about people who constantly hew out of the mountain of despair a stone of hope. Thus, it reflects the spiritual dilemma of modern people who long for hope with fears of the social absurdity. But hope isn’t arriving, and they are still dying in waiting. The identity of the enigmatic figure Godot in the play has been the subject of much debate, but no one really knows it. Even Becket himself once said: “I don’t know who God is. I don’t even know (above all don’t know) if he exists.” The two seedy men who joke, complain, and consider suicide while waiting for a blurry figure they called Godot and seem to be living in a state of great anguish.

Characters

A country road or an actual lonely road is the main setting, and there is a single tree. Many characters appear as automatons stuck in routines, speaking only in cliché. Two begrudging interdependent characters, Vladimir and Estragon, are waiting for the arrival of someone named Godot on a lonely country road by a tree. However, they don’t know who Godot is or where he comes from. They just keep on waiting for him, diverting themselves with conversational sallies that parody ideas of philosophy, poetry, and theater. In the second act, the two tramps just repeat their endless waiting in the same manner.

Two other elderly men arrive on the scene. Pozzo appears on stage after the appearance of Lucky and they are tied together by a long rope. It is clear that Pozzo is the master, and Lucky is the slave. Lucky dances and thinks out loud for the entertainment of the others, until he is forcibly silenced. Thus, with the rope being the umbilical cord which ties the two together, their destinies are fixed together in the same way. It’s no wonder that Vladimir and Estragon first mistook the master Pozzo for Godot or God. Basically, Pozzo commands and Lucky obeys, and Pozzo constantly calls Lucky by animal terms or names.

After Lucky and Pozzo depart, a boy with a message from Mr. Godot appears out of nowhere. But he is too frightened to come close to the tramps. Estragon and Vladimir question the boy about his fears and ask him if he has been here before. Suddenly, the boy delivers his message: “Mr. Godot told me to tell you he won’t come this evening, but surely tomorrow.” Of course it is the boy who seems to be bringing the first external verification of the existence of Godot. However, when they ask the boy about Mr. Godot, they find that the boy tends the goats for him. Mr. Godot does not beat the boy but beats his brother who also tends the sheep. Both of the brothers sleep in the hayloft of the barn. Then the boy leaves. The two tramps continue to respond in the act of waiting to the frustration of expectation and the denial of certainty.

There is another mysterious figure in this play for whom Vladimir and Estragon spend the entire play waiting – Godot. Vladimir claims that they have met him before and had asked at that time for ‘nothing very definite’. This can express their desires “as a kind of prayer…a vague supplication” (Beckett, 2011, p. 37). It is safe to say, Godot exists entirely as a creature perceived in all earnestness by Vladimir and Estragon, and they clearly associate him with concrete images of authority and with less concrete, but nonetheless provocative images, suggesting divinity – as someone who can certainly do “something” for them. But it becomes increasingly cloudy and difficult to interpret the images of authority and divinity, of promises and expectations while the two tramps were talking about the figure they are waiting to meet.
What can be made clear in the action is that Godot can hardly be considered a figure in a realistic narrative, or even in a coherent allegory, both of which have been subverted or exploded at every point. Rather, for us at least, if not for the two men on the road, Godot has become a concept – an idea of promise and expectation – of that for which people aware of the absence of coherent meaning in their lives wait in the hope that it will restore significance to their existence.

Plots

The whole play consists of two acts in which five characters repeatedly appear on the stage (first two tramps, then a tyrant and his slave, and finally a boy). In both acts, the scenes are almost the same – the country road, the dry tree, and the dark evening. Two men are waiting for someone named Godot, making some random discussions involving religion, and philosophy, etc. The entire content plot takes the place of the characters’ boring little affectations, incoherent nagging, vague and fragmented small stories and sideshows. The activities of the two tramps are repeated again and again. One continues his foolish act of taking off his boot, looking into it, stretching out his hand to touch and then wearing it, while the other shakes the hat, knocks on the top, blows into the hat and then puts it on. All of this seems full of ridiculous boredom. After getting the message that Godot won’t come tonight, however, both tramps merely keep on their endless waiting. Although the two men stay together for a whole day, and the next day, they even can’t remember each other. Surprisingly, the tree grows leaves overnight. In addition, the master Pozzo becomes blind and his slave Lucky mute only at night. Finally, we find that the heavy box, which Lucky set around his neck for his Pozzo everyday, unexpectedly contains sand. Furthermore, the unknown Godot asks a boy to send a message that he won’t come tomorrow, but he never comes. The two disappointed men occasionally want to commit suicide by hanging, but they fail. They always say they are going to leave, but never move into action. Everywhere the messy absurd content and plot show us the absurdity of people’s living condition.

At the opening of the play, two tramps have been waiting for Godot for several days. At the ending, they are still waiting. It seems that they have nothing to do but wait for Godot to help them get rid of the pain and hopelessness of life. However, not even knowing who Godot is, they hope for his coming which may be of some help to improve their living conditions throughout the play. When Godot fails to appear, the psychology of the two men changes in circles, and their hopeful waiting gradually get suspicious and disappointed. In fact, such a circular structure gives us the strongest hint that if two tramps continue to wait for Godot, Godot will never come as before. In addition, the appearance of Pozzo and his servant Lucky temporarily removed the baldness of waiting, which made no sense for endless waiting. Differences in the second act are that Pozzo went blind and Lucky dumb. Later a boy arrives and claims that it was his first time to take Godot’s message with the same words. “He won’t come this evening. But he’ll come tomorrow.” Moreover, each time the boy forgets having met them before he leaves running. All these hints give the audience an oppressive and preposterous feeling that human existence is empty and absurd. As we are concerned, any progress or change of characters, surroundings and the whole story can not be seen in the disorderly play, which is very repetitive. Even the ending is a repetition of the beginning, as Camus states in The Myth of Sisyphus, “The workman of today works everyday in his life at the same tasks, and his fate is no less absurd” (Camus, 2005, p. 90).
**Language**

Beckett uses language to show how man is isolated in the world and unable to communicate because language is a barrier to communication. In general, the boring, fragmented talks between the two tramps in the play are extremely illogical and absurd. In this play, dialogue and monologue are snafus and nonsense, and are full of absurdity which makes it seem funny and confusing. Words appear to have lost their denotative function, thus creating misunderstanding among the characters. The moments when characters resort to nonsense language or clichés make the absurd play distinctive. As a result, the tedium and repetition of the talks in Waiting for Godot vividly illustrate Sisyphean absurdity, in correspondence with the language efficacy which Beckett intends to present to the audience.

In Waiting for Godot, we can easily find an extremely indifferent estrangement between people. When they don’t know how to start a conversation, they repeat their talks. At the time nothing more can be said, they remain silent. It is obvious that although both talk about the topics they are interested in, no matter what else others say, they don’t care or respond at all. Their seemingly heated debate is ongoing, but of no real sense because they are so incoherent and irrelevant. When language loses its true meanings and no longer used as a communicative tool among people, it is merely an instrument to waste time and endure a word game of fate. For example, in this play, when Vladimir and Estragon are talking about a story about two thieves, Vladimir says: “It’ll pass time.” But when Estragon does not want to constantly listen and is going to leave, Vladimir continues: “Come on, Gogo, return the ball, can’t you, once in a way?” (Beckett, 2011, p. 23) Clearly, the ball is the dull dialogue between them. In the play, most of the dialogues are devoid of logical reasoning, coherence and meaning. The critic Messenger carried out a research on the language of Waiting for Godot and concluded ten kinds of language fission phenomenon, such as monologue, silentness, repetition, misunderstanding, conflict, stereotypes, and nonsense, etc. Thus, this implies that the language is no longer the way that the people express thoughts and communicate mutually, but is merely reflective of crisis of language.

In addition, both acts end with the same words, voiced differently:

**ACT I:** ESTRAGON: Well, shall we go?
VLADIMIR: Yes, let’s go.

**ACT II:** VLADIMIR: Well? Shall we go?
ESTRAGON: Yes, let’s go.

And the stage directions following these lines are exactly the same in each case: “They do not move” (Beckett, 2011, p. 78).

These words seem to be nonsense, but actually have deep meanings and contain the philosophy of life: even to the point of despair; no one wants to die first. Man seems an idiot, but, as a matter of fact, he is very sober. As some critics have said, the language of this play show exactly the characters’ inner consciousness and vividly shows the specific roles’ mental states and thoughts. Therefore, the vivid and exaggerated use of the characters’ weird language constitute a unique emotional information of stage, and transmitted the highlighted absurd features of the absurdist play.

**Structure**

No definite conclusion or resolution can ever be offered in Waiting for Godot because the play is essentially circular and repetitive in nature. It’s not difficult to see that the structure of each act is exactly alike. Definitely the two men’s communication is doomed to fail and suicide ends in failure. In spite of
scattershot dialogues and absurd episodes, it seems that nothing has happened on the surface throughout the play. The setting is the same, and the time is the same in both acts. Each act begins early in the morning, just as the tramps are awakening, and both acts close with the moon having risen. The action takes place in exactly the same landscape – a lonely, isolated road with one single tree. (In the second act, there are some leaves on the tree, but from the viewpoint of the audience, the setting is exactly the same.) We are never told where this road is located; all we know is that the action of the play unfolds on this lonely road. Thus, from Act I to Act II, there is no difference in either the setting or in the time and, thus, instead of a progression of time within an identifiable setting, we have a repetition in the second act of the same things that we saw and heard in the first act. More important than the repetition of setting and time, however, is the repetition of the actions.

There are many lesser actions which are repeated in both acts. At the beginning of each act, for example, several identical concerns should be noted. Among these is the emphasis on Estragon’s boots. Also, Vladimir, when first noticing Estragon, uses virtually the same words: “So there you are again” in Act I and “There you are again” in Act II. At the beginning of both acts, the first discussion concerns a beating that Estragon received just prior to their meeting. At the beginning of both acts, Vladimir and Estragon emphasize repeatedly that they are there to wait for Godot. In the endings of both acts, Vladimir and Estragon discuss the possibility of hanging themselves, and in both endings they decide to bring some good strong rope with them the next day so that they can indeed hang themselves. With the arrival of Pozzo and Lucky in each act, we notice that even though their physical appearance has theoretically changed, outwardly they seem the same; they are still tied together on an endless journey to an unknown place to rendezvous with a nameless person. Likewise, the boy messenger, while theoretically different, brings the exact same message: Mr. Godot will not come today, but he will surely come tomorrow. Vladimir’s difficulties with urination and his suffering are discussed in each act as a contrast to the suffering of Estragon because of his boots. In addition, the subject of eating, involving carrots, radishes, and turnips, becomes a central image in each act, and the tramps’ involvement with hats, their multiple insults, and their reconciling embraces—these and many more lesser matters are found repeatedly in both acts. All of these make the two acts clearly repetitive, circular in structure, and these repetitions are so obvious in the play that Beckett breaks away from the traditional play and asserts the uniqueness of his own circular structure.

**Causes of Absurdity in Waiting for Godot**

Why do people always feel absurd? In Camus’ opinion, the “absurd” is the gulf between man’s desire for a world of happiness, which he can understand rationally and the actual world, which is chaotic and irrational and inflicts suffering and a meaningless death on humanity. That is, there is a fundamental conflict between what we want from the universe (whether it’s meaning, order, or reason) and what we find in the universe (formless chaos). We will never find in life the meaning that we want to find. Either we will discover that meaning through a leap of faith, by placing our hopes in a God beyond this world, or we will conclude that life is meaningless. It’s not hard to find in *Waiting for Godot* that the endless waiting of the two tramps originates from the absurd world.

An evening, a desolate country road, a withered tree, two ragged tramps, and the tyrannical Pozzo with his abject slave Lucky, etc., *Waiting for Godot* presents the audience a dreary living condition which implies people’s indifference, strangeness and constriction to the world. The terrible background is fully surrounded by desperate circumstances in the first act. Then in the second act, the alienation between all
the characters and the external environment gets even worse. The tramps appear more ragged, Pozzo has gone blind and Lucky dumb, and several leaves appear suddenly, from which we can find the deterioration of living conditions.

In this play, Beckett expresses the painful and absurd living conditions of people. All the characters have become lonely, humble, insignificant, do-nothing and most of the people are in confusion. Estragon and Vladimir are waiting for Godot but they do not know who Godot is, nor do they know when he came and even if Godot comes, and they do not know him. Like the clowns, they are showing funny actions to mirror their inferiority, loneliness and helplessness. In addition, their hollow and ridiculous language is reflective of the decline of human intelligence, monotonousness survival and communicative difficulty. What’s more, their humorous, funny words and actions are just to kill time and endure torment of destiny. However, time is uncertain and disordered because the play does not tell the specific place and date of the story. So the concept of Yesterday and Today is meaninglessness, and the connection between the two days is arbitrary and vague. Estragon is unable to distinguish sunrise or sunset, and also he cannot clearly remember that the last time he met Vladimir was yesterday, despite that they have just passed waiting of one day. There is no need to discriminate time. In this play, the characters give a direct comment on the time to suggest time. This practice is an important theme which the writer discusses. The two tramps come from the vague past and go forward into the uncertain future. For them, time is just a piece of blank paper to be filled. They need to do nothing but waste time and suffer torment all of time. Hence, they frequently talk about the time, and the audience is frequently reminded of time as well. All the people on and off the play are reminded of survival consciousness. When human’s survival has become meaningless as a tedious burden, the time turns to be hollow and people frequently feel a sense boredom. In traditional dramas, most scenes provide people with the exact living conditions and the social environment that is close to real life. Nevertheless, in Waiting for Godot, the scene does not simply introduce the living conditions and social environment of the characters. Instead it departs from this environment and the link between people, which makes the plays seems illogical. Apparently, what the play shows us is very simple – a country road and a bare tree. The two tramps ultimately do not know whether they will meet with Godot. This alienating relationship between human and environment makes people lose themselves and prompts them to keep a distant and meaningless feeling toward their society and other people. Throughout the play, Beckett exerts an expression of thought on life that life is meaningless, while existence becomes absurd. Despite that two tramps have been waiting for Godot for a long time, it is an undeniable fact that they had thought of suicide. However, they finally make the decision of continuing to wait because they’re unwillingly to die before meeting Godot. It is this absurdly persistent waiting itself that enables us to see their hope and resistance to life. Therefore, waiting is precisely the reason which causes them to survive, as well as pursue their true selves and struggle with the absurd world.

In Waiting for Godot, the mysterious Godot has not appeared from the beginning to the end; he has been in a state of “outsider”. On the one hand, the two tramps keep their endless waiting; on the other hand, the world maintains the same silence. Obviously, the existence of absurdity is inevitable and cannot be solved. As Camus says in The Myth of Sisyphus, “Sisyphus is the absurd hero. He is, as much through his passions as through his torture” (Camus, 2005, p. 91). His scorn of the gods, his hatred of death, and his passion for life won him that unspeakable penalty in which his whole being is exerted toward accomplishing nothing. This is the price that must be paid for the passions of this earth. In the process of waiting for Godot, the tramps once felt despair enough to commit suicide. But they are not content to die like this and they still hope that the arrival of Godot may help them figure out reality and get out the
difficulty. As we can see, they don’t intend to end their meaningless life, but instead find a reason to survive. Both men have a clear rational consciousness and great courage of facing the separation between actors and the stage, as well as admitting the absurd, acknowledging the meaningless existence, which keeps with what Camus endeavors to do. Meanwhile, they take a rational attitude towards death and then put all their passion into waiting for Godot. The more meaningless life is, the more it is worth living. Above all, the value of the rebel against the absurd life is endowed with life and restores its great existence. In The Myth of Sisyphus, Camus concludes that one must imagine Sisyphus happy. If Sisyphus’ rolling the stone is happy, then the two tramps’ waiting for Godot are happy as well. Although they have forgotten what they are waiting for, the feeling is pretty good.

Implications and Conclusion
In such an absurd world shown in this play, the two tramps have been waiting all the time. They are firmly waiting for Godot, although they don’t even know who Godot is. Endless waiting makes their absurd life continue, which corresponds with Beckett’s explanation towards the human condition. In his opinion, conscious reality is very complex and without an “objective” or universally known value, the individual must create value by affirming it and living it, not by simply talking about it or philosophizing it in the mind. So in the play, Beckett endeavors to touch on all of these issues. When the tramps wait repeatedly every day, they equally show us the positive side of life. In other words, both men must be aware of the absurd world first, but still waiting persistently to struggle against the absurd. As like Sisyphus in the never-ending punishment for happiness, here waiting is also the rebellion and struggle for hope. The characters’ persevering waiting is just as Sisyphus willingly accepts the cruel reality and endless fate for the love of the world, the sun, the stone and the sea, in spite of paying a heavy cost.

Life is full of suffering, but people can not find relief from God-like salvation. It seems that people’s helpless existential condition is just like hell. Under the control of the supreme powerless, people can do nothing but continue to endure survival suffering. Since life is meaningless, the tramps in the play have no choice but to pass the time through self-ridicule, enduring the torment of destiny, and trying to escape from despair and survival terror. “Living in empty!” They are in an embarrassing position that they cannot live nor die. Clearly knowing that Godot won’t come, they still wait, waiting to die and wither away. It is clear that the life of Sisyphus is absurd because there is no more dreadful punishment than futile and hopeless labor. Besides, knowing that Godot won’t come, the two tramps’ waiting still continues like the blind man eager to see who knows that the night has no end, yet he is still on the go. Camus’ Sisyphus is singing happily, and the struggle toward the heights is enough to fill his heart. As Sisyphus does, Beckett’s two tramps are pursuing their happy life persistently waiting for Godot. They cannot change the reality but instead have to face it. As Camus says, you will never be happy if you continue to search for what happiness consists of. You will never live if you are looking for the meaning of life.

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References

On Symbolic Characteristics in Toni Morrison’s *Beloved*

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**Abstract** Toni Morrison is one of the greatest contemporary American writers, who won the Nobel Prize for literature in 1993. She was the first African-American writer and the second American woman writer to enjoy this honor. In her novels, she focuses on the experience of black Americans, and she uses symbols to reveal the reality. In this paper, such images as symbolic meanings of names and symbolic meanings of places are analyzed in order to make the readers fully understand her great works.

**Keywords** Toni Morrison; *Beloved*; symbolic meanings of names; symbolic meanings of places

**Introduction**

Toni Morrison was born in Ohio on February 18, 1931, and received a B.A. from Howard University and an M.A. from Cornell University. She is one of the greatest contemporary American writers. She won the Nobel Prize for literature in 1993 and was the first African-American writer and the second American woman writer to enjoy this honor. In her novels, she focuses on the experience of black Americans, particularly emphasizing the black women’s experience in an unjust society and the search for cultural identity. She uses fantastic and mythical elements along with realistic depiction of racial, gender and class conflicts. Her eternal themes in her novels are the following: love, guilt, history, individual, gender, race and religion with the purpose to empower black people to act for themselves and to recognize their own world, their own history and their own reality in a style mixed with many kinds of factors: naturalism, realism, fantasy, reality and magic realism. In 1970, Morison’s first novel *The Bluest Eye* was published which was an immediate success. It is a novel about a black girl who, obsessed with while standards of beauty, longs to have blue eyes. Morrison’s second novel *Sula* (1974) is about a women’s friendship, a rare topic in literature before 1973. *Song of Solomon* (1977) tells of an African American man searching for his roots. Her other works included *Tar Boy* (1981), *Beloved* (1987), *Jazz* (1992) and *Love* (2003). Of her novels, her fifth novel, *Beloved*, is her representative work, which won a Pulitzer Prize when it was first published in September of 1987. It created a sensation in the American literary world and has been regarded as a milestone in American literary history.

*Beloved* is a powerful novel that carries a poetic nuance only Morrison can create, *Beloved* will place you in moral dilemmas while keeping you engulphed by the mystery surrounding the character Beloved. *Beloved*, was set during the reconstruction era in 1873. Morrison paints a dark and powerful portrait of the dehumanizing effects of slavery. *Beloved* is a novel about the memory and history. For the former slaves in the novel, the past is a burden that they desperately and fully try to forget. Yet for Sethe, the protagonist of the novel, memories of the past are inescapable. They continue to haunt her, literally, in the spirit of her deceased daughter. Inspired by an actual historical incident, *Beloved* tells the story of a woman, Sethe, haunted by her daughter that she murdered rather than have her returned to slavery. Eighteen years earlier, Sethe had murdered her daughter in order to save her from a life of slavery. Morrison borrowed the event from the real story of Margaret Garner, who, like Sethe, escaped from slavery in Kentucky and attempted to murder all of her children and succeeded in killing her baby girl.
when the slave catchers caught up with her in Ohio. Morrison paints a dark and powerful portrait of the dehumanizing effect of slavery. *Beloved* straddles the line between fiction and history. Through the use of her unique and remarkable style, Morrison presents the reader with glimpses of the past which creeps through both the cracks in Sethe's memory and the plot of the novel, revealing a desperate act of love more haunting than any baby ghost. Due to the horror of slavery Sethe’s murder of Beloved is transformed into what Morrison controversially deems ‘the ultimate gesture of a loving mother’, whose action proclaims, ‘to kill my children is preferable to having them die’. From a single family’s experiences, Morrison shows how the psychological and historical legacy of slavery influences a family.

Part of Morrison’s project in *Beloved* is to recuperate a history that had been lost to the ravages of forced silences and willed forgetfulness. Morrison writes Sethe’s story with the voices of the people who historically had been deprived the power of speaking. *Beloved* also contains a didactic element. From the main character Sethe’s experience, the reader can learn that before a stable future can be created, they must confront the slavery history so as to address its legacy, which manifests itself in ongoing racial discrimination and discord. *Beloved* is written in bits and images, smashed like a mirror on the floor and left for the reader to put together. The novel is hypnotic, beautiful, and elusive, and the stories circle and swim dreamily to the surface, and then are suddenly clear and horrifying. Because of the extraordinary experimental style, as well as the intensity of the principal matter, what we learn in this novel touches at a level deeper than understanding. Part ghost story, part realistic narration, the novel examines the mental and physical trauma caused by slavery, as well as the lingering damage inflicted on its survivors.

*Beloved* is a novel of free fantasy and true historical stories. It deeply discusses the impact of slavery on African-Americans. Since its first publication, the story has its unique and exquisite artistic and literary characteristics. It drew much attention of domestic critics. In the novel, Morrison uses a variety of artistic techniques, but one of the most striking is the use of symbolism. Literary symbolism is the most commonly used as one kind of artistic means and it is expressed by means of specific abstract things. Symbolism is not only used to express this sense of eternal ideological pursuit of a limited phenomenon from fiction, but also to show the profound ideological content and themes. It played an important role towards the infinite wealth of the world. In *Beloved* there are various symbolic images. In the novel, the names and scenes have symbolic significance. This article is based on the whole novel to conduct a comprehensive analysis and discussion, so as to see Morrison’s excellent artistic skills and profound themes.

### The Symbolic Meaning of Names

Sethe, the protagonist of *Beloved*, is a proud and independent woman who is extremely devoted to her children. Though she barely knew her mother, Sethe’s motherly instincts are her most striking characteristic. Unwilling to relinquish her children to the physical, emotional, sexual and spiritual trauma she endured as a slave at Sweet Home, she attempts to murder them in an act of motherly love and protection. She remains haunted by this and other scarring events in the past, which she tries, in vain, to repress.

A tree is also a frequent image in the novel. In fact, it is a scar on Sethe’s back which represents the painful memory she suffered. In *Beloved*, Morrison uses the tree on Sethe’s back as a successful image to describe the evils of slavery. It is not a coincidence, but a successful connection (Hu, 2008). Robert Frost, a famous American poet, wrote a volume of poems called “A Witness Tree”. In fact, the tree image is the best witness to the history in writers’ eyes. Here Morrison endows the tree as “a witness tree” to the evils
of slavery. Meantime, the Tree here also represents the physical, emotional and spiritual devastation Sethe had suffered during her time at the plantation in Kentucky. Schoolteacher is the second owner of the plantation. His violent control made the slaves plan to escape. One time his nephews seized Sethe in the bar and violate her, and then steal her milk. The fact that Sethe told Mrs. Garner annoyed the Schoolteacher. As a result, Sethe was whipped severely. When Sethe couldn’t endure the dehumanizing treatment on the plantation, she decides to make plans to escape. But on her way to escape, Amy Denver, a white girl who helped Sethe give birth to Denver, gives a detailed description of the scars on Sethe’s back, “It is a tree, Lu. A chokecherry tree. See, here’s the trunk – it is red and split wide open, full of sap, and this here’s the parting for the branches. You got a mighty lot of branches. Leaves, too, look like, and dems if these ain’t blossoms. Tiny little cherry blossoms, just as white. Your back got a whole tree on it, In bloom” (p. 79). This is the first time that the trauma on Sethe’s back is found. Before that, the hurt that the black slaves suffered was never discovered due to the oppression of violent white owners. The tree, which is ever-present but can never be seen, is the symbol of Sethe’s history. It is also a symbol of the cross and the burden that Sethe carries. It is her past and the prejudice of white man against her. Like an epigraph, the tree on Sethe’s back records and witnesses her dehumanizing life at Sweet Home. It is a mark made by people who believe her to be an animal. It shows cruelty and the inhumanity of slavery which deepens the theme of the novel. Morrison successfully digs out Sethe’s painful past with the tree image. The tree image is more powerful than language in creating such a shocking picture before the readers’ eyes. The tree on Sethe’s back represents the darkest period of American history. Morrison redefines the meaning of the scars on Sethe’s back from different perspectives. The tree-like scar is representative of all the hurt that Sethe has suffered at Sweet Home Where Sethe, like her mother-in-law, Baby Suggs, and all other slave women, can never be a wife and mother. The scars on her back serve as a testament to the disfiguring and dehumanizing years as a slave, haunting and scarring her for life (Li, 2003).

Paul D’s tin tobacco box is another important symbol in this novel. Paul D is another important slave at Sweet Home. The physical and emotional brutality he suffered at Sweet Home and as part of a chain gang caused him to bury his feelings in the “rusted tobacco tin” of his heart. After his traumatizing experiences at Sweet Home and, especially, at the prison camp in Alford, Georgia, he locks all his feelings and memories in this tobacco tin. By the time Paul D arrives at 124, this tobacco tin has “rusted” over completely. Paul D hopes to prevent himself from further physical and psychological hurt. He tried to forget the painful memories of the past. Although Paul D is convinced that nothing can pry the lid of his box open, his encounter with Beloved – perhaps a symbol of an encounter with his past – causes his heart once again to glow red.

The Symbolic Meaning of Places
In this novel, the reader can frequently read the word Sweet Home, a plantation in Kentucky which sounds like a paradise, and 124, a house in Cincinnati, Ohio, where Sethe, Baby Suggs and Denver live after they get freedom. Morrison shows an ironic attitude towards slavery by giving a sweet name to the plantation. In fact, it is not sweet. Both physical and psychological harm is done to the slaves by the slave owner who treats the slaves as his personal property. Sethe, a former slave describes it like this, “it rolled itself in shameless beauty. It never looked as terrible as it was and it made her wonder if hell was a pretty place too. Fire and brimstone all night, but hidden in lacy groves. Boys hanging from the most beautiful sycamores in the world. It shamed her remembering "the wonderful soughing trees rather than the boys”
Morrison uses many adjectives to describe it. Her realistic description makes us associate it with the Garden of Eden where Adam and Eve lived in a wonderful dream. At first, the slaves do not know about the true face of the slavery and they never realize they were living in slavery. Under the rule of Mr. Garner, the slaves are taught to read and write, even to handle guns. He allows one of his slaves Halle, Sethe’s husband, to purchase the freedom of his mother Baby Suggs with five years’ Sunday work. Mrs. Garner also gives Sethe freedom to choose her husband. The master allows his slaves to “correct them, even defy him. To invent ways of doing things; to see what was needed and attack it without permission. To buy a mother, choose a mother, choose a horse or a wife” (p. 125). They are complacent about being called as “men”. They never realize that “definition belonged to the definers – not the defined” (p. 190). However, this allowed manhood doesn’t change the basic relationships between the slave owner and the slaves. But when Mr. Garner dies and his brother, Schoolteacher, comes to the Sweet Home to take charge of the slaves, things change and they change in such a way as to force the slaves into the terrible recognition of the reasons for – and the implications of – their enslavement. Schoolteacher, the new slave owner, doesn’t call the slaves “men” as Mr. Garner did, but teaches them that “they were only Sweet Home men at Sweet Home. One step off that ground and they were trespassers among the human race. Watchdogs without teeth; steer bulls without horns; gelded workhorses whose neigh and whinny could not be translated into a language responsible humans spoke” (p. 125). Schoolteacher’s work involves measuring his slaves’ heads in order to demarcate their bestial qualities and his teaching consists largely of lessons in white supremacy – instruction in the “knowledge” that blacks are animals and that the white race has both a right and an obligation to treat slaves as such. The Schoolteacher teaches his nephews that they should “put her (Sethe’s) human characteristics on the left; her animal ones on the right. And don’t forget to line them up” (p. 193). Schoolteacher is, in short, teaching his pupils that the slaves are not fully human, that they are part animal and therefore, categorically inferior to whites and naturally subject to their domination. Schoolteacher’s epistemic violation of his slaves – his writings and lectures about their animal nature – find physical expression in his nephews’ assault on Sethe, during which they hold her down and suck her milk as if she were a cow or a goat and then beat her severely when she reports their actions to the ailing plantation mistress, Mrs. Garner. Sethe then frees herself and her unborn child from captivity by running away from Sweet Home – horrified less by the beating than by the violation, and less by the violation itself than by what that violation represents – a definition of herself and her children that she is unwilling to accept on the one hand and powerless to disprove on the other. The slaves know what might be on the slave owner’s mind so they come to awaken. They refuse to live a life full of lies and decide to make plans to escape.

Morrison uses Sweet Home to imply the cheating and wickedness of slavery. The moment when European colonists arrive in North America, they begin to implement brutal slavery. The evil slave trade made the colonies’ economy prosperous. By 1775, the amount of Negro slaves reached 500,000 in North America. Before and after the American Civil War, the negro slave is not a moral issue, but an economic and power issue. The different attitude to slavery is only that it was an institutional discrimination in the south, but a social discrimination in the north. After the Civil War, although slavery was abolished in law, slaves just got nominal freedom; they were still shackled by slavery shadows. As a matter of fact, Sweet Home is only a nice name, where the slaves enjoy no freedom.

The Schoolteacher, as the typical white slave owner, represents the hypocritical and evil side of the white culture. They declare that the white culture is the definer and in the mainstream while the black
culture is the defined and in the subordinate position. Morrison hinted that the black compatriots in the United States must guard against cultural hegemon and reposition the black culture (Wang, 2006).

124 is not a hypothetical number created by Morrison. It has many symbolically meanings. First, it refers to the span of years from 1863 when the Declaration of Liberation of Black Slaves was promulgated and slavery was abolished to the year 1987 when Morrison’s fifth novel Beloved was published. It is 124 years. It is 124 years of legal freedom that the blacks receive. The author seems to alert the blacks to rethink the meaning of freedom, because the blacks’ language and culture are being assimilated. 124 is the symbol of blacks’ spiritual home that needs to be repaired. Secondly, 124 is not a continuous number. Morrison uses this number to imply that Sethe’s third daughter has died. Thirdly, it deserves attention that each of the three parts of the novel begins with a reference to the mood of the house: “124 was spiteful.” “124 was loud.” “124 was quiet.” Obviously, each mood respectively represents the different spiritual state of the ex-slaves. This implies that black slaves have experienced a very difficult process to get freedom. Lastly, 124 is the symbol of freedom. The 124 house is a benevolent bestowal of a white landowner: Edward Bodwin. After Sethe’s families moved here, Baby Suggs remodeled it from a White House to a Black House. Denver mentions this remodeling in her narration to Beloved: “The room we sleep in upstairs used to be where the help slept when white people lived there. They had a kitchen outside, too. But Grandma Baby turned it into a woodshed and tool room when she moved in. And she boarded up the back door that led to it, because she said she didn’t want to make that journey no more. She built around it to make a storeroom, so if you want to get in 124 you have to come by her” (p. 207). Apparently, Baby Suggs associates servanthood with a back door and a corner bedroom. So she remodeled the house to avoid it. Now the 124 house becomes the symbol of freedom. Baby Suggs’ remodeling the White’s house is actually an attempt of the Blacks to win a domain in the white society to protect their uneasily gained freedom. Sweet Home symbolizes the free paradise of the White, while the 124 house symbolizes the free paradise of the Blacks. Sethe escaped from Sweet Home to 124 at the risk of losing her life. This is her refuge. But their freedom is not guaranteed. It is in the 124 house that Sethe killed her third baby because “no one, nobody on this earth, would list her daughter’s characteristics on the animal side of the paper” (p. 251) when the white slave owner came to recapture them for slaves. This implies that the blacks’ freedom is incomplete in the white dominated culture.

**Conclusion**

From the above discussion, the reader can see that Morrison uses grotesque images to reveal the reality reflected in the novel. In this novel, she creates a series of symbols to convey profound meanings and deepen the themes of this novel. Morrison created the novel in an unique way of art to compare African American history and the present situation of the survival of American blacks. Through her analysis, the reader can understand that although African Americans have acquired legal freedom, they still face racial discrimination and oppression due to factors such as society, history and culture. If black people want to get real freedom, they need to reconsider the meaning of freedom.

In this article, through the analysis of the symbolic image, we find that Morrison borrowed the aid of the symbolic image of the rich connotation of elaborate story background to depict the character psychology, to influence and promote the change and development of the plot. These symbolic images deepen the themes and the sublimation of readers’ thoughts play a significant role, and offers a vast space for imagination. At the same time, we can also form a new angle to study Morrison’s literary works, experience the artistic charm of the novel and appreciate the works of profound connotation.
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References
Readdressing Modernism: Wordsworth’s Spiritual Self in the Industrial Age

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[Abstract] Modernism leads to the split between man and nature, body and soul. William Wordsworth, who lived in the prime period of the English Industrial Age, strongly opposed modernism, which was fully expressed in his writings. To him, human beings failed to feel their spiritual selves in the highly developed modern society, which led to the divergence of body and soul, man and nature. His anxiety over the modern people’s destroying of nature never stopped. Finding the spiritual self in a wise passiveness will help man achieve the serenity of body and soul and the unity of man and nature.

[Keywords] spiritual self; passiveness; anxiety; readdressing modernism; Wordsworth

Introduction
The dominant modern western view, rooted in Greek rationalism and Augustinian Christianity, has a dualistic perception of the human mind which is torn between its rational and spiritual capabilities on the one hand, and the “corrupting” influences of its senses and emotions, on the other. This dualism leads to a concept: the split between man and nature. Christianity strengthened the dualism, which laid out that there are two sides of human nature: good and evil. Therefore, the typical mechanical mode of binary opposition was soundly established – everything has two sides: bad and good, black and white, big and small, friend and fiend, fair and foe. Developed from this concept, usually people think there are two selves existing in one body. One is the flesh self, and the other is the spiritual self. The flesh self can be met by material development, while the spiritual self can not. On the contrary, it may become poorer and poorer with the development of the flesh self if society puts all its attention onto the material aspect, or science and technology. As Jean Jacques Rousseau (1712-1778) once admitted, when science and technology appeared, the morality of the people declined (Ma, 1987). The spiritual self, narrowly speaking, means the ability of self acknowledgement, or knowing “thyself”, knowing what you are and what you want and also what you are seeking. Fully understanding the situation of the spiritual self is is not an easy thing in modern society. The harmony in one body can be achieved by balancing the spiritual self and the flesh self. If one part is especially focused on and the other neglected, then the balance will be broken. When this happens in an individual, he or she must be in an unhealthy situation of both body and soul, while in society, bigger problems will appear, such as moral declination, despairing sentiment, disorder, queer values, twisted human nature and so on, all of which endangers the existence of life and society. The future of human beings is put on the verge of disaster. William Wordsworth (1770-1850) seemed to be aware of these phenomena and felt anxious first about human beings, then the society and lastly the existence of universe. After experiencing the fever of his era, he wanted to feel his spiritual self, but found it was withering. He went back to his childhood and began to comb his own growth which he regarded as an integral period with nature. His purpose was to find the reason why human beings, while in a better developed industrial society, were losing their harmonies between body and soul, and how they could get it back or what kind of the spiritual self the industrial people should have. He expressed his meditations in his poems.
Passiveness: Readdressing Science and Technology

Wordsworth regarded *The Prelude* (1799, 1805, 1850) as “the poem on the growth of my mind”, “the poem of my own poetic education” and also “the poem to Coleridge”. The entire volumes described his life from his childhood in which he united with and within nature, and which he had no consciousness about at that time, to the late youth in which he left nature and lived in the industrial city surrounded by the bustle and disturbance which brought him into a depth of despair and let him ponder the relationship between body and soul, man and era, man and nature, even man and man. The central theme of *The Prelude* is the consciousness of Nature passing through his senses to his mind, and the growth of that consciousness, its action and reaction upon his inner life. At last, he found the secret which was to return to nature and the Lake District, to re-establish the concept of divine immanence. Peter Fuller (1947-1990) mentioned this in his *Images of God* (1985):

> Gregory Bateson...once pointed out how the erosion of the concept of divine immanence in nature led men to see the world around them as mindless, and therefore not entitled to moral, aesthetic, or ethical consideration. This led them to see themselves as wholly set apart from nature; when this loss of a sense of organic unity was combined with an advanced technology, Bateson argued, 'your likelihood of survival will be that of a snowball in hell.'

(Fuller, 1985)

Wordsworth preceded Bateson (1904-1980) by a century and a half in the recognition of the potentially catastrophic consequences of the exploitation of nature, and his belief that the future survival of humankind in the industrial/capitalist society might well be dependent on the rekindling of the spiritual self to the divine immanence in nature, and is gradually unfolded in his writings.

An industrial society accompanies the development of capitalism. American sociologist Daniel Bell (1919-2011) divided Capitalism into 3 periods based on the change of working conditions in his book, *The Cultural Contradictions of Capitalism* (1976). The three stages are, first, the pre-industrial period; then the industrial period; and last, the post-industrial period. He thought that mechanical technology was developed quickly in the industrial period. Human beings took the resistance of constructed nature as a game. So this period was also called the Age of Technology. The progress of technology, of course, improved the development of science. Wordsworth realized the harm brought by science and technology to human beings at the same time when people enjoyed their conveniences. Therefore, he did not seem to like science and technology very much. In his poetry, technology and science were the enemies of nature. He once said the mathematics he learned in middle schools and Oxford made his imagination die out gradually. Bush (1896-1983) wrote in his book *Science and English Poetry* (1950), “Wordsworth’s thought or feeling is altogether non-scientific and is not concerned with evidences of design or indeed with much except his own response to the idea of unity of Being” (1950). Bush’s comment directly pointed out that Wordsworth did not have much connection with science and little interest in it. In fact, he didn’t believe that science and technology could bring happiness and harmony to human beings, nor did he believe the capitalism of the industrial age could make human being’s ideal into reality. Bradley (1851-1935) mentioned that Alfred North Whitehead
(1861-1947) said, “had he[Wordsworth] reflected a little more he would have seen, what indeed he should have seen from his own experience, that science is simply irrelevant to [solving]the problems of life… the fact is that science can no more offer clear guidance or reliable support to the imagination than it can offer false guidance or doubtful support to the imagination; and there was a time in Wordsworth’s life when he saw this, compelled on him as it was by the very anguish of his experience” (Bradley, 1972). Both in his imagination and experience he lost trust in science and technology.

When he traveled in France and Germany he cherished the hope brought by the French Revolution. But he was dumfounded by the terrorism of the Revolution, which forced him into introspection of his original attitude to the Revolution and the dreamed social order. Later, seeing the roaring development of capitalism, he again realized the power of undisclosed jeopardy and observed the negative effect brought to society by science and technology. He felt the suppression of reason to emotion, the control of binary opposition to man and nature, as well as the alienation of human nature and the desolation of the human spirit. All of this made him felt heartbreak. He became despondent both in both body and in mind.

The rejecting spirit to science and technology also led him to resist static book-learning. In the poem “Expostulation and Reply”, he expressed his attitude. To him, learning by idleness was more important than from a class, because this process is the process of the natural fostering of thought in the field of psychological education.

Nor less I deem that there are Powers,
Which of themselves our minds impress,
That we can feed this mind of ours,
In a wise passiveness.

(Wordsworth and Coleridge, 1991)

His good friend-teacher Matthew seemed to blame him for his idle sitting on the “old gray stone” for nothing, and intended to ask him to come back to the class for reading. He had his reply: the eye is there for “see”, the ear is there for “hear” and the body for “feel”. He believed it was the mind that impressed that power to those faculties. The spiritual self had no other way but felt “in a wise passiveness”. That old gray stone where he sat and dreamed his time away was the symbol of influence of nature. On that gray stone his spiritual self found his body and mind unite together.

Wordsworth also expressed his dislike of science and technology in The Prelude, Volume 13. He thought that learning science in static way lacked…

A more judicious knowledge of the worth
And dignity of individual man,
No composition of the brain, but man
Of whom we read, the man whom we behold
With our own eyes...

(Jonathan Wordsworth, 1995)

Wordsworth articulated here that imagination and taste were throttled by science and reasons. Nature nurtured man’s pure imagination and taught him to tell good from bad. But the settling judgments (reason) were planned without any thought and built on vague and unsound theories and used modern statistics to
measure human age, sex, and morals. Modern science led people to worship the “Wealth of Nation” as the Ruler of the world, neglecting the spiritual self.

Wordsworth lived in the end of the 18th century and the early 19th century, during which the industry and commerce developed quickly, bringing great wealth to society. People’s wisdom was fully developed with the help of progressive science and technology. However, at the same time, people’s souls and the environment were both progressively being polluted. Inspired by material interests, human beings relentlessly plundered nature and the earth by way of science and technology. People bowed to the interest and lost their morality and beliefs. The harmonious relationship between man and nature was totally destroyed.

Anxiety: Readdressing the Destruction of Nature
Wordsworth bitterly wrote in his poem “Lines Written in Early Spring”:

*To her fair works did Nature link
The human soul that through me ran;
And much it grieved my heart to think
What man has made of man.*

(Lines 5-8)

The birds are hopping and playing around, the budding twigs spread out their arms to catch the breezy air. The poet, sitting in a deep grove, facing the beautiful scenery, should have felt happy. But the fact is that the “pleasant thoughts/Bring sad thoughts to the mind” (Lines 2-3). Why? All the time he was anxious. How many beautiful scenes and environment now were changed and restructured? How man was also changed with the changing of environment! He sighed with feeling, “What man has made of man!” The repetition of this line at the end of this short poem amply reveals his profound anxiety.

Wordsworth was pondering the root of this situation. In his political sonnet, “When I Have Borne in Memory What Has Tamed”, he wrote

*...what has tamed
Great Nations, how ennobling thoughts depart
When men change swords for ledgers, and desert
The student’s bower for gold, ...*

(William Wordsworth, 1981)

Wordsworth grew up in a natural environment. Mountains, forests and rivers were his childhood companions. They mutually poured out their spirits and hearts. His body and mind fused nature into one. During that time his spiritual self was projected by the harmony of nature and man. This caused Wordsworth’s belief that the sublime and great soul was in nature, which could refine the human being’s mind. Nature has the function of instruction, love and advice to human beings. Nature is human being’s friend, guider, mother and consoler. Nature can help humankind regain their morality and teach human beings how to be men. When seeing people were trapped in the rational judgments, he called upon them to get up, go to the top of mountains to enjoy the sun, and run in the fields to smell the fragrance of grass, because there is more wisdom in the fields and they can be our teachers, just as he wrote in the poem, “The Tables Turned”: 

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She has a world of ready wealth,
Our minds and hearts to bless--
Spontaneous wisdom breathed by health,
Truth breathed by cheerfulness.

One impulse from a vernal wood
May teach you more of man;
Of moral evil and of good,
Than all the sages can.

(Lines 17-24)

In Wordsworth’s words, the books are dull and meaningless. So throw books away, “Enough of science and of art” and turn over the Table. Go to nature, and the sun will tell you what generosity is and the linnet and thistle will teach you what the real music is, even one impulse of a vernal wood can teach you much more than the alleged Sage does. Books, science and art here indicate the education and civilized system but to Wordsworth they were but barren leaves without real knowledge, because in the industrial society the more that people read at the table, the more mechanical and dogmatic they were. The long depressive anxiety inspired the spiritual self to burst out: the table turned!

To Wordsworth, if human beings want release from the wrong taste of material interests and not abuse science and technology, they must re-establish their noble spiritual self. The first step is to go into nature, far away from the industrial city life, and to learn from, feel and appreciate the grass, the flowers, and the mountain as a little student does. What they give to you is far more than what all the books (the modern science) teach. Wordsworth hated the industrial expansion. In 1844, he conducted a single-handed public campaign to keep the railways from entering the inner sanctum of the lake district, a mile above Bowness along the shore of Windermere. During that time, a frenzy of speculation and modernization led England to rapid expansion of rail lines. By 1844 there were over 2,000 miles of finished track and this pushed the country into modernity with unprecedented speed. Where the rail went, there appeared trotted woods, destroyed ruins, changed river streams, and taken-away grass pieces, as well as industrial pollution, commercial fairs, utilitarian markets and degradation of morals. Wordsworth published his “Sonnet on the Projected Kendal and Windermere Railway” in October 16, 1844, in the London Morning Post:

Is then no nook of English ground secure
From rash assault? Schemes of retirement sown
In youth, and mid the busy world kept pure
As when the earliest flowers of hope were blown,
Must perish; ----how can they this blight endure?
And must he too the ruthless change bemoan
Who scorns a false utilitarian lure
Mid his paternal fields at random thrown?
Baffle the threat, bright Scene, from Orrest-head

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Given to the pausing traveller’s rapturous glance:
Plead for thy peace, thou beautiful romance
Of nature; and, if human hearts be dead,
Speak, passing winds; ye torrents, with your strong
And constant voice, protest against the wrong?

(William Wordsworth, 1974. vol. 3)

Wordsworth regarded railways as a violation, a “rash assault” into the space of “nature”, “romance,” and “retirement”. The railway threatened to disturb not only the piety of “paternal fields’, but also his “schemes of retirement”. He called on nature to decry the assault, inviting “torrents,” and “wind” with their constant and strong voice to “protest against the wrong”.

His campaign failed and the railway station finally was built at Furness Abbey. He felt sad and wrote another poem within a day named “At Furness Abbey.”

Well have yon Railway Labourers to THIS ground
Withdrawn for noontide rest. They sit, they walk
Among the Ruins, but no idle talk
Is heard; to grave demeanour all are bound;
And from one voice a Hymn with tuneful sound
Hallows once more the long deserted Quire
And thrills the old sepulchral earth, around.

(William Wordsworth, 1946, vol. III)

To Wordsworth the whistle of the train was not just a threat to the beauty of a particular spot, nor even a harbinger of the world. It was the signal of the triumph of a particular cast of mind, which thinks “profit” means cash and does not care to see “Proteus coming from the sea:/ Or hear old Triton blow his wreathed horn” (Closing lines of “The World is too Much with Us” published in 1807. In the Kendal and Windermere Railway Letters, Wordsworth writes of the enmity towards “moral sentiments and intellectual pleasures of a high order” displayed by “‘Utilitarianism’, serving as a mask for cupidity’…” (Wordsworth, 1974).

In Volume 8 of The Prelude, Wordsworth wrote that “man is a substance in nature which personifies nature and naturalizes persons” (Lines 166-172). “Love of nature leads to love of man”. Only when man mixes with nature, when the two mutually understand each other, love mutually and live together harmoniously, can he or she set up the belief of loving human beings. If we love human beings, we can especially value the environment in which human beings are living. Loving nature makes human beings notice their own behaviors more, and not misuse technology or science, nor misuse their power. In this way, society can be introduced into beneficial development. Loving nature will lead to the union of the spiritual self and the flesh self into one body and further lead Wordsworth out of his self anxiety.

**Conclusion**

William Wordsworth, though for most part of his life he lived in the 19th century English prime industrial period, was estranged from the main stream of his society, far away from science and technology, devoting himself to nature and trying to feel his spiritual self in a wise passiveness and avoiding the divergence of
body and soul. He deeply understood that if those true scenic areas and species were totally extinguished and man failed to regain their spiritual selves, it would not be far from the extinguishment of human beings. Anxiety of modern people’s destroying nature was forever lingering in his mind and revealed in his poems.

Charlene Spretnak (1946 - ), a famous American ecological postmodernist thinker and ecological feminist theorist, assisted that technology and science are “neither force into itself, dragging us along in its wake, nor merely an aggregate of neutral, value-free tools. The purpose and design of every new technology reflects our culture” (1997). This culture must be beneficial to the group who hold this culture. They have the discourse power by which profound influence will be disseminated. The public, usually a group of parrots, follows the mainstream. For example, the fact that industrial society will be richer with the improvement of science and technology is convincingly believed by modern people. Thus, values mutually compatible with that culture are also established. Science and technology are actually spreading a kind of culture and value effectively, systematically and complicatedly, in whose frame, man has no spiritual self, but just numbly follows suit. Wordsworth, by finding his spiritual self in the industrial age, revealed his readress to modernism, in fact, to the basic root on which the culture and values of his age were established.

**References**


Art of Contrast in Symbolic Imagery of T. S. Eliot’s *The Waste Land*

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**Abstract** As an outstanding representative of Modernism, T. S. Eliot was greatly influenced by French Symbolist Movement. As a result, his masterpiece poem *The Waste Land* is especially distinct in using symbolic images, among which the water, fire and season images are the three most significant. In the poem, they all take on certain contrasting symbolic meanings, which greatly help to deepen the theme of death and rebirth of the poem.

**Keywords** contrast; imagery; water; fire; season; T. S. Elliot; *The Waste Land*

**Introduction**
As one of the major founders of Modernism and a chief figure in New Criticism, T.S. Eliot succeeded in many careers: critic, playwright, philosopher and first of all, an excellent and successful poet. With the publication of *The Waste Land* in 1922, which has come to be regarded as a milestone of modern poetry and also as one of the chief exemplars of modernism in English literature, T.S. Eliot firmly set up his position in modern poetry and was awarded the Nobel Prize for literature in 1948. It is a poem reflecting people’s disillusionment and frustration in a sterile and futile society in the 20th century. More specifically, it describes the chaotic, perplexing and desolate state of Europe (probably Britain) after WWI and the people that had been ruined both physically and spiritually (Cai, 2003). The poem is based on a mythological story about the Fisher King whose impotence brought drought and desolation to the land and failure of the power to reproduce themselves among both men and beasts. This symbolic waste land can be revived only when a “questing knight” goes to find the Holy Grail. Segal pointed out “the aim of the quest turns out to have been mystical oneness with god and not just food from god. It is this spiritual dimension of the legend that inspired T. S. Eliot to use” it in *The Waste Land* (Segal, 2008, p. 80). Eliot’s use of the myth suggests a mysterious but particular analogy between the waste land brought about by the impotence of the Fisher King and the sterile existence of modern waste land produced by the destructive World War I. The poem is characterized by an abundant use of allusions and symbols, well-arranged contrasts, many voices, and shifting tones. Among all of these devices, the contrast technique stands out prominently. While as a poet greatly influenced by the French Symbolist Movement, Eliot unavoidably used many symbolic images to gain the contrast effect in *The Waste Land*, including the images of water, fire and seasons, which help to deepen the theme of death and rebirth of modern civilization in the postwar period.

**Contrast in the Symbolic Meanings of Water**
continues the complex sequence of references to rain, river, boat, wetness and dryness. Eliot purposefully employs an ambiguous water image to explain how modern world has become a “wasteland” and needs to be reborn (Fugu, 2009).

It is mainly because of a lack of water that the waste land becomes a desert with no fertility. Accordingly, water plays a key role in all the scenes of the poem. The following lines give us an impression of what important role water plays on the waste land:

Here is no water but only rock
Rock and no water and the sandy road.
The road winding above among the mountains
Which are mountains of rock without water.
If there were water we should stop and think
Amongst the rock one cannot stop or think
(Lines 331-336)

In such a state of a bad lack of water, the wastelanders are restless, and uneasy. They are nearly dying of thirst. Eliot’s purpose in the poem is only to display the physical desire for water of the waste land. The physical longing for water can be extended by analogy to the state of mind and soul. So water here symbolizes life both physically and spiritually.

Water can originate life, but at the same time, water can also bring death to all living things. In The Waste Land, water also symbolizes the sea of lust which drowns the people who sink into it. Drowned in the sea of lust, the wastelanders become selfish and degenerated. Their life is actually spiritually dead. If a lack of water is the cause of human’s physical waste land, then man’s indulgence in the sea of lust is a cause of human’s spiritual waste land. Eliot has shown in the poem that on the bank of the Thames River, there is no longer the beautiful singing of the nymphs as in the past. The modern nymphs now have left the testimony of summer nights there – empty bottles, sandwich papers, and silk handkerchiefs, etc. The riverbank is in a completely disordered state. These scenes of water give us unpleasant and uneasy impressions. In this sense, water also symbolizes certain kind of destruction and decay. Whether water symbolizes the sea of lust or destruction or decay, its symbolic meanings in this sense are all related to the sense of death.

The salvation of the waste land needs water to irrigate, but too much water of lust will cause spiritual dryness and destruction of the waste land. The only way to solve this contradiction is to flood the modern waste land to gain rebirth and regeneration from the purified water just like the story of Great Flood and Noah’s Arc in the Bible.

The most important and powerful instance of Eliot’s interest in water imagery is in Section IV “Death by Water”. This is Eliot’s most formal treatment of an image of disturbing ambivalence associated with overwhelming questions of the meaning of life and death. As part of a poem called The Waste Land, the title “Death by Water” automatically takes on certain symbolic values. It evokes the relation between lack of water and deserts, between presence of water and fruitfulness. The entire waste land can be solved by being flooded by water and taking rebirth from the water. Here, water takes on two contrasting meanings: death and life. In the old Phoenician myth, Adonis is the God of birth. Every year people will hold a ceremony at Alexandria Port to cast the head of Adonis’s effigy into the sea, which symbolizes the death of natural force. In the end, the effigy will be pushed to the beach again by water, which symbolizes
the resurrection of the God. With Christian ideas in mind, Eliot gives water certain religious significance. As we know, if a person wants to convert to Christianity, he must be baptized. The Bible says:

Do you know that all of us who have been baptized into Christ Jesus were baptized into his death? Therefore we have been buried with him by baptism into death, so that, just as Christ was raised from the dead by the glory of the Father, so we too might walk in newness of life.

(CCC, Holy Bible, Roman 6: 3-4, 2001)

So we can see water plays a very important role in Christianity for it can give new life or rebirth to the dead. Accordingly, “death” by water is more meaningful than death itself. As the focal point of ritual of rebirth and salvation, it is a powerful symbol of new life.

Since the waste land can get rebirth from the “death” by water, in the last part of the poem, the emphasis changes from death by water to a desire for water. In the so-called water dropping song, this desire for water is pushed to an extreme before the reader encounters the anticlimactic line – “then a damp gust, bringing rain” – and in the last line, another river, another boat, and more fish appear. All of the above things make the speaker on the waste land see the hope of salvation.

Through the water image, the contrast between life and death is obvious to the readers. The waste land becomes physically dead and life now is sterile and meaningless. This indicates that the wastelanders also become spiritually dead. When life is impossible for inhabitants on the waste land, it is better to choose death as their outcome rather than being dragged out of a disgraceful existence such as the state of death-in-life. Under this circumstance, death is a proper means to end the state of living death and to gain rebirth. In Section III, and Section IV, Eliot offers two ways solutions to this problem: One is “death” by water and the other is “burning” by fire. Either way needs the wastelanders to die first and then they will be rebirthed from that death. And in Section V, the wastelanders really see the hope of rebirth: As the Thunder proclaims in the last section of the poem, the waste land, over which Tiresias presides, can be redeemed only by surrendering to life – giving force found in the heart of destruction, which will reunite the sundered fragments and set the lands in order with a new originating myth.

Contrast in the Symbolic Meanings of Fire
Fire, as water, has two contrasting symbolic meanings in The Waste Land. Eliot is sophisticated in putting two contradictory things together: In the five sections of the poem, “The Fire Sermon” is followed by “Death by Water”. This arrangement shows a distinct contrast and the poet’s unique ingenuity is evidently understood by the readers. Fire, if it is related with sexual desire, is destructive. On the other hand, the destructive function of fire also breeds new birth, as with the Phoenix in Egyptian mythology, a bird that burned itself in order to get freshness of youth and another cycle of years.

To the wastelanders, fire, on one hand, symbolizes endless miseries, death and filthy desire. As one of the disastrous natural forces, fire can burn anything into ashes. Whether in Buddhism or Christianity, hell is a place filled with fire which makes every ghost suffer a lot to answer for his bad deeds during his lifetime. Furthermore, fire on the waste land also symbolizes the fire of sexual desire. The burning of the fire of sexual desire stimulates the wastelanders and lures them to sink into the sea of lust step-by-step. In Section III, “The Fire Sermon”, Eliot describes three scenes of the wastelanders’ degeneration caused by the fire of sexual desire: The first scene is the contrast between the present and the past of Thames River, a holy place where the noble ladies held their wedding ceremonies which has now become a filthy and
degenerate place; the second scene is about a Smyrna merchant who makes his oily offer of a homosexual weekend to another man; the last scene is about the loveless connection of a typist and a “small house agent’s clerk” who comes to her apartment. These tawdry scenes all reflect the filthy lust and people’s endless miseries caused by the fire of sexual desire. We can also find that because of “fire”, the “Game of chess” is plotted to permit the seduction to go on “in the next room”; because of “fire”, King Tereus rapes his sister-in-law, who changes into a nightingale and sings sad songs until now; because of “fire”, Sweeney is brought to Mrs. Porter’s by “the sound of horns and motors”. In a word, the burning fire of sexual desire burns the once beautiful land into the waste land. The modern civilization is also burned down just like the falling of the London Bridge. The wastelanders are miserably struggling and suffering in this burning fire just as the unhappy ghosts suffering in Dante’s Inferno. The above two examples show that love on the modern waste land is greatly challenged by people’s sexual fire of rapaciousness and lust. Their obsession with biological gratification has totally blinded them to the holier and healthier aspects of life. They are neither living nor dead – merely walking corpses, who suffer unredeemed in the inferno of this world and die unrepentant. True, pure, and happy love is the prescription to salve the waste land because when love fails, a wasteland develops. But on the modern waste land, this kind of love has already been replaced by people’s lust and desire for biological gratification.

Just as water both purifies and drowns, fire both purges and destroys. On the other hand, fire in The Waste Land also symbolizes rebirth and regeneration. The Fire Sermon itself was preached by the Buddha against the fires of lust and other passions which destroy men and prevent their regeneration. Fire here becomes the fire of purification. This kind of fire can destroy any evils and lust in the world. It can also purify people’s mind and soul and let them fall apart from the living death state of life and make them get rebirth once more. At the end of Section III, the speaker cries out the following lines:

To Carthage then I came
Burning burning burning burning
O Lord Thou pluckest me out
O Lord Thou pluckest
Burning

(Lines 311-317)

The above lines are borrowed by Eliot from Christian and Buddhism doctrines. This is a very meaningful combined quotation which shows that what Eliot borrows from Buddhism corresponds to Christ’s sermon as the collocation of these two representatives of eastern and western asceticism. It is true that asceticism exists both in postwar eastern and western worlds. People of that time became spiritually void and the mutual friendship had changed into suspicion. Eliot hopes there might be a mysterious force to control these degenerated phenomena, and to his pleasure the symbols of this force are both fire either in western or eastern culture. Fire can free people from the waste land they created. The repetition of “burning” shows the poet’s great desire of purification and regeneration of the waste land by means of God’s burning of the divine fire, for this divine fire can wipe out the root of all sins – the fire of sexual desire; for this divine fire can drag all the wastelanders out of the living death state; for this divine fire can give rebirth and regeneration to the whole waste land and modern civilization.

At the end of the entire poem, Eliot wrote: “Poi s’ ascoso nel foco che gli affina” which means “he hid himself in the fire which refines them”. Fire here also refers to the fire of purification. The purgatorial vision of refining fire – as distinct from the fires of lust – represents one of the hopeful fragments shored
up by the seeker for regeneration and order. In a word, the refining fire, as important as the purified water, is also one way to salve the waste land.

From the analysis of people’s filthy fire of lust, Eliot paints the readers a vivid picture of a modern waste land: no love, no faith, no communication, death hovering here and there, in a word, a death-in-life world. The contrast also expresses the poet’s cherished memories of the past which is beautiful and lovely compared with the present state of the modern waste land. By using this sharp contrast, the poet expresses his great desire and hope for the regeneration of the waste land. In order to achieve this goal, the wastelanders must get rid of the lust and learn to love with true love and communicate with others, and the most important is that all the living creatures on the waste land had better choose to die so as to gain rebirth.

**Contrast in the Symbolic Meanings of Season Imagery**

Besides the water and fire image, Eliot also makes a contrast between the functions of four seasons. In *The Waste Land*, the four seasons are not just natural courses, but take on some symbolic values. Eliot begins his poem with the startling description of spring:

*April is the cruellest month, breeding*
*Lilacs out of the dead land, mixing*
*Memory and desire, stirring*
*Dull roots with spring rain.*

(Lines 1-4)

To most people, spring should be a season of rebirth. It always reminds people of new-birth, greenness, warm wind, rain, and colorful flowers. But the wastelanders regard spring as cruel because it brings no true renewal, but instead tortures them with vain recollections. For those who do not wish a really new life, April is cruel because it does not permit people to die. The wastelanders are eager to end the meaningless life because they are entrapped in the spiritual dryness. To live is no better than to die for them. If they want rebirth, they must remember the past glory and experiences and have great courage to change the present situation. In the last section, the “thunder of spring over distant mountains” gives the wastelanders the hope of rebirth, because spring rain is coming and the dry land will have a new life.

Compared with spring, summer and winter are depicted in another different tone. Summer surprises “us” with a shower of rain and in summer all western countries become waste lands and also:

*The river bears no empty bottles, sandwich paper,*
*Silk handkerchiefs, cardboard boxes, cigarette ends*
*Or other testimony of summer nights. The nymphs are departed*
*And their friends, the loitering heirs of city directors;*
*Departed, have left no addresses.*

(Lines 176-181)

Summer, once a very pleasant season for the lovers in the past, now has become a disgusting one, and even the “nymphs” have also departed. The winter season is no better. Although it can let the wastelanders temporarily forget the suffering and unhappy things, it, at the same time, makes them paralyzed in spirit. They select to wait for death under the warm white snow rather than bravely face the reality. In winter, the rebirth of the corpse planted in the garden became impossible; in winter, people
walked quickly over London Bridge. Each man became selfish and this killed so many good people. From the above analysis we can see that summer and winter symbolize the decay and dead condition of the modern waste land and also the death-in-life spiritual state of mind.

It is very clear that people on the waste land have a contrasting feeling about spring and winter. They don’t like, or even are afraid, of spring because they are living on a dead land and their spiritual world has become void and sullen. The meaningless life makes them desperately feel that to die is much better than to live in this death-in-life world. But to their dismay, spring is a season of producing and originating new life and not permitting death, so the wastelanders experience spring as cruel. On the contrary, winter is a season which is often associated with coldness and death. Many things will die in the cold winter and winter always gives people a cold and desolate feeling. Because of this, the wastelanders who do not wish to live or to get a new life any more certainly consider winter as a more considerate and lovely season than spring.

Spring, which symbolizes new life and rebirth, and summer and winter, which symbolize the decay and rotten civilization, are not simply natural courses changing through a year. They do bear some contrast symbolic meanings in The Waste Land – contrast between the past glory and modern sordidness. This contrast also deepens the theme of salvation of modern waste land.

Implications and Conclusion
As a poet greatly influenced by the French Symbolist Movement, Eliot unavoidably used many symbolic images in The Waste Land. Eliot used this image of a waste land to symbolize the decay of modern civilization. In order to gain a significant effect, Eliot skillfully used the contrast technique in imagery in writing this poem. The Waste Land is full of contrast symbolic images. Water, fire and the season images are the three most important. Water and fire contradict each other literally in The Waste Land, and each of them embodies two contradictory symbolic indications. Water, on one hand, symbolizes lust and death; on the other hand, it also symbolizes life and rebirth. Fire, the same as water, symbolizes both death and desire and regeneration. The distinctive use of contrast in these two images greatly deepens the theme of this poem. From the analysis above, we have already understood the causes of the waste land: a lack of water and degeneration in the sea of lust and the fire of sexual desire. These things lead directly to the formation of both the physical and the spiritual waste land. The modern waste land, which symbolizes modern civilization, has already turned into a dead state. Worst of all, the state is not really a death, but a kind of living death. In addition, the contrasting symbolic values of water and fire also present us with one of the possible and feasible way to salve the waste land, that is, either flood it by purified water or burn it by divine fire to gain rebirth and regeneration. To the wastelanders, if he is in a living-death state but refuses to die, he is hopeless, and far away from rebirth. Thus, people on the waste land begin to see possibility of salvation. The season images in the poem impress the readers with their unusual symbolic meanings which forms sharp contrast with our inherent knowledge about them. This contrast shows the poet’s disgust at the modern waste land and also presents a method of salvation.

Through the art of contrast, the poem paints a picture of civilizations with no moral, cultural, or religious center, which symbolizes the decay and fragmentation of the modern Western culture. This poem consists literally of many fragments of the west, both present and past. Eliot’s real intention of writing this poem is to reflect the living death state of modern civilization. Through analysis of the contrast in the symbolic imagery, we can see Eliot’s great disgust at the world where he lives and his sincere hope to find a better means for curing the decaying modern civilization, to have a regeneration.
and rebirth of the contemporary people. Eliot held that the negative qualities of the modern world could only be shown through the contrast with positive qualities of the old world, so the contrast in symbolic imagery of this poem contributes a lot to achieve his purpose.

**Note:** All the cited lines of poem are from *The Waste Land* by T. S. Eliot from the Pennsylvania State University Electronic Classics Series in 2000.

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The Analysis of the Jewish Theme in *The Finkler Question*

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**[Abstract]** *The Finkler Question* was written by British Jewish novelist, Howard Jacobson, who won the 2010 Man Booker Prize. This thesis researches into Zionism and boycott, the question of Jewishness and Jewish identity and analyzes the modern British society and human spiritual state so as to offer an insight into the theme of the novel.

**[Keywords]** Jews; Jewishness; Zionism; identity

**Introduction**

Howard Jacobson, a modern British Jewish novelist, drew international attention when *The Finkler Question* won the 2010 Man Booker Prize for fiction (Brown, M. 2010). He has written thirteen novels, including five novels related to Jewish themes. However, *The Finkler Question* is the novel that made him famous in the world. The book is at once an outrageously funny novel and a sobering account of Jewish life in contemporary Britain, set against the backdrop of rising anti-Zionist sentiment. The Jewishness is deeply kept in his heart, which is dependent on his national complex. Jewishness is to use Jewish cultural elements by literature and thus, reflects the comprehensive national quality. The core meaning of Jewish cultural elements is customer identity, voters’ views, values and national customs, and so on. Different writers focus on different contents of Jewish themes.

*The Finkler Question* puts emphasis on the Jewish identity. The characters are humanoids and exemplify various problems that are faced by modern Jews. Jacobson has managed to portray in a short and funny, but poignant way, dilemmas that a great many Jews and many Christians struggle with today. At the bottom of he humor in the book is a deep moral urgency. It also manifests that flawed human beings, as all of us are, are just looking for their own place in the world. We are introduced into the novel through Julian Treslove, a professionally unnoticeable former BBC radio producer, and Sam Finkler, a popular Jewish philosopher, writer, and television celebrity. They were at school together. More rivals than friends, but rivalry, too, can last a lifetime. Finkler was the cleverer of the two. Despite their different lives, they were never separated from each other, or from their former teacher, Libor Sevcik. They dined at Libor’s apartment at night together – the two Jewish widowers and the unmarried Gentile, Treslove – and the men spent a sweetly painful evening, reminiscing their past and sorrow. But when Treslove went back home, he was robbed outside a violin dealer’s window. Treslove believed that it was an act of anti-Semitism which caused his whole sense of self to change. *The Finkler Question* is a story of exclusion and belonging, justice and love, ageing, wisdom and humanity. And the novel is always focusing on the questions. What makes a Jew a Jew? What creates the separation between Jews and Gentiles? Is it the fault of the Jews or is it because of anti-Semitism? Therefore, the Finkler question is actually the Jewish question.
Zionism and the Boycott

Zionism is a political movement that arose in the latter part of the 1800’s. Initially it referred to the effort of certain Jewish people to establish a Jewish nation in the land of Palestine (Andreas, 2011). Zionism emerged in the late 19th century in central and eastern Europe as a national revival movement, and soon after, most leaders of the movement associated the main goal with creating the desired state of Palestine, then an area controlled by the Ottoman Empire. A religious variety of Zionism supports Jews upholding their Jewish identity, opposes the assimilation of Jews into other societies, and has advocated the “return” of Jews to Israel as a means for Jews to be a majority in their own nation, and to be liberated from anti-Semitic discrimination, exclusion, and persecution that had historically occurred in the diaspora. Since the establishment of the State of Israel, the Zionist movement continues primarily to advocate on behalf of Israel and address threats to its continued existence and security. “In case of such Ashamed Jews as these it wasn’t the J word but the Z word of which they were ashamed. For which reason there was always a degree of fretting at edge of the movement in the matter of what they called themselves. Wouldn’t it more accurately describe the origin and nature of their shame if they changed their name to Ashamed Zionists?” (Jacobson, 2010, p. 137). That is to say, those were ashamed as Jews of Zionism, but not Jews of being Jewish. As a matter of fact, Finkler is a Jew who is ashamed of his own Jewish identity. He once was in favor of Zionism. It was Merton Kugle whose commitment to ASHamed Jews was what had originally attracted him to the group. He is a great talker and maintains an ambivalent attitude towards his own standpoint. “It included Jews like Finkler, whose shame comprehended the whole Jew caboodle and who didn’t give a hoot about a High Holy Day, and Jews who knew nothing of any of it, who had been brought up as Marxists and atheists, or whose parents had changed their names and gone to live in rural Berkshire where they kept horses, and who only assumed the mantle of Jewishness so they could throw it off” (Jacobson, 2010, p. 138). Finkler is also a person who always doubts what he does. “There were moments when he wondered what he’d let himself in for here. If I don’t particularly want to be with Jews, where’s the sense, he asked himself, in being with these Jews, solely because they don’t particularly want to be with Jews either?” (Jacobson, 2010, p. 144). The logic that made it impossible for those who had never been Zionists to call themselves ASHamed Zionists did not extend to Jews who had never been Jews. To be an ASHamed Jew did not require that you had been knowingly Jewish all your life. Indeed, one among them only found out he was Jewish at all in the course of making a television program in which he was confronted on camera with who he really was.

When it comes to the Boycott, it was a shorthand term for the comprehensive Academic and Cultural Boycott of Israeli Universities and Institutions. Proposals for academic boycotts of Israel have been made by academics and organizations in Palestine, the United States, the United Kingdom, and other countries to boycott Israeli universities and academics. The goal of proposed academic boycotts is to isolate Israel in order to force a change in Israel’s policies towards the Palestinians which proponents state to be discriminatory and oppressive, including oppressive to the academic freedom of Palestinians (Wikipedia, 2001). “Merton Kugle was the group’s prime boycotter. Already he was boycotting Israel in a private capacity, going through every item on his supermarket shelves to ascertain its origin and complaining to the manager when he found a tin or packet that was suspect. In pursuit of ‘racist merchandise’ – usually, in his experience, concealed on the lowest shelves in the darkest recesses of the shop – Merton Kugle had ruined his spine and all but worn out his eyes” (Jacobson, 2010, p. 143). The author uses satire to make the character Merton full of sense of humor and satire, just as Frye (1957) pointed out, “A satirical writer often produces wisdom or humor through fantasy, weird consciousness or sense of absurd” (p. 224).
“Sometimes, the absurd effect can not bring harm to others (Aristotle, 1996, p. 58). In Finkler’s view, Kugle was one of the walking dead. But more than that, his putrefaction was infectious. It is obvious that Finkler objected to the Boycott.

**Jewishness and Jewish Identity**

Identity is a very important concept in the western cultural research. It refers to the identity of people and a specific society. Therefore, people like to ask whom they are, where we are from and where to go (Tao, 2004, p. 37). In Stuart Hall’s book, *The Question of Cultural Identity*, enlightenment identity is “Based on an understanding of people which is that human is a self-central unity; he is given of reason, awareness and capacity to act. The basic center of one self is the self-identity” (Hall, 1996, p. 275).

Everyone in the novel is flawed, but Jacobson has such sympathy for humans – while brilliantly skewering the vast chasm between how they see themselves and how they really are. He is bitterly brilliant in his literary descriptions of the wide range of Jewish opinions about Zionism and the distresses of the Israeli-Palestinian question. These are not his opinions. They are the opinions of his characters. Some are self-hated Jews, some thoughtful and empathetic Jews, some wannabe-Jews, some not-wannabe-Jews, some just anti-Semites. He believes that is so much about the human condition.

Howard Jacobson, as a Jewish British writer, talks about Jewishness and Jewish Identity in his works. *The Finkler Question* gives us a picture of the life of Jews in London. Samuel Finkler, is born and raised the son of a proud Jewish family. Going on to study Philosophy at Oxford University, he is smarter than average Englishmen and the publication of several philosophical text books reinforce the point to his friends, family, associates and readers of the fine tome. Treslove wanted to be a Jew and he tried to learn Yiddish language in order to make himself integrate into the world of Jews. The Yiddish language is called the hated secret language of Jews by Finkler. “The Yiddishing drove German Jews mad in the days when they thought the Germans would love them the more for playing down their Jewishness. The lost provincial over-expressiveness of his father” (Jacobson, 2010, p. 145). Some of the Jews always struggled to integrate into the society. On the other hand, they can’t get rid of the influence of the tradition. “All Jews. Endlessly falling out in public about how Jewish to be, whether they are or they aren’t, whether they’re practicing or they’re not, whether to wear fringes or eat bacon, whether they feel safe here or precarious, whether the world hates them or it doesn’t, the fucking Holocaust, fucking Palestine” (Jacobson, 2010, p. 121). “You say you want to be a Jew – well, the first thing you need to know is that Jewish men don’t go out without their wives or girlfriends. Unless they’re having an affair. Other than another woman’s flat there’s nowhere for Jewish men to go. They don’t do pubs, they hate being seen unaccompanied at the theatre, and they can’t eat on their own. Jewish men must have someone to talk to while they eat. They can’t do only one thing at a time with their mouths” (Jacobson, 2010, p. 160). The above is seen as parts of symbols of being Jews from different aspects, such as living habits, political thoughts or some typical festivals. They follow the rules of Jewish life. The festival of Passover and Circumcision are mentioned in the novel. Jewish people also celebrate Rosh Hashanah, Yom Kippur, Succot, Simchat Torah, Shavuot, Purim, Pesach, and Hanukkah. The phenomenon of Circumcision is considered as the tag of racial identification. And Treslove also regards it as the one of the ways of being a real Jew. In the statutes of God, it says whoever is not circumcised cannot be Israelites. And Howard tries to find the Jewishness, what are the Jewish identities, and the state of Gentiles under the British culture. “Actually, Britain never accepts Jews formally and there is almost no special legislation on them” (Wang, 2004).
Modern British Society and Human Spiritual State

A Treslove was robbed unexpectedly when he went back home from Libor’s house. Although Treslove wasn’t a Jew, he believed that the robbery happened because of being seen as a Jew. And it also shows the suffering of Jews in modern British society. Some of them are confronted with robbery, poverty, discrimination and so on. They are always regarded as the guests in the entire society and it is hard for them to be the members in other cultural backgrounds. Finkler is ignorant of his Jewish identity and even wants to get rid of it. Finkler is actually an ambitious person and is fond of the limelight.

As for Treslove, he wants to get rid of him. Sometimes Treslove admires him and even envies him. The most tragic character is Libor who always struggled within the death of his wife, Malkie Hofmannsthal. Finally, he committed suicide. Although his story is sad, it is wholly believable. The bond between the three men is very real, but many tensions exist, religious and sexual. Treslove had a sexual relationship with Finkler’s wife, Tyler. Although he and Tyler were very intimate, he was always unconfident when he faced Tyler, even Finkler. Of course we wonder about the state of mind of Treslove as he jumped at and chases imaginary shadows. His two friends, at any rate, have no idea what he’s through. But they learn of it eventually and like all good friends indeed, they “run” to assist their friend in need. He admires the social panache and ease of his rich friend Finkler and his rival Jew, Libor, both of whom have opposed views on Zionism. Julian took revenge on Finkler by making love to his wife while Finkler was out seducing other women. This is the most unconvincing of several attempts that describe Julian’s determination to become accepted by a woman. Treslove is a pretty ugly character, child-hating, woman-hating and self-hating, impotent socially and sexually, though managing to ‘make love’ to unlikely women who scorn him.

Lastly, another strand in the novel is political. This novel will annoy a lot of liberal people. This may explain most of the negative reviews. The novel tackles the modern Western mass media’s fashionable and generic stance on the Palestinian and Israeli issue. It is nothing but a politically correct and prejudicial genre of news reporting to demonize Israeli Jews and present the Palestinians and Muslims as their victims.

Implications and Conclusion

Mr. Jacobsen demonstrates that it is not ethical behavior, religious feeling or sensibility, wisdom, or even tradition. Instead, he appears to be saying that it is a sort of tribalism, that is, a sense of belonging to a group, but a group that is based on interconnected families, i.e. a group one must be born into. Past and present insults and persecutions are shown to be important in maintaining tribal identity. This novel is very slow-moving and there is very little in the way of plot and while some of the dialogue is clever, amusing or even thought-provoking, many of the characters are difficult to relate to. It is mostly dialogue between the three men involved and each of them talking to themselves. It is interesting and in particular, the aspects of grief. It is very current now with the situation between Israel and Palestine. Jacobson does write well and you feel involved in the arising issues. He has managed to portray in a short, funny, but poignant, way the dilemmas that a great many Jews and many Christians struggle with today. At the bottom of all the humor in the book there is a deep moral urgency. We can find the genuine humor here. There are also sharp observations of current behavior in some of the peripheral events. However, these characters give us different types of personalities – they verge on being stock characters who rarely, if ever, come fully to life. Therefore, The Finkler Question is really the Jewish question. There are still many Jewish questions that need to be solved.
References


On Black Women’s Identity Building in The Bluest Eye and Sula

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[Abstract] From the view of feminism, by comparative study, this thesis attempts to study black women’s identity building in Morrison’s two novels – The Bluest Eye and Sula. It explores the crisis of black women’s identity, analyzes the causes and it also probes the fundamental ways to solve the identity crisis. This thesis points out that black women should stick to their black identity, to their community, to black culture and tradition to find their own value and fight for their own rights to survive in a society dominated by the white culture.

[Keywords] The Bluest Eye; Sula; black women; identity crisis; identity building

Introduction

Toni Morrison, the first African American female to achieve the Nobel Prize, is one of the greatest contemporary writers in America. As a representative of a weak race, gender and cultural groups, Morrison’s novels are rooted in the traditional culture of black people, especially black women’s living conditions and fate, to encourage black people to change the embarrassed situation. Many of her works are rooted in black women’s tragic lives, portraying vividly their struggle under multiple oppressions – race, gender and class discrimination. Morrison uses her sharp insight and deep cultural thinking to depict the real life of the African American in the 20th century. Morrison depicts black female’s experience from childhood to adulthood in The Bluest Eye (1999) and Sula (Morrison, 1973), describing black women’s tragic fate and their struggles to pursue their identity. This thesis mainly explores the causes of black women’s identity crisis and probes the way to solve the problem.

Identity Crisis of Black Women and the Causes

The Bluest Eye and Sula by Morrison mark the starting point of the growth of black women. Pecola and Sula are all related to the “self”; Morrison has examined black women’s loss, division and self-denial from the perspective of cultural shock. Identity crises mainly appear in black physical identity negation and denial of the black cultural identity.

Pecola lives in a culture dominated by the white community, under the impact and influence of white culture, and black people around, her including her mother, have been “bleaching”. They advocate the white culture and preach their aesthetic standards and values; they like light-skinned girls but disgust dark-skinned girls. West (1994) observed “much of black self-hatred and self-contempt has to do with the refusal of many black Americans to love their own black bodies – especially their black noses, hips, lips and hair” (p. 122). Pecola, who has dark skin, is often subjected to discrimination, and ridicule from neighbors, classmates and even from her mother. In American society, whites define the physical characteristics of “white skin” and “blue eyes” as symbols of beauty for all women. Affected by the dominant culture, Pecola blindly internalizes this aesthetical criteria, which causes her to have an identity dilemma. For blacks, their color is one of their cultural identities or the ethnic identity of significant external features. If they have a distaste for black skin, they are actually discarding their own black identity. “Blue eyes” actually represents Pecola’s desire to have an identity, and selecting blue eyes means that she completely has accepted the white culture and uses white vision to see the world. This will inevitably lead to the loss of subjectivity and a deeper
identity crisis. No wonder Morrison (1993) asserted, “racial beauty was not a reaction to the self-mocking, humorous critique of cultural/racial foibles common in all groups, but against the damaging internalization of assumptions of immutable inferiority originating in an outside gaze” (p. 210).

To some extent, Morrison’s second work *Sula* is a continuation to *The Bluest Eye*, which describes black women’s childhood and extends into their adulthood. The heroine of the novel, Sula, does not have the ignorance and confusion of Pecola. Sula no longer blindly accepts white values and no longer expects to be recognized by the outside world to determine her identity. She is too independent and the pursuit of individual goes to the other extreme: the complete betrayal of self-imposed exile abandoning tradition. During this period, Sula has two “epiphanies” that have a decisive influence on her growth. Sula’s second “epiphany” is her mother and neighbor’s conversation, which deeply hurts her. Sula begins to realize that her mother is unreliable, so she separates the love between mother and daughter. The Black Mother is a black culture heritage, and separating the relationship with her mother means cutting the umbilical cord. As a result, she becomes an orphan from a cultural sense. Sula’s first “epiphany” is when she drowned the neighbor boy accidentally; she finds herself unreliable. She holds herself in contempt for tradition, does not keep the customs, laws and regulations, does not believe in any community, and chooses “free sex” as a means of finding herself and personality. She does not want to get married and have children, because she said, “I don’t want to make somebody else. I want to make myself” (Morrison, 1973, p. 118). She prefers self-understanding and self-evaluation, which indicates her refusal to fall into family ties, trying to break the gender barriers. From this perspective, Sula’s self-construction has a positive meaning, but her use of an “amoral” approach to look for independent personality and self-identity dooms her to failure; she can not form a clear self-consciousness and get any spiritual growth.

Black women suffer and endure oppression ring upon ring, on the one hand from the whites, and on the other hand, from the men. Their lack of identity is not only a national identity and gender identity, but also loss of “self”.

Pecola, the protagonist of *The Bluest Eye* who was born with the idea of blacks being despicable due to their skin color being darker than others, grows to be around people who constantly hurt and humiliate her. In this edification and indoctrination, Pecola begins to hate herself and gradually receives the aesthetic standards of the whites, and gradually gets lost in the white culture. *The Bluest Eye* is the full disclosure of black women who suffer sexism in the white dominant society, in which blacks are inferior to whites, invisible and with no right to speak. The blacks’ status is humble, and especially black women’s living conditions are more difficult. Sexism from the outside has made black women’s lives so hard, and discrimination within the family and community makes this even more suffocating. Pecola’s father Cholly is a drunkard who often exerts violent abuse on his family; in his mind, all the past and present grievances should be blamed on his wife and children. Pauline and Pecola are the objects that Cholly maltreats and abuses; it is her father’s abnormal psychology and her mother’s compromise to male supremacy that eventually leads to the tragic fate of Pecola. Sula is a black girl who quests for freedom. Faced with sexism and racism, Sula’s resistance to the patriarchal society in a shocked way and her maverick pursuit of herself have far-reaching significance. But she goes to the extreme and chooses a way that is too aggressive, which not only hurts herself, but also hurts the nation’s female compatriots. She is doomed to be a barbed black rose and ultimately unable to avoid her failed fate.

Black women in long-term oppression and repression gradually get lost in keeping their traditional culture. They accept the white standards of beauty under the oppression of whites and men. If a person has no consciousness, no awakening, he would never stand up and always live in the shadow of others. White
Americans occupy certain advantages in political, economic and cultural aspects, and the black and other ethnic minorities’ social statuses are very low. Pecola is a typical character who has self-hatred and self-denial in this fiction. As Wang Langlang points out, “Her vulnerability is the tragedy of centuries of internalizing negative perceptions constructed by the oppressors, in her case both white people and men” (2010, p. 48). Sula struggles to get out of the white mainstream culture and marriage, “because each had discovered years before that they were neither white nor male, and that all freedom and triumph was forbidden to them, they had set about creating something else to be” (Morrison, 1973, p. 52). When she gets rid of the shackles of whites, she also has completely abandoned her black culture, which is the root of her, and no one could live without it.

**Direction of Black Women’s Identity Building**

Sula and Pecola’s actions have awakened the consciousness of black compatriots in positive aspects, advocating that they inherit and develop their traditional culture and reclaim themselves. This motivates black women compatriots to realize that they have their own identity, characteristics, culture and beauty and should not be assimilated by the white American mainstream culture.

The perseverance of the quest for self-identity and self-cultural root is one of the main themes of Morrison’s novels. In *The Bluest Eye* and *Sula*, Pecola can not find her value because she ignores her own character and beauty, and Sula can not find her own cultural attribution because she completely abandons her black culture. If Pecola knew that she had her own characteristics from the beginning, then all of her tragedy would not have happened. Because Pecola extremely respects the whites and compromises with oppression, she comes to destruction. Even Sula’s resistance has a positive meaning on black women’s identity construction, and her abandonment of her black culture has also led to her defeat.

Morrison believes that individual subjectivity construction and establishment of a national culture are complementary. Only a nation that has a rich cultural heritage will have the ability to educate its people and point them in the right way. Once the national culture is broken or missing, it will lose its foundation and it lacks a sense of belonging, and thus, it will lose the possibility of construction of subjectivity. Therefore, in order to gain recognition, black women must not be separated from their culture and tradition and they should not be bound by tradition. Whenever black women pay attention to cultural traditions and put their ideas and ethnicity in combination to national culture and tradition, they will draw on the advantages of their national culture. Meng and Yao point out, “national cultural identity approval, inheritance of the ethnic cultures and the absorption of the alien culture are the hope of the national survival” (2010, p. 176). Under a multi-cultural background in American society, the entire nation should unite and work together to understand their own history and national culture, to achieve self-orientation and to form a cohesive national characteristic to resist the erosion of white culture, and ultimately to fulfill the liberation of the entire black race.

The black community, for the construction of black women subjectivity, plays a very important role. Hu stated, “…black community, a place where black people can seek help and comfort to mitigate their precarious and unstable situation, can be weakened by the divisions within it” (2007, p. 51). Morrison believes that people can get very powerful life-sustaining nourishment from their community. The black community has many functions that are not only physical, but also mental. In *The Bluest Eye*, Pecola does not integrate into the black community and finally loses herself. The main function of the black community is to protect its members; it’s the only place where an individual’s survival is located in the internal community. Once they leave the community, they will lose their heritage from their ancestors forever. In
Sula, there is an older black representative Eve whose husband leaves home and gets in a desperate case. The people in community make every effort to aid her, and to help her take care of the children on those days when she is absent, helping her to create economic independence. In a sense, the black community is the carrier of the black culture; it gives black people strength, warmth and confidence. Conversely, if black people abandoned their community, they would inevitably go into self-destruction. Sula is a rebellious girl, she stands out from the rest of the community in her individualism, and she ignores all traditions in her community. She cuts off all ties with her community and ultimately dies alone. Bakerman (1994) mentions, “Sula, on the other hand, knows all there is to know about herself because she examines herself, she experiments with herself, she’s perfectly willing to think the unthinkable thing and so on. But she has trouble making a connection with other people” (p. 14). On the contrary, Sula’s friend Nel possesses all the traditional virtues expected of a woman: she is submissive to her mother, obedient to her husband and shows love for her own children.

According to Collins, “Self is not defined as the increased autonomy gained by separating oneself from others. Instead, self is found in the context of family and community” (2000, p. 113). Self-interest does not conflict with community; on the contrary, a self-interest quest serves as the foundation for the ideals of community. The community is the space for the survival of the entire black community, and it plays an essential role in the construction of black nation.

Conclusion

In The Bluest Eye and Sula, Morrison discloses the fact that black women not only break the silence and convey the discourse power, but she also enhances black women’s self-awareness and self-identity building. Morrison depicts the image of those black women who blindly follow the white aesthetic value, abandoning their families and communities, and eventually losing themselves in a tragic fate. Morrison calls for black women to pay attention to their own aesthetic value, to get rid of the shackles of white values and build a sense of the black aesthetic appreciation. If black women get rid of the difficulties of identity construction, they must face their reality, recognize their black physical identity, and maintain the connection with the national culture to build their own identity.

Today, when more and more minority groups and marginal groups quest for their recognition, the exploration of how Toni Morrison, a spokeswoman for a minority group, encourages her people to move from self-hatred to self-regard might be significant since it draws attention to the view that the genuine recognition of minority and marginalized groups is based not upon the abandonment of their uniqueness, but on the maintenance and development. From the perspective of post-colonialism, in the context of globalization when the dominant culture begins to threaten the existence of a marginalized culture, ideological hegemony might appear in any unbalanced relations between different cultures, and it becomes very significant to learn from Morrison, the African American writer, to learn how to move from self-hatred to self-love, or in other words, how to transform from the depreciation of one’s own culture to the affirmation of it.

References


Ecocriticism on *The Old Man and the Sea*

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[Abstract] This paper makes an eco critical reading of *The Old Man and the Sea*, explores the old man Santiago’s ecological awareness from the aspects of his relationship with the natural environment and his attitude to animals, and analyzes his behavior and its consequences, finding that there is contradiction in his awareness and behavior. For this, the paper tries to provide a tentative explanation.

[Keywords] ecocriticism; ecological awareness; behavior; contradiction

Introduction

*The Old Man and the Sea* is one of Hemingway’s best-known stories, and it was the story that enabled him to win both the Pulitzer Prize and the Nobel Prize for literature. For years, scholars have made careful studies on this novella, focusing mainly on its code hero, pessimism, and artistic features, etc.

With the development of ecocriticism, an ecological perspective has been introduced into its study. As Glen A. Love suggests, “that critics may revise the canon to reflect a growing eco consciousness, and that works such as *The Old Man and the Sea*, ‘which engages such issues profoundly,’ may become more widely taught” (Beegel, 2000, p. 293). Since *The Old Man and the Sea* is primarily a story about a man’s fighting with other creatures in nature, to be specific, in the sea, it inevitably deals with the interaction between man and nature. This paper attempts to find out what the man’s relationship with the natural environment is, especially the sea, what the man’s attitude towards animals is, and what his behavior and his consequences are.

Santiago’s Relationship with the Natural Environment

*The Old Man and the Sea* starts with a general introduction of this old fisherman, his dialogue about a baseball match and fishing with the boy Manolin, their eating in the shack, and the old man’s sleeping and dreaming about the lions. It ends with a quite similar picture. The beginning and ending are set in the town with the boy and other fishermen present. Except for this, the rest of the story is about the old man’s fishing for three days and three nights on the sea alone, which consists of over 80% of the total length of the book. In this way, the natural environment is put into the foreground, while the cultural environment of human society retreats to a secondary place.

Santiago’s relationship with the natural environment is first reflected by his good knowledge of the environment, especially the sea. He keeps his direction and time by the sun, the moon and the stars, which are his natural compass and timekeeper. While on the sea, he knows the meaning of the natural signs. “If there is a hurricane you always see the signs of it in the sky for days ahead, if you are at sea” (Hemingway, 2001, p. 55). On the sea, he “looked at the stars and checked his course” (Hemingway, 2001, p. 41). He can even “feel the morning coming” (Hemingway, 2001, pp. 21-22) which shows his close connection and empathy with the environment.

In addition, on man’s relationship with the sea, Santiago has a unique understanding. “He always thought of the sea as *la mar* which is what people call her in Spanish when they love her. …the old man always thought of her as feminine and as something that gave or withheld great favors, and if she did wild
or wicked things it was because she could not help them. The moon affects her as it does a woman, he thought” (Hemingway, 2001, pp. 22-23). This indicates that Santiago views the sea as a woman whom he loves tenderly, and that he knows and accepts the different sides or the many-faceted nature of the sea.

As Rena Sanderson (2000, p. 30) argues, “Santiago knows and accepts the ambivalent double nature of the mother-sea: He ‘always thought of her as feminine and as something that gave or withheld great favours’. In the end, la mar withholds Santiago’s catch, but the old man (unlike some of Hemingway’s other protagonists) blames no one else – not even the cruel mother-sea – but only himself for having gone out ‘too far’ (120)” (p. 192). Arthur Waldhorn (2002, p. 191) also points out, “To Santiago, the sea is not merely a place or an enemy but la mar, a woman to be loved, however cruel she may be. And she can be cruel, as to the birds… But she is what she must be, as a man is. It is the same with all living things…” Viewing the multi-faceted nature of the sea, Santiago still loves it as it is. He even feels the interconnection between all creatures in and on the sea.

This attitude is quite different from those “younger fishermen”, “who used buoys as floats for their lines and had motorboats … spoke of her as el mar which is masculine. They spoke of her as a contestant or a place or even an enemy” (Hemingway, 2001, pp. 22-23). In Santiago’s eyes, the sea is a self-sufficient unity with many different facets which are independent of man’s will and interruption. For instance, when seeing the delicate dark terns, he wonders “why did they make birds so delicate and fine as those sea swallows when the ocean can be so cruel?” (Hemingway, 2001, p. 22). Though the birds are delicate for the sea and he sympathizes with them, man can change neither the birds, nor the sea. Both have their objective way of existence.

Comparatively speaking, Santiago is more like a man of nature rather than a man of culture. His domicile is primitive, and his subsistence is quite simple. He is always barefooted. It is true that Santiago is “an old man fishing using a centuries-old technique and living in harmony with nature” (Fleming, 2000, p. 132). For him, the sea is another home. The cultural environment, the town he lives in and the other fishermen in the town, are friendly to him. Therefore, he does not go out to sea to escape anything, but rather, the sea is an indispensable part of his life, just like the friendly town he lives in. As Allen Josephs (2000, p. 241) believes, “Like Homer’s subjects, Hemingway’s Spanish characters are epic people living in harmony with nature. And Santiago was his most essential creation, the one who lived most completely within nature, brother to the fish.”

With all his knowledge, understanding, love, respect for the sea, not only its gentle and friendly side, but also its cruel and hostile side, and his simple lifestyle, Santiago presents himself as a common member of the natural environment and merges with it harmoniously.

Santiago’s Attitude Toward Animals

Santiago’s attitude toward animals is most typically demonstrated in his interaction with the big marlin. For eighty-four days, Santiago has fished alone without taking a fish. So when he hooks the marlin at noon on the eighty-fifth day, he has a strong desire to catch and kill him. But with his battle with the big marlin, his attitude changes gradually.

On the first day, after a four hour stalemate since he has hooked the marlin, Santiago is thirsty and tired, and wants to know more about this fish, a strong opponent. When the night comes, Santiago begins to pity the great fish. But at the same time, he couldn’t help wondering “what will he bring in the market if the flesh is good” (Hemingway, 2001, p. 42). So far, the big marlin is no more than a good prey in Santiago’s eyes. On the second day, realizing the fish is not tiring after a long battle, he begins to respect
the courage and power of the marlin. “Fish, …I love you and respect you very much. But I will kill you dead before this day ends” (Hemingway, 2001, p. 48). His love and respect for the marlin indicates a man’s reverence for any living creature in the world, while his determination to kill him is a natural reaction of a common fisherman. Later, when the fish gives a sudden lurch and causes his hand to bleed, the old man thinks the fish is hurt and feels the same as he does. Obviously he cares about the fish’s feelings, has empathy for him, and thus identifies himself with it. While eating, Santiago wishes to feed the fish, because “He is my brother” (Hemingway, 2001, p. 53). Until now, his attitude to the marlin has transferred from regarding it as a good prey, a strong opponent, a respectable animal, to an almost equal relative. The identification with the marlin has a significant meaning. It enables Santiago to exceed his identity as a fisherman to become an equal and common member of the ecosphere as any other creature. Furthermore, viewing man and fish as equal, his morality begins to torture him for killing and eating the fish, which starts the prelude to his later reflection on his behavior in nature.

When the third day comes, both the man and the marlin are exhausted. Santiago has wanted to prove man’s spirit and dignity, but now he even gives up his desire to win the battle; he no longer cares who kills who, because his rival is too great and beautiful. “This … recalls an aristocratic code honor in which dying by the hand of a noble opponent is as noble an end as defeating him. Instead of trying to degrade his opponent, Santiago elevates it, accepting with the equal proposition that his death is as worthy an outcome of the struggle as his opponent’s death” (Zhu, 2005, pp. 39-40). This elevation brings Santiago’s relationship with the marlin one step further, from opponents to friends and comrades, and explains why on their way home, when the marlin has been hit by the sharks, he feels “as though he himself were hit” (Hemingway, 2001, p. 99) and why he wants to chop the bill off the marlin to fight the sharks with. The death of this respectable friend causes Santiago to reflect on his behavior. He feels regretful for hooking the fish and going out too far, for which he blames himself four times. He begins to think that “it was a sin to kill the fish” (Hemingway, 2001, p. 101). This almost religious confession shows Santiago’s love, respect and regret for the marlin, which, in his eyes, is not merely a fish, but a conscious, noble and equal member of nature just as he is.

Santiago’s attitude to the sharks is also noteworthy. The first shark is described as “a very big Mako shark built to swim as fast as the fastest fish in the sea and everything about him was beautiful except his jaws. His back was as blue as a sword fish’s and his belly was silver and his hide was smooth and handsome” (Hemingway, 2001, p. 96). Like any other creations of nature, this shark has its special shape, color and feature. Regardless of its harm and danger to man, it can be viewed as a wonder of nature. This is the way Santiago views it, on an objective, detached and equal footing.

To protect his dead marlin, Santiago kills the shark with effort. Recognizing the power and value of the shark, he feels they are just equal animals of nature except that man is better armed. “But I was more intelligent than he was. Perhaps not, he thought. Perhaps I was only better armed” (Hemingway, 2001, p. 99). This recognition enables Santiago to feel the close connection and similarity between the shark and himself and claim equality among creatures in nature. Here, his love and admiration not only go to the marlin, which is considered by many people as a useful prey for man, but also to the cruel sharks, in spite of their danger to man. In his eyes, animals all have an inherent worth, independent from human’s will. To kill the shark, he must find a reason to persuade himself to and he tries to convince himself it is in self-defense. After fighting against several sharks, Santiago hopes the fight could end. Viewing sharks as equal members of the sea who have their inherent beauty and value, he doesn’t mean to fight with them.
endlessly. Although in many people’s minds sharks are cruel and should be killed without any reason, Santiago knows their right and nobility to exist.

Santiago’s attitude to the marlin and sharks shares some common features. First, he believes in equality among man and animals. He cares about the animals’ feelings and gives equal consideration to them. Second, he regards animals as having their inherent value which is independent from their usage to man. Animals do not exist for human beings. Third, he knows there is no hierarchy in all living creatures and all life is divine. Therefore, generally speaking, Santiago’s attitude to animals is eco-centric rather than anthropocentric.

As the previous analysis proves, Santiago regards man as a common member of the biosphere and lives with it harmoniously. He knows the interconnectedness and interdependence of all the creatures in nature, thus he loves the sea as it is and loves the sea animals as well. He understands that nature has its inherent value and its independent existence regardless of man’s love or hatred. He can transcend his identity as a man, to extend his self-identification to animals, and even to the whole non-human world. His ecological awareness can be summarized as non-anthropocentric.

**Santiago’s Behavior in Nature and its Consequences**

At the beginning, Santiago plans to go far out to get a big fish, and so he does. He sets off in the dark of that morning; he has his four baits set out before sun rises; he keeps his lines straighter. Santiago is fully determined and prepared to get a good fish that day. Arthur Waldhorn’s (2002) argument further proves this, “Some of his resolve derives from pride in his skill… Like a fine bullfighter, he is methodical, patient, alert, and unshakably determined” (pp. 190-191).

At noon, when a big marlin bites his bait, Santiago demonstrates “revolutionary patience” with the big marlin (Williams, 1999, p. 11), which is gradually fully exhibited through his durative battle with him. With his forehead cut by his straw hat and himself thirsty, the old man tries only to endure. Having stayed with the marlin for half a day, the old man doesn’t want to give up. At night, he ties a sack to cushion the line to prepare himself for a persistent fight with the marlin. He has thought of the baseball match twice, but he quickly controls himself and draws his attention back to the fishing. To accomplish “the thing that I was born for” (Hemingway, 2001, p. 44), Santiago is fully determined, prepared, patient and concentrated. He does the best a man can do. Actually, he does more than that. Before the daylight of the second day, he cuts two lines, so that he can have six reserve coils of line for the big marlin. He thinks of cutting the third one. To have enough energy and line for fishing the marlin, he gives up chances of fishing others. The work in the dark makes him bleed, which might be an omen of the even furious and destructive fight between them in the future, but the old man does not want to stop now. He claims, “Fish, …I’ll stay with you until I am dead” (Hemingway, 2001, p. 46). Santiago seems to admire this logic: “the dedication to timeless principles of behavior at the expense of all concern for material success or survival.” and he “is about to demonstrate this ‘strange’ vision – this ‘trick,’ or psychological device for survival – during his ordeal with the great fish” (Sylvester, 2000, p. 244).

On the second day, the old man’s hands are injured, but he sees the marlin for the first time since he hooks it. With all those hardships and growing love for the marlin, he decides to continue killing him. He thinks, “Although it is unjust, …But I will show him what a man can do and what a man endures” (Hemingway, 2001, p. 60). He surrenders all his love, respect for the marlin to his pride, spirit and dignity as a man. The third day sees a decisive battle between the man and the marlin, and proves what a man can do. The old man is tired deep into his bones, falls faint and dizzy several times. The marlin circles and
hits the wire several times, and seems to be mad driven by the pain. When the marlin comes out of water, the old man tries to pull him over, but in vain. He keeps trying and encouraging himself. At last, he makes it. He finally kills the fish, lashes him alongside, steps the mast and sets sail for home. In spite of his love and respect for the marlin, the old man kills him determinedly step-by-step, enduring the ordeal and even adventuring his own life, “never worried when a hooked fish carried him far from the safety of daylight and land” (Plath, 1999, p. 76).

The coming of the sharks puts the old man and the marlin into a desperate situation. He fights the sharks with his knife, the two oars, the tiller and the short club all the way home. The old man finally regrets going out too far to kill the marlin. He realizes, “You did not kill the fish only to keep alive and to sell for food...You killed him for pride and because you are a fisherman” (Hemingway, 2001, p. 101). This honest confession reflects Santiago’s reflection on his behavior and its consequences. He, who believes that man and animals are equal and that all life is divine, behaves in a way that man’s pride and dignity are much more important than animals’ life. His behavior is just opposite to his belief. No one knows how many sharks he has killed. But if he did not kill the marlin, which seduced so many sharks, they should not have to lose their lives that way. He, anyway, has no right to kill them. If he is not so eager to prove man’s pride, spirit and dignity, he might stop anywhere. The further he goes, the more serious damage he causes both to himself and to nature. This is an internecine consequence for both man and fish. With the marlin only a skeleton and himself exhausted, he realizes, he is defeated.

**Conclusion**

On the one hand, Santiago presents himself as a common and equal member of the natural environment and lives in harmony with it. The natural environment, in his eyes, has its independent existence and inherent value. Santiago regards man and animals as equal and animals having their inherent value. He also thinks that there is no hierarchy in all living creatures and that all life is divine. His ecological awareness bears the thoughts of eco-centrism, and is non-anthropocentric. On the other hand, he makes full preparation and every effort to conquer the marlin and sharks, or maybe the sea. He behaves in a fearless way by enduring this ordeal and going out beyond all people, without caring about the result of his actions. As a result, the marlin is destroyed, so many sharks are killed, and he is exhausted and even almost dead. This is an internecine consequence for both nature and Santiago. Santiago’s behavior forms a contradiction with his non-anthropocentric ecological awareness. For him, the marlin is not merely a property, but also his realization of himself. With all his love, respect for the marlin and nature, the old man chooses the way of conquering them to realize himself, and all become the victims of man’s dignity.

Hemingway reveals that the development of man’s ecological awareness does not ensure a proper behavior in dealing with man-nature relationship, and the man’s behavior in nature does not necessarily accord with his ecological awareness. Throughout his life, he experienced this contradiction himself. As a lover of nature, he also kept hobbies such as hunting and fishing all his life. This contradiction might be his self-reflection on his behavior in dealing with man-nature relationship.

Until now, with the global environment movement developing for over forty years, and people’s ecological awareness being improved, the environment is continuing to deteriorate. Professor Buell (1995) expressed his concern over this, “Awareness of the potential gravity of environmental degradation far surpasses the degree to which people effectively care about it. …For more than a century the United States has been at once a nature-loving and resource-consuming nation” (p. 4). This paradox, as Buell points out, is never unique to America but an exaggeration of a modern syndrome worldwide. With the
world-wide environment protection movement flourishing, this finding may remind people that to effectively protect the environment, improving people’s ecological awareness is far from enough, more measures should be taken, especially practical ones.

References


The Reception and Study of Jane Austen in China: 1978-2013

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[Abstract] This paper outlines the developing orbit of Jane Austen’s reception and study in China over the past 35 years, from 1979 to 2013, based on the statistics from a database in CNKI, including the journal classification, essay number, and even the scholars’ number, fame, age and professional titles. By analyzing these elements, we can see great achievements have been made in the study of Jane Austen. However, some problems still exist in the study of Jane Austen and need further efforts from the younger scholars.

[Keywords] Jane Austen; study in China; recovery phase; rapid development phase; developing orbit

Introduction
Jane Austen (1775-1817) began her Eastern journey into China in the 1920s when Ouyang Lan (1927), a young lecturer of literature in Peking University, first mentioned her as one of the greatest women novelists in Britain in the 19th century in A Brief History of British Literature (Ouyang, 1927). So far, 90 years of history has passed that has witnessed four different Chinese historical periods, including Two War Periods (Anti-Japanese Invaders War and Liberation War) (1927-1949), Socialist Revolution and Construction Period (1945-1965), the Great Cultural Revolution Period (1966-1976) and the Reform and Opening Up Period (1978-2013). Because Jane Austen was “unfitting” for the dominant ideologies in the first three periods, her reception correspondingly can be characterized by marginalization, rejection, and even criticism (Huang, 2012). Few readers and scholars focused themselves upon Jane Austen and only a few academic papers have been published, with Chen Quan’s The Comical Elements in Jane Austen’s Works (1935) as a representative. Within 35 years since the opening policy was adopted in 1978 to 2013, English has become the most widely accepted foreign language in China and has the largest number of learners in the world, which lays a solid basis for acceptance of Jane Austen in China. In addition, all of her six novels, successively translated into Chinese, have attracted a large quantity of readers. In this period, a tremendous quantity of achievements in studying Jane Austen has been made, and over 2000 essays, including both academic papers and diploma theses, have been published according to the survey of CNKI. This shows Jane Austen has become one of the most popular foreign writers in China and tremendous quantities of her studies has been made.

The Recovery Phase (1978-2008) of the Study of Jane Austen in China
Jane Austen who was always labeled with “revisionist poisonous grass” began to be focused on by those Chinese scholars in the literary circles after the successful holding of the Third Plenary Session of the 11th Central committee of the CPC in December, 1978. In 1979, Wang Yunman and Fu Shufan jointly published a short and introductory article, titled “It’s Good to Write the Biographies for Famous Writers” in Reading Books, one of the most popular and famous journals in China. Some parts of this paper introduced Jane Austen’s realistic techniques in writing and analyzed her popularity in China. “Although Jane Austen cannot be considered the most important and most influential writer in British realism, she has an obvious uniqueness of her own. In my opinion, this is why all of her works are popular with readers of all ages and all over the world” (Wang & Fu, 1979). This was only a short book review with only one page, but it is still
considered the earliest positive comment upon Jane Austen after the ending of “Great Cultural Revolution”. Generally, 1978 was considered the beginning of the study of foreign literature and, of course, the study of Jane Austen in the new era. From 1978 to 2013, the 35 years in between have witnessed the change of the study of Jane Austen.

Based on the statistics during the 35 years from 1978 to 2013 from the CNKI (China National Knowledge Infrastructure) database, a chart of the developing orbit of Jane Austen’s study in China has been drawn, see Figure 1. In the first 30 years, from 1978 to 2008, an initial progress was only made – about 152 papers were published, or 5 each year in average with little or no difference between years. Comparatively, in the second phase (2008-2013), more achievements were made than in the first period, with 2008 as an obvious turning point. As estimated, the total number of papers published rose sharply to 1191, or 238 each year in average. In addition, younger scholars participated into the study of Jane Austen. Details about the study of Jane Austen in China can be seen in Figure 1.

![The Changes of Jane Austen's Study in China from 1979-2013](image)

*Figure 1. The Developing Orbit of the Study of Jane Austen in China from 1979-2013*

Despite the limited quantity of academic achievements and of participating researchers in the first 30 years, especially compared with those in the second phase, the academic level of these papers, the authority of the academic journals, and even of those researchers and scholars can no doubt be regarded as the highest in the entire history of the study of Jane Austen in China. Those journals which have always carried Austen-study papers include *Literature Review, Theoretical Studies in Literature and Art, Reading Books, Foreign Literature Review, Foreign Literature Studies* and so on. They are considered to be the top-level journals concerning “foreign” literature in China and enjoy very high reputations for their high-quality contributions. Despite the difficulty in publishing papers in these journals, Zhu Hong, Xiao Qian, Yang Jiang, Wu Jingrong, Sun Zhili, Huang Mei, and Zhu Lin, etc., are the most important contributors of Jane Austen studies to them. They are the greatest experts, widely known in China, and have published high-quality and high-level academic papers and essays on Jane Austen, some of which are still frequently cited and used as references. They have made unprecedented contributions to the study of Jane Austen and have greatly given a big push for her popularization in China.

Zhu Hong (1931-2010), an early female critic in Jane Austen study, was the first to propose rehabilitation of Jane Austen from marginalization and she volunteered to give her positive comments in *Pride of and Prejudice against Jane Austen* (Zhu, 1982). Xiao Qian (1910-1999), a world-renowned journalist, and successful translator, mentioned Jane Austen in his introductory journal about the Sino-US cultural exchange. “Grace M. Boynton was ever a teacher of British and American literature in Peking University and taught Jane Austen’s *Pride and Prejudice* in her classes” (Xiao, 1982). The China-renowned
female translator, literary critic and playwright, Yang Jiang (1911-), also chose Jane Austen as her study object and highly appreciated “her offering food for the soul” (1982). Wu Jingrong (1915-1994), a famous lexicographer and English educator, was always interested in Jane Austen and her novels during his study in Britain in the 1940s and introduced, in detail, Jane Austen and her six novels into China, highly praising “her artistic gifts as humorist and comedian” (Wu, 1993). Sun Zhili (1942-), a famous literary translator and critic, played the leading role of studying Jane Austen in China. He has devoted his life to the translation of her six novels into Chinese, which were published successively in China as follows, see Table 1:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Jane Austen’s Novels</th>
<th>Publishing Press</th>
<th>Publication Time</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sense and Sensibility</td>
<td>Zhejiang Literature and Arts Press</td>
<td>1984</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Persuasion</td>
<td>Jiangsu People’s Press</td>
<td>1984</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Northanger Abby</td>
<td>Hunan People’s Press</td>
<td>1986</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pride and Prejudice</td>
<td>Yilin Press</td>
<td>1990</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emma</td>
<td>Yilin Press</td>
<td>2001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mansfield Park</td>
<td>Yilin Press</td>
<td>2004</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

All of these translations can be regarded as the most authoritative and popular of all the published Chinese versions in China and can boast millions of Chinese readers. Meanwhile, he has also published more than five essays about Jane Austen herself and her novels, and also thought highly of Jane Austen’s role in British literary history, “the realistic descriptions of daily life in all her novels has laid a solid foundation for coming climax of 19th century realism in Britain” (Sun, 1983). So far, Sun Zhili has produced the greatest influence upon Chinese researchers for a long time in China. Huang Mei (1950-), a researcher at the Institute of Foreign Literature in Chinese Academy of Social Sciences, one of the most important and authoritative researchers in literary studies, has been studying British literature, including Jane Austen, Virginia Woolf and other modernist writers. She has published essays like *Women and Novels* (Huang, 1987), and *Awkward Fanny Price in Speech* (Huang, 1990) and so on. She has almost devoted her life to the study of Jane Austen and has become of the most important researchers in China. They have been regarded as the first generation in the study of Jane Austen and despite being fewer in number, their achievements have been so far surpassed by no one.

Additionally, there are also those who started their academic career by studying Jane Austen and later became famous and influential experts in foreign literature studies in China, including Hou Weirui, Wang bin, Pan Weixin, Lin Wenchen and so on. They got into college by the severe entrances in 1977 and 1978 after the rehabilitation of Gaokao (China National Entrance Examination of Higher Education). They received a regular and systematic education of foreign language and literature. However, they showed great enthusiasm for Jane Austen and her works, and selected Austen as their field of study and orientation. Hou (1981) studied Jane Austen from her language art and revealed her everlasting charms to Chinese readers. Wang (1983) discussed the characteristics of her Romantic novels which were the real reasons for her attractions. Pan (1989) pointed out that in Jane Austen’s novels, women played the important roles in social life and strongly hoped to enjoy equal social position and fair treatment. Lin began his studies of Jane Austen by focusing himself upon her irony and considered it to be the highest integrity of both artistic forms and ideological viewpoints (1999). These academicians introduced new theories into their studies from philosophy, socio-economics, linguistics and even history, except literature. They published many high-level essays about the study of Jane Austen and were considered the second generation of Jane Austen study.
in China, serving the connecting link between the preceding old generation and the following new younger generation.

**The Rapid Development Phase (2008-2013) of the Study of Jane Austen in China**

Pride and Prejudice (1813) was the earliest novel induced in China and it began to be accepted by Chinese readers, see Figure 2. So far, over 130 Chinese versions of Pride and Prejudice have been published, which is the most of all of her 6 novels. Next is Emma (1815) and Sense and Sensibility (1811), both of which have more than 30 Chinese versions. Coming in fourth is Mansfield Park (1814) with nine Chinese versions. And last in number are Northanger Abbey (1818) and Persuasion (1818) with 7 and 6 Chinese versions respectively. So many Chinese versions of Jane Austen’s novels have, no doubt, proven that she is the most popular and most influential women writer in China. Many young scholars prefer to choose Jane Austen and her 6 novels as themes for their studies, but the proportions are quite different. According to the statistics this author obtained from CNKI in January, 2014, Jane Austen herself has produced the most quantity of papers, outnumbering all other aspects, as seen in Figure 2. As the chart shows, 917 papers concerning Jane Austen have been published and next to it is Pride and Prejudice, of which 847 papers have been published.

![Figure 2. The Quantity of Academic Achievements of Jane Austen and Her Novels](image)

In China, the multiplication of Jane Austen’s studies can be summed up into the following aspects. First, is the study of Jane Austen’s standpoint on love and marriage, including her attitude toward the sense and sensibility of love, her feminism, and female awareness, her writing stands and so on, which are the focus of Chinese scholars’ interests. About the sense and sensibility of love, the majority support the former and strongly oppose the latter. People think that love is the mutual basis for both sides and sensibility becomes an obstacle for marriage which should be overcome. Jane Austen’s feminism, based on gender equity, tries to rebel against the masculine society. However, her aims are realized, according to Jane Austen, by love and marriage. Her heroines, compared with Jane Eyre by Charlotte Bronte, lack strong protest and independent awareness. Second, is the study of the contents of her works, including the analysis of characters and their relationships, and the analysis of plots and of her novels. These are the most interesting topics for Chinese scholars and show that heroines are cleverer than those heroes in those novels.
which almost always end with happy endings. Third, is the artistic components of her novels, concerning narrative techniques, rhetoric skills, language art, irony, comic elements, monologues and so on, which greatly increase the artistic charm of her works. Fourth, is the comparative study of Jane Austen and her works with those in Britain simultaneously, and in some other countries, such as Zhang Ailing and Bing Xin in China. The final is her role in the history of British literature and her contributions. Nowadays, more and more young scholars are engaging themselves in the study of Jane Austen from interdisciplinary viewpoints, greatly enriching her study in China.

In this phase, Jane Austen has boasted a tremendous quantity of readers and researchers in China who were born in the 1960s, the 1970s and the 1980s. They are graduates of an English major from college, or of English-relevant majors, such as world literature and comparative literature, foreign literature studies and Chinese education of foreign students and so on. Most of them are engaging in teaching and studying foreign literature, and English teaching. So far, at the beginning of the 21st century, Jane Austen and her novels have boasted over 1200 researchers, 87.8% of whom are young and have higher diplomas. Those, born in during the 1970s and 1980s, have gradually developed into the main power for Jane Austen’s study, tending to be younger at age, illustrating that Austen’s study is more flourishing and has no lack of successors and followers, see Figure 3.

![Figure 3. The Percentage of Age of the Scholars of Jane Austen’s Study in China](image)

Based on the database of CNKI, the Percentage of Gender of Jane Austen study was drawn in January, 2014, see Figure 4. As we have seen, the proportion of female researchers is overwhelmingly higher than that of the male, and the former occupies 89%, while the latter only holds 11%. This reveals that the female tends to be more interested in Jane Austen and shows a female preponderance over males in gender in China. Firstly, Jane Austen’s novels can be considered more readable. Characterized by concise words and simple sentence structures, her works just need the student’s mastery of 8000 word vocabulary or so, which is within the limit of immediate-level English learners in China. Not only English majors, but also non-English majors from colleges can read the English versions of her novels without much difficulty. So, her popularity by Chinese readers ranks first among all the foreign writers. The second reason women prefer Jane Austen over men is the ordinary and daily life depicted in her novels which women scholars are familiar with and strongly hope for. The whole reality of middle-class bourgeoisie is usually focused on the ordinary families in the vicinity. She usually began her novels discussing the heroines’ growth process, that
is, love-marriage-self-attainment from the analysis of their personalities and their conflicting relationships with the society. Heroes in her novels were usually objects of mockery and the rest of the society was proved stupid or foolish when her novels ended. Comic and pleasant elements are throughout her novels, providing humorous and enjoyable atmospheres. These women readers preferred reading her novels as if they were the heroines in the context of the novels, which of course can lessen their psychological anxieties and help them forget their unsatisfactory living conditions. Her novels, in a real sense, help readers to seek psychological compensations for their hope for better life.

![Percentage of Gender](image)

*Figure 4. The Percentage of Gender of the Researchers of Jane Austen’s Study*

**Conclusion**

Despite great achievements the study of Jane Austen, some problems still exist, needing an urgent solution. Firstly, the study level on the whole is not high. Those with high professional titles like professors and associate professors are comparatively fewer than those with lower and intermediate titles such as assistants and lecturers. Fewer influential scholars have taken up this study field while younger scholars are dominating in this area of study. Secondly, the singleness of publication still exists. So far, essays are the overwhelming majority of academic achievements on Jane Austen, and fewer creative and original essays can be seen. No monograph has ever been published. The journals carrying these achievements have not been so authoritative as expected, and most of them are special or supplementary issues. Therefore, further efforts of Chinese young scholars need to produce interdisciplinary and high-level studies of Jane Austen in the future.

**References**


The Influence of Money on Marriage in *Pride and Prejudice*

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**Abstract**  
*Pride and Prejudice* is the masterpiece of a British writer Jane Austen. The unique charm of this novel with exuberant vitality attracts readers of different generations. The novel shows the influence of money in love and marriage by a few marriages of young people under the capitalist conditions.

**Keywords** marriage; wealth; love

**Introduction**

Marriage, which attracts wide attention, has been a topic in human society. In fact, marriage is a blending of people’s different opinions and attitudes towards marriage and family. Men and women, get to know each other and then fall in love with each other, and naturally choose marriage at last. Everyone is longing for a marriage with love. However, not every couple who love each other very much can get married, and will live happily after marriage. Historically, there are many factors that can affect a marriage, among which wealth can be a very important factor.

Actually, throughout Chinese and foreign history, the majority of marriages are based on an economic basis. Different people have different attitudes with money, so the importance of money may be different. Therefore, the degree that money influences marriage also varies from person to person. However, a correct attitude toward money can bring promotion and sublimation to marriage.

**Brief Introduction to the Writer and the Novel**

**Jane Austen**  
Jane Austen, a famous British novelist, is one of the most outstanding female writers in the history of English literature. She comes from a British family, her father was a pastor, and she had a good family condition. She received a good education since her childhood. Jane Austen wrote six novels in her life, with the publishing of her first novel *Sense and Sensibility* in 1811, followed by *Pride and Prejudice* in 1813, *Mansfield Park* and *Emma* in the next two years, and *Northanger Abbey*, as well as *Persuasion* which are signed in the real name of the author in 1818, two years after her death (Ding, 2012).

Jane Austen was born and lived in the rural town, and never got married, so she had a relatively small social scope. The persons whom she can mainly contacted daily were some priests and the small landlords. To this point, the reader does not have difficulty to experience her works. In the six novels of Jane Austen, there is hardly any sort of major social contradictions. Her works show readers the true environment around her. All her works can give full expression to her inherent meticulous and precise observation, combined with her unique female exquisiteness and her quietness, which make her work relaxed and humorous. Like a trickle, her works infiltrates the reader’s mind and lets the readers feel the wise woman’s thoughts insensibly.

The peculiar advantages in the works of Jane Austen make them have an extensive reader base and strong vitality. *Pride and Prejudice* is her most successful and well-known novel. This work was completed based on Jane Austen herself. Austin and her elder sister have a good relationship. Moreover, her first love...
is also failed because of some reasons of money; her lover married a wealthier women. So in this work, Jane Austen made several different marriage arrangements, and at the same time, depicts the most ideal state of marriage in her mind, which moved her readers of different generation deeply, and gave the work an enduring charm. On March 1, 2007, “World Book Day”, the British readers spoke highly of this novel, and chose it as one of ten indispensable books.

**The Main Plot in Pride and Prejudice**

*Pride and Prejudice* is the masterpiece of British writer Jane Austen, and it is one of he most influential works on feminist literature (Huang, 2013). The work takes the consistent style of Jane Austen. There are no big social contradictions, nor a fierce character. Small landlords, the priest, and the petty bourgeoisie are the main subjects of this novel. In this work, Mr. Bennett’s choosing husbands for his five daughters is chosen as the background and clue, in order to show the relationship between marriage and money in her age. The 19th century British women’s life and social status are almost limited to home and family life (Austen, 1993, p. 218). “Though this theme of the predominant money consideration in love and marriage is sometimes barely hinted at or indirectly suggested, it is nevertheless there, and this shows the author’s sharp insight into the very essence of the aristocratic bourgeois English society of her time – the primary importance of cash nexus” (Chen, 2004).

Mr. Bennett is a squire with a good economic condition, and married his wife because of her beauty when he was young. After getting married, the couple gave birth to five daughters, but no sons. According to some British law, girls cannot inherit the heritage after their father’s death. The property will be inherited by a distant relative called Collins. Therefore, Mrs. Bennett wants her daughters to find their partners with good economic conditions. At the same time, a young rich lone noble, Mr. Bingley, take a holiday in the manor of the town. In the social dance ball of the small town, Bingley falls in love with Bennett’s eldest daughter, Jane, at first sight, which makes Mrs. Bennett overjoyed. In order to contribute to the marriage, Mrs. Bennett did a lot of ridiculous actions. Mr. Darcy, being a good friend of Bingley accompanied him to spend the holiday, is discontented with these actions. Darcy is also a lone noble, much richer than Bingley, but he is very proud. Mr. Bennett’s second daughter, Elizabeth, is a lively and lovely girl, but she has strong self-esteem. Darcy is deeply impressed by her independence and self-esteem. But she hates his arrogance. There are some misunderstandings between them because of Jane and Bingley’s marriage, which makes Elizabeth refuse Darcy’s proposal. At the same time, another daughter, Lydia Bennett, discounts the entire family because of misconduct, which makes the relationship between Elizabeth and Darcy even worse. At last, in order to marry Elizabeth, Darcy gives up his arrogance and helps Bingley and Jane get married successfully, and also preserving the Bennett family reputation by helping Lydia. Finally, these efforts have moved Elizabeth. She put down the prejudice against Darcy, and accepts him.

**The Relationship Between Marriage and Money in Pride and Prejudice**

**The Effect of Money in the Marriages of the Book**

Throughout the whole work, there are different effects of money in the various characters’ marriages, almost in every couple. Some marriages are even determined completely by the money. In the novel, Collins is a distant relative who is going to inherit the estate. He is a dull, boring, and self-righteous person. He proposed to Elizabeth at the suggestion of Mrs. Bennett after arriving at the Bennett family home. However, he doesn’t love, or even know Elizabeth. When he proposed, he told Elizabeth that she would never find a fiancé better than him. He is so self-righteous that he thinks he can get a good wife easily because of the
inheritance of the property. In his heart, there is never a so-called “love”. Charlotte, Elizabeth’s best friend, unexpectedly chooses Collins. She is considering the economic and realistic reasons – at least, Mr. Collins is a man with a good economic condition.

Vikan is a typical opposite character in the novel. He pursues luxury life, spends all his inheritance, and then cheats Darcy’s sister, wanting to get her 30,000 pounds’ heritage. He leaves quickly, soon after finding that he is unable to get the money, which brings great trauma to Darcy’s sister. After cheating Lydia, he doesn’t want to take responsibility. When Darcy shows up, he even tries to blackmail 10,000 pounds. So the marriage of Lydia and Vikan is entirely determined by money. Vikan’s personal marriage is thoroughly swayed by money, and he even uses his own marriage for blackmail. This character deeply reflects the influence of the capitalist values in marriage.

Jane and Bingley have almost the same character. Bingley is rich, but easy-going. He has never worried about money, and he does not look down upon on Jane because she is poor. Jane is a relatively simple person in pursuing love – he is the person she likes and who has a certain economic foundation. As a result, their views on money and marriage are basically identical. Eventually, they get married successfully.

Elizabeth is a girl who has an independent personality, and refuses to succumb to money. When Collins asked her to marry him, and tempted her with his economic conditions, she resolutely refused him. In the face of a marriage proposal from such a rich young aristocrat, Darcy, she also rejects him because of her independent personality, which shows that she is a woman with self-respect. As for her, marriage and love can not be influenced by money. On the other hand, Darcy, who was born into a wealthy noble family, has quite a strong sense of superiority. He also shows his superiority when he first proposes to Elizabeth. After being refused, instead, he is more aware of Elizabeth’s beauty. This is the reason why Darcy puts the money factor away and they face each other without any other factors. Eventually he wins Elizabeth’s understanding.

The Influence of Money in Marriage
All of these marriages reflect people’s lives and fates of that time (Chen, 2007, p. 74). The characters in the novel do not have identical views about money; the degree of marriages affected by money is also not the same. However, almost all of their marriages are affected by money. “It is a truth universally acknowledged that a single man in possession of a good fortune must be in want of a wife” (Austen, 1993). In fact, the truth is just the opposite – a lady without a good fortune must be in want of a husband (Chen, 2007).

In this fiction, the wealthy bachelor Bingley inherited a legacy of 100,000 pounds. His annual income is as high as 5000 pounds, so he can rent a splendid manor, and become the focus of social dances, getting to know Jane. His sister sets up barriers for them because of his money and status. Bingley’s sister deems that Darcy’s sister is more suitable for him in social status, which will also contribute to her relationship with Darcy. Jane also was once cheated by Bingley’s sister’s point of view. She loves Bingley, and believes that Bingley loves her as well, however, she lacks confidence because of money. Although Charlotte and Collins do not marry each other for money only, it still can be seen there is an importance of money in their marriage when she is having a talk with Elizabeth. She is satisfied with their economic situation after getting married, and runs her family carefully.

Darcy, as a feudal lord from the upper class of the society, is very rich. But his wealth also gives birth to his arrogance, and because of which Elizabeth gains a bad first impression of him. He also sees the love between Jane and Bingley from the perspective of a man of wealth, and nearly breaks them up and they love each other deeply. This makes it unable for Elizabeth to forgive him. Fortunately, Darcy realizes all
of this and remedies it. He is blackmailed by the man he is not willing to see without protest only because he loves Elizabeth. This also proves that, in his mind, love and marriage are more important than that of money. However, money still plays an important role in his marriage to Elizabeth. Without giving Vikan 10,000 pounds, which is a large amount of money, he won’t promise to marry Lydia. At that time, under the British society’s moral codes, the five daughters of the Bennet family will be affected.

The combination of Darcy and Elizabeth is recommended and approved by the writer, Jane Austen. At the same time, readers are delighted with their detached secular love. In their initial communication, Elizabeth refused Darcy, which reflects her self-esteem and confidence, but this also reflects the author’s idea of the perfect woman who is supposed to be a feminist who is courageous enough to struggle, and to resist.

The Main Characters’ views of Marriage

**Darcy: Marriage is the Merger of Love and Respect**

The combination of Darcy and Elizabeth is obviously an ideal marriage. As for Darcy, his wealth and high social status give him a stable and rich life. Obviously, his demand for marriage is much higher which is mainly to meet a need of higher level, and mainly to meet his sense of belonging and needs of love. Elizabeth has a charming appearance, lightsome posture, and behaves naturally and gracefully, which attracts Darcy very much. However, Darcy looks down on her family and their social status, so when he proposes, pride can be easily seen from his behavior and words. This irritates Elizabeth and she refuses his proposal, and points out his arrogance as well. The failure of his proposal makes Darcy realize his shortcoming, so he accepts her accusation and corrects it frankly. Finally, he won Elizabeth’s love.

**Bingley: The Pursuit of True Love in Marriage**

The marriage of Bingley and Jane is a secular combination of a beautiful woman and a rich man. Bingley is a wealthy bachelor, and Jane is almost the gentlest, sweet, modest, naive and beautiful girl of this period. Bingley falls in love with her because of her modest personality that matches her attractive appearance. She is kind, virtuous, beautiful, generous, gentle and patient. She is a person of sentimentality, but also reserved and innocent. She observes everyone’s merit. In addition, she is always praising others wholeheartedly. That is the basis of Jane’s happiness, as well as a critical factor for Bingley to find his true love. However, Bingley is too squeamish and lacks confidence. Though he loves Jane at first sight, he hesitates as to whether he should tell her his love because he is not sure about Jane’s feelings about him. At the same time, Bingley’s younger sister does not want a poor sister-in-law, which she feels is embarrassing to Bingley. It has to be admitted that love is powerful. Jane and Bingley got married happily finally despite of a variety of obstacles. Without doubt, their marriage is perfect as a traditional marriage at that time with everything, including property status, and pretty appearance, as well as a gentle characteristic.

**Conclusion**

There are a lot of novels talking about marriage in British Literature, but scarcely could an author, like Austen, expose the money-essence of capitalism of the marriage system so deeply (Huang, 2013). In the work of *Pride and Prejudice*, Jane Austen, deeply reflects on the state of British society at that time. The reality principle “involves conscious, logical thinking, and it allows us to delay gratification in order to get on with everyday life” (Berry, 2008). Money occupies an important position in society and interpersonal communication, and deeply affects every aspect of social life, including marriage. From the novel’s
depiction of a few marriages, people can clearly see the reality of marriage under early capitalism. Money plays an indispensable role in the marriage at this time.

References
The Tragic American Dream in *Death of a Salesman*

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**Abstract** The purpose of the paper is to explore the tragic American dream demonstrated in this play. It starts by tracing the origin and development of the American dream, and discusses the tragic elements in the American dream portrayed in the works of American writers. Then by analyzing the influence of American dream on the characters, the author explains the causes of the tragic American dream in this play from personal and social sides.

**Keywords** tragedy; the American dream; individualism; influence

**Introduction**

Arthur Miller is a famous play writer in the 20th century. The *Death of a Salesman* is Miller’s most representative work, which is a tragedy that shows the pressing reality and illusion of the modern society. The famous play has drawn a lot of attention by many readers and critics. By consulting CNKI net, the writer found that there are 77 articles about *Death of a Salesman* from 2005 to 2015. Most of the articles are about the tragic fate of the main character Willy Loman, Arthur Miller’s views on modern concept of tragedy, and the tragic beauty of the *Death of a Salesman*. Moreover, almost none of the articles under the survey analyze the tragic American dream in the *Death of a Salesman*, and that is the question this paper wants to explore. This paper will explore not only the tragic significance of this play, but analyze every important role and plot to give readers a better understanding of it from the perspective of American dream.

**American Dream**

*The Origin and Development of the American Dream*

In a broad sense, the American dream is referred to as a broad cultural ethos that entails a promise to a goal of material success (Deng & Tan, 1997). In its original sense, the American dream is the idea of a chance for all; it is the advancement in a career or society without regarding one’s origin. In its popular sense, Wang Fei (2012) points out the American dream takes materialistic success as its target. The American dream is achieved by hard-work, risk-taking and sacrifice. However, Jin Hualiang (2008) thinks pursuing it is a perfect way for both native-born Americans and American immigrants to achieve personal fulfillment and self-actualization so they even can realize their American dreams.

The origin of the American Dream, a term coined by James Truslow Adams’s book *The Epics of the America* (1931), was born of the old world’s government and economic models, from the American Revolutionary War well into the later half of the eighteenth century. And the nineteenth century, due to having been unclaimed of the American’s physical resources, there was springing up the promise of land and perfect investment in land or industry. In the American dream, money is usually associated with success. As Xiao Xuenong (2004) mentioned, the enormous of great natural resources and the fast development of American industry made it possible for the settlers to achieve wealth.

The living conditions in Europe and the hope of a better standard of living in America led thousands of immigrants to go to the new world. The destitute western Europeans running away from the potato
famines in Ireland, the Highland clearances in Scotland, and the aftermath of Napoleon in the rest of Europe went to America to escape their old lives. They had heard about the American dream and hoped for a happy life. Yang Cuiping (2005) regards the American Dream as an important factor not only in the Gold Rush of the mid to late 1800s, but also in the waves of immigration throughout that century and the following.

The American dream is a special cultural phenomenon of American society, and it’s an important factor to understand the American culture. James Trustlow Adams’s book The Epic of America (1931) states that the “American dream is a beautiful dream that there is a band in which every person should have better, richer and happily life, which opportunities are equal for everyone and anyone can achieve their dreams according to ability or achievements”.

The traditional American dream is a kind of promise in which all American immigrants are able to enjoy liberty, land, equality and equal opportunities. But from the American Civil War, especially since 1900, this traditional idea has become distorted into a dream of commercial success, and over the course of history, the meaning of the “American Dream” has changed. It becomes an unrealistic ideal that puts too much emphasis on material occupations. And this kind of occupying cannot satisfy mental demands, which cause the distortion and alienation of humanity. Thus, the American dream is not just pursuing cars and high wages merely, but it is a dream of social order. “There every man and every woman should be able to achieve the highest achievement by their money, positions and possessions” (Yin, 2009, p. 113).

**The Tragic Elements in American Dream**

Tragedy is one of the most important literary genres, which were Greek’s contribution to human civilization. For a long time, it had been used to only handle the nobles and their lives. It was believed that the tragic hero should be one of noble birth. Since the earliest Greek time, tragedy was not sustained to tell about the lower social classes or average men. Some people even proclaim that the exalted art of tragedy died with the disappearance of the noble class. But in the *Death of a Salesman*, the author shows that a common man without any high social statues may also be a suitable hero for tragedy (Yu, 2007). The main reason why a common man becomes a hero of the tragedy is because there are tragic elements that exist in the American dream. The tragic elements in the American dream include the tragic elements on the social side and the tragic elements on the personal side.

In fact, the American dream has two versions. Originally, in the early period of American history, the American dream was supported by those such as Benjamin Franklin. They called for “people to fight for a secure, happy life by means of hardworking and self-disciplining” (Fan, 2008, p. 86). In the original dream of success, hard work was the important means to success. But from the American Civil War, especially since 1900, the traditional idea has become distorted into a dream of commercial success. At the same time, the capitalist replaced the primary place as the American hero. Success was judged by the amount of the material wealth one accumulates. Liu Ruimin (2006) pointed out the social statues and personal values were judged by the materials one possessed. Money and success were basic ways to bring the people familial and emotional stability. In other words, the ideals of hard work and courage had been changed. Willy is just one of those who struggled to make it in this country. His ideal is just what he has brought from the American dream.

The main character Willy Loman, in the *Death of a Salesman* is a common American salesman. His tragedy obviously has social and family reasons, and is a tragedy of unreasonable labor relations and the system of exploitation. But that Willy’s persistence in his own ideals and self respecting spiritual values that are shattered by harsh reality, still are not the least, but important factors. Willy is a salesman that has
the American dream of being rich, in a stubborn pursuit of success in his whole life, has false faith in the American dream that success will come true, and expects the bright future for his sons. But the failure of American dream made Willy lose this illusion, constantly being corrupted by his past memories, and not able to face realities. The failure of his sons and resistance totally broke his American dream, which leads him to choose to end his life. Willy’s sons Biff and Happy, were dominated by the American dream, as was their father, and finally become victims of American dream.

The American dream is a tragic theme that many books have tried to touch upon, yet few are able to examine or explain it. Both Arthur Miller’s Death of a Salesman and F. Scott Fitzgerald’s novel The Great Gatsby are good examples of these types of stories. The American dream is unique for everyone, but its main concept includes a successful job, lots of money and many good friends. In the Death of a Salesman, Willy Loman, whose problems are that he cannot see reality from the truth, just as Gatsby who is the main character in Fitzgerald’s novel; his unrealistic dreams are unattainable. Like Gatsby, he is unable to see the real truth and he cannot reach his goals no matter how hard he tries (Chang, 2003). The lives of Willy and Gatsby mirror each other very well as good examples of the illusion of the American dream. Both characters were blinded by wealth and power and did not see the attainability of their goals. The lives of Gatsby and Willy Loman are representatives of tragic stories and the tragic American dream.

The American Dream Portrayed in the Death of a Salesman

The Influence of American Dream on the Father

Death of a Salesman is centered on one man who is trying to achieve the American dream and being able to take his family along for the ride. Willy’s life, from beginning to the end, is a sad story based on trying to become successful, or at least have a happy life. Throughout his lifetime he encountered a lot of problems, but he never gave up. At last, he still ended his life very stupidly because his American dream hadn’t been achieved. During his life time, Willy Loman “brought his wife the great pain by living a life not realizing the truth, the reality just in pursuit of the American dream. Linda lived sad and painful days supporting Willy’s unattainable goals” (Peng, 2008, p. 111). Speaking of Willy’s sons, neither of his sons achieved the American dream as they would have wished, and Biff, the apple of Willy’s eye, disrespected him because Willy thought “he is a fake”. Because of his wrong dream and wrong education, his sons lost their identity and their futures became messes. Willy loved his sons, but at last, his sons lose respect for their father, and it really made Willy’s life so pathetic.

From these sentences, we can see Willy’s stubborn pursuit of American dream. As he said to Charley, “you end up worth more dead than alive” (Miller, 2003, p. 101). He thought that the value of a person could be quantified by his wealth or earning potential. “I won’t take the rap for this, you hear!” (Miller, 2003, p. 103), Willy said to Biff, even as Biff insisted that he did not blame his father for his own failures. It’s just Willy’s unwillingness to accept the responsibility for Biff’s mistakes for his own. When Willy reprimands as Charley, when sharing his sense of gravity before Biff’s championship of high school football game, Charley asks Willy, “when are you going to grow up?” (Miller, 2003, p. 68). This may be the deepest insight into Willy’s character that the play offers.

The Influence of American Dream on the Sons

Biff Loman was Willy’s pride and joy. Willy always talked about Biff, and his visits brought great excitement to Willy. However, Willy “encouraged Biff to ignore his academics and to rely on personality, and even to steal things. So Biff has developed the wrong values” (Du, 2007, p. 115). When Biff finally
saw that his father was a fake, he became lost. At one time, he had admired Willy’s personality so much and he relied on Willy’s values so heavily. In the past, these values guided him but now these values had led him astray. When Biff was pressured into seeing Bill Oliver to ask for a job, he unfortunately stole a fountain pen from Oliver’s office. When Biff realized what he was doing, he saw for the first time that he was not doing what he wanted to do but had always been doing what Willy had wanted him to do. He was not very special and if Willy had not puffed him up so much in the past, maybe Biff would have become successful. When Biff tried to persuade Willy and get him to realize how false his dreams were, Willy refused to listen. So Biff turned away and began to cry. Willy saw the tears as a symbol of Biff’s love for him, and it was for Biff’s sake that led him to commit suicide, but his action was to no avail. At Willy’s funeral, Biff accused Willy of having false dreams, and Biff was glad that he had finally escaped them.

Willy’s younger son, Happy Loman grew up to be a well-adjusted man of society. Throughout his childhood, Happy always had to settle for second fiddle. Happy’s insecurity stemmed from Willy’s constant focus towards Biff.

Therefore, Happy was always trying to live up to his expectations and please him. Living in Biff's shadow, Happy was always following the opinions of other people. When Willy asked Biff if Oliver gave him a good welcome, Happy intruded, crying for sure. When Happy and Biff came home after deserting their father at the restaurant, Happy attempted to cool his mom’s anger by ensuring her that his father had a good time with them. By telling people what they wanted to hear, Happy thought he would be well liked and accepted. This indicates that Happy was also affected by his father’s life value.

The Causes of the Tragedy of the American Dream

Personal Reasons

One of the tragedies of the play is that the American capitalistic system has betrayed Willy, but yet he continues to believe in it. He continues to think that if he is well-liked and honors his commitments, he and his family will be taken care of. Ben knows better, but Willy chooses to avoid facing the truth. Willy does not realize that the system with its social problems has made it impossible for him to be a good achiever. At the same time, he never realizes the American obsession with financial success has ruined him and the people like him.

Willy spent everyday of his life on trying to become a successful and famous salesman. His self-image that he showed others was a lie and he was even able to cheat himself with it. He traveled around the country selling his merchandise and when he was younger, he was able to sell a lot and everyone liked him, but Willy was still stuck with this image in his head and it was the image he let everyone else know about. In truth, Willy was a senile salesman who was no longer able to work doing what he had done for a lifetime. When he reaches the point where he can’t deal with the work anymore, he does not realize it, and he puts his life in danger. Because he’s very stupid, he does not realize his dream is unrealistic and he should give up his dream. He complains about a lot of things that occur in everyday life, but he’s the cause of the problems. Many of Willy’s problems were self-inflicted, the reason they were self-inflicted was because he wanted to live in the American dream. If he had changed his standards or just had been content with his life, his life problems would have been limited in amount and proportion.

Linda went along with whatever Willy said. Willy taught the boys that if they were handsome and successful, opportunity would come to them. Happy learned nothing from Willy’s death but insisted that his father had the only dream he could have- to come out as a number-one man. Biff and Happy admired
their father when they were young. The words which they were told made the boys think that their father as a popular, successful, well-known salesman. As Biff grew up, he found himself being told things about his father like, “A salesman has to dream, it comes with the territory” (Miller, 2003, p. 130). At the end of the story Biff realized that his father had the wrong dreams and did not know who he was. Biff was sure that he would not make the same mistakes which his father did. Meanwhile, Happy was more like his dad: he determined to stay in town and prove himself to everyone. Having Biff acknowledge the dishonesty of his own life, insisted on the end of their phony dream. “Willy loved his sons and tried to help them grow up as successful people. But he had imparted the wrong kind of education, including his wrong dream. Then Biff and Happy failed because of the wrong dream” (Li, 2008, p. 151).

The Social Reasons

Under capitalism, people’s lives end up revolving around things, as if happiness is to be found in possessions rather than in free actions and pursuits. Those who have wealth have it because they spend a lot of time and energy figuring out how to get it from other people. Those who have very little have to spend most of their lives working to get what they need to survive, and all they have as consolation for their lives of hard labor and poverty are the few things they are able to afford to buy – since their lives themselves have been bought from them. Between the two social classes are the members of the middle class, who have been bombarded from birth with advertisements and other propaganda proclaiming that happiness, youth, meaning, and everything else in life are to be found in possessions and status symbols. They learn to spend their lives working hard to collect these, rather than taking advantage of whatever chances they might have to seek adventure and pleasure.

Death of a Salesman is a story of a common American salesman who comes to the conclusion that he can only save his life by giving it up; Willy feels that he has to kill himself in order to achieve something for his family. Like many other Americans, Willy Loman is a product of this ever-increasing capitalistic society. A society that’s become obsessed with making it, measuring success by popularity and material wealth and unfortunately impressing these misguided principles upon their families.

Willy’s choice of role model shows that he has absorbed the wrong values from the American dream, rather than having family and friends. He was absorbed in an American dream that was corrupted; he spent his life working to pay for a house, a car, and gain respect, without realizing that it’s a goal hard to attain.

Despite the fact that the American capitalistic system has betrayed Willy, he continues to believe in it. He continues to think that if he is well-liked and honors his commitments that he and his family will be taken care of. Willy will lose without question because he fights clinging to and protecting the very values of society that represent the “wrong” value that prevents him from keeping his “rightful dignity”.

Conclusion

This paper mainly discusses the tragic American dream in the Death of a Salesman. The author takes Willy as the character and describes the painful conflicts of his lifetime, and by doing this he wants the reader to understand that the American dream has failed to achieve its promise to the American people. It promises the inevitability of success in the so-called blessed land. It lets down so many people who believed in the American dream. The author starts the paper by giving a brief introduction to the American dream and the origin and its development. By tracing the signs of American dream, the author points out that American dreams originally was a good promise, but its focus changed over the course of history: from a good promise
to pursuing money. By analyzing the influence of the American dream on the main characters, the author explains the causes of its tragedy.

References
The Writing Techniques for Serving the Theme of Absurdity in

The End of the Road

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[Abstract] Like his favorite writers Nabokov, Beokett, and Hawkes, Barth is certainly an experimental advocate who has been in the vanguard of formal and technical experimentation. Although The End of the Road was published at the end of the 1950s, Barth merges postmodernism artistic features into his earlier novels. The paper discussed the postmodernism writing techniques employed by Barth with the purpose of serving the theme: metafiction, black humor, and open ending. By the adoption of three post-modernistic techniques, Barth’s The End of the Road achieves an idealized effect, rendering the readers with wry smiles and profound consideration.

[Keywords] metafiction; black humor; nihility; uncertainty; opening ending

Introduction

Barth is one of the remarkable and innovative fictionists of America in the postwar era. He maintained that creative techniques in art have about the same value as the issues of the writers concern, which he testified fully in his later works. In Barth’s view, there is a distinction between “meretricious or gratuitous experiment and genuine experimental writing”; the latter, he suggested, is characterized by the writer’s ability to transform “his contrivance into a powerful, effective, and appropriate metaphor for his concerns” (Barth, 1984). By exploiting the metaphoric value of formal techniques, Barth is capable of unifying his narrative strategies with his thematic concerns and with the philosophical premises that shape his work. In the philosophical novel The End of the Road, Barth employed three writing techniques with the purpose of visualizing the theme of absurdity. The direct links between Barth’s formal technique, his thematic concerns and philosophical orientation contributed greatly to the presentation of the absurdity.

Metafiction

Although The End of the Road isn’t the typical metafiction like Barth’s metafiction representative work – Lost in the Funhouse – it contains evident features of metafiction which are identified by literature theorist Linda Hutcheon as “fiction about fiction – that is, fiction that includes within itself a commentary on its narrative and/or linguistic identity” (Bowen, 1994).

Metafiction focuses on the representation of the writing process, the re-examination of the art and the exploration of the fiction itself. What this kind of fiction is imitating is not any empirical world, but a view of its own linguistic and literary production. The textual mirror is turned inward and activated. Instead of trying to represent or reflect “the reality”, these novels seek to reveal fiction as fiction. In these works, a character or an intrusive narrator often comes out to make a comment here and there on the process of fiction creation, thus drawing the reader’s attention to the fictitious nature of fiction. In the most universal language, metafiction can be defined as, commenting on the fiction simultaneously in the course of creation. The two processes merge tightly in form and break through the obvious boundary
between “creation” and “criticism”, thus combining them into conceptions of “interpretation” and “deconstruction”.

In *The End of the Road*, the Doctor, who plays the role of surrogate father to Jacob Horner, explained that each individual tended to see the world as his or her own life story and the people in the background as minor characters. This view is distorted because “in life there are no essentially major or minor characters. To that extent all fiction and biography, and most historiography are a lie” (Barth, 1967). But the Doctor concludes that fiction cannot be a lie because, since it is a mirror of how people characterize themselves and others; it is “a true representation of the distortion that everyone makes in life” (Barth, 1967). By the Doctor’s remark, Barth points out the fictitious nature of text.

As the narrator and the major character in *The End of the Road*, Horner comes out and refers to his own act of writing on only a few occasions. In the first instance, he parenthetically draws attention to the difference between the present time of his narration and the time scheme of the events he narrates. He remarks, “At the moment (I am writing this at 7:55 in the evening of Tuesday, October 4, 1955, upstairs in the dormitory)” (Barth, 1967, p. 2). Horner’s reference to the present moment not only confirms that he is still a patient at the Doctor’s Remobilization Farm, but also comments on the composition itself and tells us his narrator identity. The preciseness of the time and place is the satire to the authenticity of the arm

In reporting Morgan’s disquisition on value, Barth summarizes the conversations. He comments, “Now it may be that Joe made no such long coherent speech as this all at once; it is certainly true that during the course of the evening this was the main thing that got said, and I put it down here in the form of one uninterrupted whiz-bang for convenience’s sake, both to illustrate the nature of his preoccupations and to add a stroke or two to my picture of the man himself” (Barth, 1967, p. 44). This is an approach of deconstruction which not only helps the novelists and the readers understand the narrative structure of the novel, but also offers an explicit model for the understanding of the contemporary world experience. Because in the view of the metafictionists, the contemporary world is an artifice, a device constitution, a web of interdependent signs system. In the above-quoted commentary, Barth emphasizes the significance of the protagonist’s role as narrator in the presentation of events. By drawing attention to the distance between his narrative and the events he narrates, Horner’s commentary actually suggests that his referents are real and that his account represents an attempt to be faithful to these experiences.

Although less metafictional, Barth’s *The End of the Road* continues his discussion on the nature of the self. The novel’s protagonist, Jacob Horner, suffer from “cosmopsis”. According to Mythotherapy, if man’s essence can be changed at will, then this essence becomes identical with the masks he puts on. “So in this sense,” the doctor says, “fiction isn’t a lie at all, but a true representation of the distortion that everyone makes of life” (Barth, 1967, pp. 88-89). Hence, this is the the truth of Jacob Horner’s position as the author of the fiction. “In a sense, I am Jacob Horner” (Barth, 1967, p. 1) is the novel’s first sentence. It not only means that Jacob Horner is full of doubt whether he possesses an identify, but also that he is part author and consequently only, in part, the protagonist of his own life-story – that his life as protagonist can be cancelled by his function as author. If – as for Jacob’s friend Joe Morgan – essence precedes existence, implying the will to make a conscious choice, then Jacob Horner doesn’t exist. Thus, for him, narration becomes an absolute value. As Barth claims, any authors’ task is to create a fictional universe. The difference between Jacob Horner, the character, and Jacob Horner, the author, does not become one of good and evil. Horner is interested in the text because fiction as fiction is devoid of value. Although he uses real experience as his raw material, he can change, not those experiences, but the way
they have to be regarded in the process of narration. The most important is, as a narrator, Jacob Horner can take a stand without being held responsible for it.

In the processes of artful composition, Barth invites readers to become involved in the implication construction of the work. Instead of abandoning the real world, he merely intends to seek an appropriate novel form, which is understandable to the readers and tightly related with them, and he re-examines the conventional novel form by being self-reflective. Metafiction shows us how the literature works is made up of the imaginative world and helps us understand how the reality in which we live is constructed and written in the same way.

**Black Humor**

Barth’s novel *The Floating Opera* is called a “nihilistic comedy”, and *The End of the Road* is called a “nihilistic tragedy”. But regardless of the outcome of each story, Barth illustrates that life is filled with ironic reversals, some comic and some tragic. Hassan claims, “The first two novels of Barth have a certain wry energy, though their structures still conform to the conventions of fiction” (Hassan, 1973). The wry energy of *The End of the Road* originates from black humor. In *The End of the Road*, Barth describes the grotesque, morbid life and absurd world in a satirical manner. The employment of the writing technique of black humor enforces and deepens the theme of the novel – absurdity. According to Neill, writers use the term ‘black humor’ to name humor that is grotesque, gallows, macabre, sick, pornographic, scatological, cosmic, ironic, satirical, absurd, or any combination of these. Recognition of such an element in the novel will help us understand the purpose of the author more thoroughly. According to Horton, black humor ridicules the human behavior and the social conventions in a negative tone and in a destructive effect, without any intention of attempting to reform the human foibles and vices.

On aesthetics, the novel tends to comedy; however, it is a desperate comedy as it takes the style of profound flavor of tragedy. Wiston holds that the contents provide the blackness, and the style mitigates that blackness with humor. As a sharper observer of social phenomena, Barth depicts the absurd and chaotic world in a humorous way but brings a lot of horror to the readers and the wry results in black humor lead the reader to the thinking of the absurd world and life.

The critic Patrick O’Neill holds that “black humour” was first based on an essential incongruity. In this paper, the discussion of the technique of black humor focuses on the comic incongruity of characterization in the novel. In *The End of the Road*, comic incongruity of characterization actually includes Horner, Morgan, and Rennie. But here we mainly discuss the comic incongruity in Horner and Morgan.

In *The End of the Road*, black humor in Horner arises from the comic incongruity of characterization, including comic description of his amoral behaviour, a two-dimensional depiction of him and the precise enumeration of his ridiculous actions and thinking.

The comic description of Horner’s amoral behavior results in the effect of black humor. In public, Horner is a Grammar teacher who embodies accuracy and rigor; in private, his mind is full of sex. In class, he pays attention to the girls’ bosoms, he speaks bluntly that he has nothing to do except daydreaming that his office is full of hot and submissive undergraduate girls. With Horner’s absurd statements and actions, Barth expresses his views towards the social problems and alludes to the social reality – by the protagonist in the novel, Barth presents us a man who struggles in the mad society by behaving incompetently, unluckily, and stupidly.
The two-dimensional depiction of Horner gives rise to a great incongruity between the traditional image of a college teacher and the real image of Horner. Horner is depicted as a two-dimensional character. On one hand, he tries to get rid of responsibility after he does some bad things, and on the other hand, he initiatively anatomizes himself with various venomous titles such as an adulterer, a deceiver, a betrayal of friends, and a coward. Throughout *The End of the Road*, it is very common to read the direct contradiction or oxymoron as Horner always makes self-contradictory statements. For instance, in Chapter Three of the novel, Horner comments on the evening which he passes with the Morgan couple as the most pleasant he has spent in months; however, instantly he declares that he has no wish to meet these new acquaintances for at least a week though he likes them very much.

Throughout the novel, Barth patiently enumerates the ridiculous action and thinking of Horner. Horner always mentions that he is unsure of his identity and existence: the novel’s first sentence, “In a sense, I am Jacob,” is an introduction expressing his uncertain identity. In other words, he may not be “Jacob Horner” in some sense; he is “who he wants to be”. Accordingly, he is unwilling to get involved in the society. Being unable to possess an identity, he has divided himself into several types: an irritable type of Jacob Horner, an uncomfortable fellow, and a Jacob Horner tumbling stupidly with Rennie, the object of Morgan’s disgust. More gravely, he observes himself and makes comments on himself as if an on-looker. He is rather sensitive towards his state and does not cease analyzing his status-quo. He laughs at himself by pointing out his facial expressions such as “irritable”, “blushing”, “uncomfortable” and his own state “burned in shame”, “skulking fear”, “the object of Joe’s disgust”. On the surface, he does not care about himself; however, as a matter of fact, he cares about his performance at any time in any place. The self-vindication sounds rather absurd but vivid in his confusion. Because he is unable to live up to his own standards, he can not do anything but adopt an attitude of laughing at his disappointing behavior once and again. The unexpected image the grammar teacher strikes readers as humorous; meanwhile, Horner’s absurd action and thinking prove that people in the absurd world are powerless to combat absurdity; any efforts end in vain. In short, Barth’s humorous narration strengthens the sense of absurdity.

Horner’s viewpoint towards suicide finds itself both funny and annoying. According to Existentialists, the fundamental and serious question of his philosophy is suicide. Horner discusses his own attitude towards suicide several times in *The End of the Road*. His explanation why he does not choose suicide is comic as he takes a serious topic as a little case. As a matter of fact, it is rather ridiculous that Horner decides not to commit suicide just for satisfying the individual curiosity, but not for any other reasons; however, it proves that he is very brave while confronting the absurdity including the inevitable death. When he is waiting for Morgan’s reaction towards the adultery, he cites Stendhal as an example to make fun of himself. The famous writer has been his model to imitate, and the excuses which Stendhal applied to defend against death prove that Stendhal is not afraid of anything since death has been his object of laughing at. Possessing the same courage, Horner’s excuse of refusing to commit suicide sounds rather comic but impressive: it proves that he can take everything casually, including a serious a serious thing as life, in a light-hearted manner. It is funny that Horner adopts an indifferent attitude towards anything including death

From start to the end of the novel, Horner keeps a clear head and has sharp eyes to observe the absurdity. He is an absurdist in the absurd world. On the surface, he is a man without emotions and takes an indifferent attitude towards everything; however, in his inner world, he is eager for love, seaside and sunshine. When he lives in Wicomic city, though he still suspects the meaning of his own existence, he starts to search for the motivation of living and shoulders the responsibility, especially when he is busy in
looking for a doctor for Rennie. He is also responsible for his own deeds: when Rennie is pregnant, different from Morgan, he takes vigorous actions to find her a doctor; however, the external world pulls a joke on him, as it is rather ridiculous that it is the active Horner that plays a role in smashing other people’s world.

Different from tragedy, black humor is an attitude to counter despair, but the comic elements offer no solution and do not set out to resolve the dilemmas to improve the world. Therefore, it is not odd that the embodiment of black humor is that Horner is caught into the endless life circle without an exit.

Morgan is a target of absurdity. The comic incongruity of his characterization relies on the fact that he advocates rationality, but he himself does not obey it. Morgan has succeeded in setting up his life philosophy and building a rational kingdom before Horner enters his life; however, after he meets Horner, Morgan’s nature of irrationality is gradually thoroughly exposed.

Morgan declares that marriage is essential for him and he respects Rennie, however, his words contradict with his deeds; in real life, he does not respect that Rennie is equal to him and he enslaves her spiritually. In fact, Morgan continually insists upon his relative value in his marriage with Rennie.

Morgan assumes himself an enlightened person; however, actually, his behavior proves that he is not enlightened at all. In fact, the later plot of the novel proves that the requirements Morgan has raised are all from the consideration of his own interests. Since Morgan establishes the terms of their relationship, he limits the freedom of Rennie’s actions and thoughts at random. Rennie tries her best to imitate her husband, even mannerisms like whipping her head from side to side so as to keep pace with him. Of course, she can hardly succeed, and Morgan warns her that she needs to forget about the existence of her ideas and get into the habit of articulating his ideas. Morgan aims to transform Rennie into a puppet, with no ideas of her own, and finally achieves the goal of controlling her. It is Morgan who pushes Rennie onto the cliff, for he has destroyed Rennie’s nature and even her ability to think.

In people’s eyes, including Morgan himself, he is the embodiment of rationality, and his behaviors strictly accord with his philosophy. Morrell holds that Barth arranges a contest between Horner, who has no values, and Morgan, who has the relative values of his marriage and the rationalist principles governing it. Humor lies in the fact that Morgan’s actions in real life go against his own philosophies. In public, Morgan represents rationality. In private, his actions are absurd. For example, at the scene of the peep, Morgan behaves absurdly, “Ah! Passing a little mirror on the wall, Joe caught his own eye. What? What? Ahoy there! He stepped close, curtsied himself, and thrust his face to within two inches of the glass. Mr Morgan, is it? Howdy to, Mr Morgan. Blah bloo blah. Oo-o-o-o blubble thlwurp. He mugged funny faces at himself… He turned slightly, and we could see: his tongue gripped purposefully between his lips at the side of his mouth, Morgan was masturbating and picking his nose at the same time. I believe he also hummed a sprightly tune in rhythm with his work” (Barth, 1967, p. 69).

Morgan’s indecent conductions are funny and reflect that he is actually silly, totally different from his public appearance. Ihab claims “the source of ludicrous is always the paradoxical, and therefore unexpected, subsumption of an object under a conception which in other respects it different from it, and accordingly the phenomenon of laughter always signifies the sudden apprehension of an incongruity between such a conception and the real object though under it” (Hassan, 1973). Morgan’s real image contradicts his public image, so therefore, his actions draws laughter. It is lamentable that Morgan makes all efforts to set up an image of embodying rationality, but the image instantaneously collapses. As soon as Rennie and Morgan see the real face of Morgan, the Morgan philosophy proves absurd and impractical.
By depicting the self-contradictory Morgan, Barth delivers a message: an absurd society produces morbid people.

The depiction of Morgan’s response towards absurdity is the key part of the comic incongruity in his characterization when the adultery between Horner and Rennie happens. The novel’s grim comedy at this point derives from Morgan’s utterly unselfconscious conviction that he is pursuing the intelligent way, when in fact, he is employing the grossest rationalizing technique to cover his emotional disgust at the likelihood that Rennie is pregnant with Jack’s child. The height of absurdity is reached when Horner, in horror of Morgan’s inhuman conviction that Rennie’s suicide was the most reasonable way out, when instead he has exhausted himself racing around the countryside and engaging in the wildest subterfuges to obtain an abortionist. In the Morgans’ kitchen he announces he’s found one, “Is he safe?” Morgan asked, a little suspiciously.

*The End of the Road* is a grotesque portrayal of the absurd. In the absurd world, Horner and Morgan take different roles, however, they are typical characters of black humor literature who are “antiheroes, caricatures of the innocent, inept, depraved, or insane” (Barth, 1967, p. 21). With his frightening description of Jacob Horner’s dread paralysis or Rennie Morgan’s hideous accidental death, Barth displays the spiritual predicament of the modern people and the uncertain congruency of the social life. Harris holds that the burlesque of characterization is designed to evoke in the reader a response to the absurd (Barth, 1967, p. 29). Barth emphasizes the blackness of the absurd existence by exposing comic incongruity of characterization, and as a result, absurdity has been strengthened while arousing laughter. The novel ends with a circuitously: everything turns to the beginning, and as a result, life is a cycle without stop; the characters are still as helpless and pointless as at the beginning of the novel, or, if anything, their situations are even worse.

**Open-Ending**

*The End of the Road* finishes with an open-ending because it has not provided a way out for its characters, and everything has returned to the beginning. Barth doesn’t aim to find the way out of the absurd reality, but leaves his readers to recognize the actual situation and to ponder the serious social issue. As Robert Scholes points out, the traditional satirist hopes to reform society through ridicule and invective, and the traditional writer of comedy tries to better mankind by exposing folly and wickedness, although they use traditional satiric and comic techniques. Moreover, the tragedian holds the traditional faith that though man may fall, the absolute, an ordered universe, lies beyond destruction; however, in the twentieth century, the black humorists esteem that no belief in absolutes exists. Not only is man out of joint, but so is his universe. In the novel, the protagonist Horner’s self-mocking actions and Morgan’s absurd thinking systems are funny. According to Freud’s theory of humor: The laughter is both the venting of excess nervous energy and the overwhelming of what drives the self to despair. Horner’s attitude towards his misery exactly reflects the two functions of laughter. On one hand, Horner treats everything with a humorous way to evade suffering as he refuses to be hurt by reality and be compelled to suffer misery; on the other hand, Horner’s attitude of defying the cruel reality and the absurd world worsens his status-quo, for self-mocking is a type of behavior by which Horner escapes from reality. In the process of self-mocking, Horner can relax temporarily, but the world will not compromise with him, so gradually he should confront more and more horrible conjunctures. During the dialogue between Morgan and Horner on the telephone, when Morgan asks what Horner thinks about things, Horner answers he does not know what to do, and then Morgan hangs up silently. The short and boring talk proves that non-mystical
value-thinking has been carried to *The End of the Road* and there leaves no hope. At the end of the story, Horner experiences the extreme horror without any solution: his innocent mistress – Rennie dies on the operation table while receiving an abortion and the one incarnation of reason, Morgan wanders like a ghost without a soul. Therefore, Horner has destroyed Rennie completely and smashed Morgan’s world. Finally, Horner ought to face the dark reality without any other choices. His last word “terminal” indicates that his nightmare will continue without any end.

The open-ending has the same function of comic incongruity, as it offers no way out while darkening the absurdity of the world. Barth gives an unsatisfactory resolution to the conflict of ideas that *The End of the Road* presents. Readers want some answers to the problem of how to live in the Wicomic world and how to approach Horner’s problems, but no solution turns up. Facing the same destiny in the other black humor novels, the characters in *The End of the Road* are victims as they can just receive the final result passively no matter what kind of efforts they have made. In the end of the novel, Barth employs the word “terminal”. How to walk out of the terminality will be the major problem Barth confronts in his later works.

**Conclusion**

In *The End of the Road*, surpassing the narrative limits, Barth sometimes comments on the other text, as well as the novel itself in the process of writing. Barth invites readers to become involved in the implication construction of the work to help them understand the absurdity of the novel better. By black humor, Barth describes an absurd world dominated by the contingency. The isolated people struggle bitterly in the absurdity and nihility. Barth enlarges the sense of alienation by ridiculous, distorted and even morbid remarks, and behavior, invoking bitter, gloomy, and even desperate moods, which makes the readers feel sadness, shock in the laughs and sends them into deep consideration. The open ending leaves the readers in a serious and profound meditation concerning the social reality and people’s spirit situation. The nihilistic tone, absurd content and expression techniques make *The End of The Road* occupy a prominent place in Barth’s writing career.

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The Confusion and Solution of *Won & Done Song* in *Dream of Red Mansions*

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**Abstract**  
*The Won & Done Song* is the theme song of *Dream of Red Mansions*. Its melody is full of sorrow, and its emotion is full of frustration. Ultimately, it leads people into a puzzle with no solution, “Won is Done and Done is Won.” The *Won & Done Song* merely reflects the influence of Buddhism and secular worldviews on the value of life, but it did not fundamentally solve the puzzle of life. The “no suspicious” Quran ultimately gives the interpretation of the secret of this life. It overcomes two extremes: one is the worldly pursuit of ambition and riches too far, and the other is Buddhist’s doing nothing at all. Under the guidance of the Quran, the world presents moderation, peace and spiritual harmony in the secular life.

**Keywords**  
*Dream of Red Mansions; Won & Done Song; Islam; Quran; Tragedy*

**Introduction**

The *Won & Done Song* in *Dream of Red Mansions* of the lame Taoist tells the people of burdens and sorrows, ambition, riches, wives and children (Cao, 1973). Indeed, these are the things people aggressively aspire and pursue. As the Taoist said, “have and have no are nearly the same” (Cao, 1973). The abandonment of these could really help them to become immortal, as the Taoist thought. Following the ideas of the Taoist, one can only fall into the fog of “beyond redemption” and “no solution”. Without clear guidance and life goals, everything in this world will become confusing and meaningless, so people will be in a dilemma and pain. Faced with such pain and suffering, the authors try to analyze it with the help of scriptures in *Quran*, and solve this problem that has troubled people for hundreds of years.

**The Interpretation and Confusion of the Won & Done Song**

In the first chapter of *Dream of Red Mansions*, “Zhen Shi-yin makes the Stone’s acquaintance in a dream and Jia Yu-cun finds that poverty is not incompatible with romantic feelings” (Cao, 1973). This describes the lonely, confused Zhen Shi-yin hearing the *Won & Done Song* by the crazy lame Taoist after inconstancy:

‘Men all know that salvation should be won, but with ambition won’t have done, have done. Where are the famous ones of days gone by? In grassy graves they lie now, every one. Men all know that salvation should be won, but with their riches won’t have done, have done. Each day they grumble they’ve not made enough. When they’ve enough, it’s goodnight everyone! Men all know that salvation should be won, but with their loving wives they won’t have done. The darlings every day protest their love: but once you’re dead, they’re off with another one. Men all know that salvation should be won, but with their children won’t have done, have done. Yet though of parents fond there is no lack, of grateful children saw I ne’er a one.

‘Mean hovels and abandoned hall where courtiers once paid daily calls: Bleak haunts where
weeds and willows scarcely thrive were once with mirth and revelry alive. Whilst cobwebs shroud the mansion’s gilded beams, the cottage casement with choice muslin gleams. Would you of perfumed elegance recite? Even as you speak, the raven locks turn white. Who yesterday her lord’s bones laid in clay, coffers with gold and silver filled: Now, in trice, a tramp by all reviled. One at some other’s short life gives a sigh, The sheltered and well-educated lad, In spite of all your care, may turn out bad; And the delicate, fastidious maid End in a foul stews, plying a shameful trade. The judge whose hat is too small for his head wear, in the end, a convict’s cangue instead. who shivering once in rags bemoaned his fate, today finds fault with scarlet robes of state. In such commotion does the world’s theatre rage: As each one leaves, another takes the stage. In vain we roam: Each in the end must call a strange land home. Each of us with that poor girl may compare who sews a wedding-gown for another bride to wear’ (Cao, 1973).

From the content, *Won & Done Song* highlights four worldly things: ambition, riches, wives and children (Cao, 1973). But the Buddhist immortal thinking makes the *Won & Done Song* more abstract. The ambiguity brought by the characteristic of its symbolic metaphors makes it difficult to understand (Gu, 2011). The four *Notes* by Zhen Shi-yin have a one-to-one relationship with the four things in the *Won & Done Song*. Through the corresponding interpretation with the help of the characters, and the plot and setting in *Dream of Red Mansions*, the abstract description will be given a specific explanation. From “As each one leaves, another takes the stage” to the end is the overall evaluation. And, as some scholars say, the broadness and focus of the *Won & Done Song* and *Notes* are different (Yu, 1991). *Notes* makes the *Won & Done Song* more specific and explicit. However, only the specific context of the novel will help readers to understand more clearly and more profoundly. Previous scholars gave the lyrics side batch, mentioned all the side batches and the lyric texts were very consistent (Yang, 1980).

Judging from the attitude, the *Won & Done Song* is completely negative to these several things. These things are like stumbling blocks to success, people who have these things will definitely fall. Jia Bao-yu, the hero of the novel, called the pursuer of ambition “Paul beetles”, and even walking out as long as Bo Chai and Xiang Yun mentioned ambition. Is ambition so terrible, hateful and even detestable? One can get ambition only by means of reading classics. Although some sayings of the classics are outdated, there are definitely some positive things in them, and even Bao Yu also admitted that “Mingmingde” inside “Daxue” is good and beautiful. Governing the country, for the benefit of the people, why not do it? A man as noble as Bao Yu, of course, can be sheltered without an official position. But as most of the civilian, ambition is the only way for them to get to the top in their society. That is, “the books have gold houses, beautiful women and bells of millet.” As for the attitude of riches, if it is not “Each day they grumble they’ve not made enough”, then regular income can be accepted. For the wives, the attitude is to treat them well. If a man dies first, he should allow the widowed wife to remarry. For the children, parents should educate them seriously. “Three Character Classic” has a sentence like “Dou Yan-shan, has good ways. Teaching five children, all became famous.” Isn’t it good? (Cao, 1973).

Judging from the tone, it is full of grief. In order to create the tragic effect, the outcome is inflicted by either death, remarriage, or filial children. No matter how great the ambition and riches are, or how pretty the wives and children are, they could not escape the fate of these tragedies. No wonder Wang Guowei (2013) said, “*Dream of Red Mansions* is the tragedy of the tragedy.” Also, just like Mr. Lu Xun (2009) said, “destroy the valuable things of life and show them to the people”. Liu E, the author of *Travels* said, the essence of literature is crying. Liu Zaifu furthers that “the cause of literature is the cause of tears” (Lu,
2006). Goethe said, “All life that makes people sad, we like to watch it as the Arts” (Wang, 2013). Not only in the arts, but also in literature, the height of the artistic achievement is tragedy. The reason for the tragedy lies in the limitations of the mind and spirit, that is, their limitations are unable to break through their personal and social worldviews and the resulting problems are of life and values.

To sum up, this is the secular interpretation. Namely, the pursuit of this world in the end is like the moon in the water, the flower in the mirror. No matter how great the ambition and riches, how many wives and children, one can not escape the fate of death. Furthermore, all kinds of things are secular. In the case of greed, it bring problems or even fatal disasters. All the present things, at the time of the arrival of the death, have nothing to do with them. This is the symbol having of no solution on the secular level.

The Won & Done Song Interpretation of Buddhism and Confusion

The Won & Done Song is undoubtedly pessimistic, because it takes Buddhism and Taoism as the guiding ideology. Buddhism and Taoism just put forward the questions, pointing out that the present items like ambition, riches, wives and children are short-lived pleasures. Only by abandoning these short-term enjoyments, can one become “immortal”. But is the fact really so? Just abandoning these present items will make one be immortal? In fact, abandonment is the philosophical “destruction”, and this is only the first step, which is far from the point of “construction”. How can this be called success? Although the “Don'ts goes before Dos”, they are not equal to each other. The former is just the initial stage and preparation for the latter.

Since taking Buddhism and Taoism as the guiding ideology, the authors believe the ultimate solution seems only to become an immortal – a monk or a Taoist. Can the problem be solved fundamentally? The answer is no. Crazy lame Taoist interprets the Won & Done Song: “we can see the world, won is done and vice versa. Without done, it is not won; to be won, it should be done first.” The basic meaning is won equals done. Can won really equal done? What are the relationships between good processes and good results? Is it good as long as there is a result? What if the result is not good? This is not contradictory? It can be seen, the won and the done are not necessarily linked. In other words, becoming a monk is not necessarily the done (Gu, 2011). In the book, they may not really be free. In fact, the reasons they choose to become the monk or nuns is because Bao Yu, Miao Yu, Xichun, Zizuan are all desperate at first. Among them, Miaoyu has more relationships with the secular things, although she hides her emotions deep. Zhen Shi-yin said in the dream, “Unfortunately, I am a man of very limited understanding and have not been able to derive the full benefit from your conversation. If you would have the very great kindness to enlighten my benighted understanding with a somewhat fuller account of what you were discussing, I can promise you the most devout attention. I feel sure that your teaching would have a salutary effect on me and – who knows- might save me from the pains of hell” (Cao, 1973). This reflects that Zhen Shi-yin is puzzling on the matter, that is to say, he can not solve the problem either. Faced with this situation, the answer of the immortals is: “These are heavenly mysteries and may not be divulged. But if you wish to escape from the fiery pit, you have only to remember us when the time comes, and all will be well” (Cao, 1973). From this, we see that, “the Buddhist sense in Dream of Red Mansions diffuse” (Liu, 2006). But does the Zen epiphany really help one jump out of the fire pit?

“Won & Done Song and Notes really express the author’s fantasy of Buddhism and Taoism, hoping to get the freedom and liberation of life.” “Pages full of idle words, penned with hot and bitter tears: All men call the author fool; None his secret message hears” (Cao, 1973). Cao Xueqin presents this story to us in the form of novel, but the tension in it was not solved, and will not be solved. Although “Dream of Red
Mansions criticized Buddhism, Taoism and Confucianism”, he “did not go beyond the scope of them”, (Liu, 1982). “The final liberation has to be the idea of Buddhism” (Lv, 2001), for “the ideological limitations of the writer, unable to participate in the creation of a new tradition” (Liu, 1992). “The sharp conflict between slandering Buddhism and Taoism and celebrating the going out from the society is the reflection of his ambivalence” (Feng, 1984). So, he is in great pain, but he can do nothing.

In summary, the Buddhist relief is to give up all the present things, dedicate to become an immortal – leaving the family. People living in the world, and even their food and clothing are unfounded; would it be a joke pursuing the so-called vanity? So, Buddhism can not solve the puzzle. Then, how do we face this historical and real problem. What kind of approach can be used to solve the contradiction inside it?

Islamic Understanding of the Won & Done Song and the Way Out

Facing the confusion of the Won & Done Song, the authors are afraid it is difficult to find a satisfactory answer in the Chinese philosophical framework because Chinese philosophy does not explore the issue of “where to come and where to go.” A saying of Confucius: “I do not know life, let alone death.” He will not say things “bizarre”. So, Confucianism is unable to solve this problem. Then, how about Buddhist thinking? In fact, it can not solve this problem, either. This issue has been clarified by previous analyses of the relationship between Won and Done, so here it will not be repeated. “All in all, whether liberation can be the highest ethical ideal or not lies in whether it is possible for the liberation” (Wang, 2013). Thus, the final settlement of these issues will be extended to the ultimate world view. The three Western classic revealed religions have explained this issue. We select from “no suspicious” Quran to analyze this issue. Coincidentally, Quran has specialized interpretation for the three issues in the Won & Done Song. “Fair in the eyes of men is the love of things they covet: Women and sons; Heaped-up hoards of gold and silver…” (Ma,1982).

In the attitude of treatment of property and descendants, Quran says: “Know ye (all), that the life of this world is but play and amusement, pomp and mutual boasting and multiplying, (in rivalry) among yourselves, riches and children. Here is a similitude: How rain and the growth which it brings forth, delight (the hearts of) the tillers; soon it withers; thou wilt see it grow yellow; then it becomes dry and crumbles away” (Ma,1982). Property and children are positioned as the life of this world, and set the appropriate metaphor for the reader to ponder. The life of this world is essential, but do not boast too much, to contest the rich, lest people forget, and even forget Allah. “Let not your riches or your children divert you from the remembrance of Allah” (Ma,1982). It points out that although property and children are good, there are more important things, namely remembering Allah, otherwise you will become losers. “Your riches and your children may be but a trial: but in the Presence of Allah, is the highest, Reward” (Ma,1982). The property and children are further positioned as tests; those who have withstood these tests can get great rewards. Thus, it clearly points out the property and the children as the enjoyment of the present life and the tests. Cherishing the enjoyment, at the same time, always bearing in mind that these are just tests, one should not lust them too much and even become addicted to them. The Won & Done Song asks people to abandon all of these. It seems to be a relief, but it does not actually find a way out from the root problem.

As for the wife, Quran also has guidance scriptures. “If any of you die and leave widows behind, they shall wait concerning themselves four months and ten days. When they have fulfilled their term, there is no blame on you if they dispose of themselves in a just and reasonable manner” (Ma,1982). Quran explicitly permits the remarriage of widows. First, in terms of personal life, in order to take care of the widow physiologically, the psychological needs must be met as well as their everyday life. Second, in terms of
production, the individual functions can be made into full play, so that individuals can carry out both productive labor, but also a population reproduction. Third, in terms of social harmony, families can be restructured and thus, society can become steady. Such proper regulations have been prescribed in the scripture. Instead, the Won & Done Song in “but once you’re dead, they’re off with another one”, women are seen as men's private property, and can not get married again. This is undoubtedly harmful to women. Li Wan in Dream of Red Mansions undoubtedly is typical in this respect; it will only be the tragedy of “the tongue of envy wagged” to meet her.

As for fame, Hadith said, “You do not beg office, the begged official, although it has place, but it will not be helped; if it is not begged, You can both acquire it and get help” (Hachaji, 2009). It put forward the views and attitudes on ambition dialectically. Quran mentioned several times the issues of “status” which has a similar meaning with ambition. Allah has given the “strength such as We have not given to you,” subsequently, Allah “destroyed them for their sins” (Ma,1982). “And We raised him to a lofty station” (Ma,1982). Allah “had endowed them with (faculties of) hearing, seeing, heart and intellect, but of no profit to them were their (faculties of) hearing, sight, and heart and intellect, when they went on rejecting the Signs of Allah” (Ma,1982). Allah gives very high status to the previous generations, but they still deny their special Mercy from Allah and then deny Allah, and finally they were destroyed. From here, we can see that the status is top-down, that is, rewarded by Allah. Whereas, the ambition in the Won & Done Song is bottom-up; it is obtained only by striving. Before getting ambition, one may concentrate on the classics, and once succeeding, he will inevitably become proud in his mind. This is strongly opposed in Quran.

In summary, under the guidance of Quran and Hadith, we should do secular things in reality and not obtain too much, and at the same time, honor the heaven in the after life by means of Allah’s Mercy. From the secular point of view, it overcomes the secular life from going too far or halting. From the perspective of faith, it overcomes the Buddhism emptiness and loneliness, and there is a beautiful destination of paradise. The reason is that Islam is a combination of religion and real life, a legitimate lifestyle which is easy to understand and practice.

Conclusion

The Won & Done Song describes four aspects of ambition, riches, wives and children. In fact, it is a fairly comprehensive overview of the main aspects of life of this world. However, different world views will naturally generate different outlooks on life and values. As common people, we can pursue these four aspects, but not too much. Otherwise, it would go too far and have queer results. Standing from the secular point of view, it seems that the more ambition and riches, the better. But in fact, everything has a confine, more will be worse than less. Standing on the perspective of Buddhism, although it will not appear mundane too much, in order to reach the realm of the immortal, the only way is to throw everything away. Is this not also a kind of “too much”? Only at the height of Islam, the not too much thought in the Won & Done Song can be saved, the specific roads and implementation methods can be pointed out, and more important is the commitment to a beautiful home to the world. This not only frees people from the confusion, but it also points out the objectives for people to struggle for and the road to make action, and truly become a beacon for humanity.

References

Intertextuality in Literary Creation
– An Intertextual Study of *The Hours* and *Mrs. Dalloway*

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[Abstract] This thesis aims to make an intertextual study of *The Hours* and *Mrs. Dalloway*. *The Hours* is a novel with refined words, a cliff-hanging plot and profound significance. Although the author, Michael Cunningham, employs so many elements from *Mrs. Dalloway*, he has created a work of art out of an existing one. This thesis will mainly discuss the extension of writing style from the aspects of fluidity of identity and interaction within, as well as between texts. It indicates that intertextuality plays a positive role in literary creation.

[Keywords] *The Hours*; *Mrs. Dalloway*; writing style; intertextuality; literary creation

Introduction
*The Hours*, written by Michael Cunningham (1952- ), an American contemporary writer, deals with three separate, but closely related stories. Each story tells the life of a woman on a single day in different times and places. *Mrs. Dalloway* is the attaching point of these three narrative strands. Because Cunningham adopts the original title Virginia Woolf planned for her novel *Mrs. Dalloway* (Bell, 2005, p. 306) and employs so many of its familiar characters and plots, it is natural for people to notice the connection between these two novels. However, it is not a mere re-writing. Cunningham sharpens his writing skills through imitation, and creates something of his own. As S. Chapman said, “a parody novel would never gain Pulitzer Prize” (Chapman, 2007, p. 307) and *Los Angeles Times* also affirmed its innovation, “a set of contemporary characters re-voices the pattern of Virginia Woolf’s *Mrs. Dalloway*. It is not a pastiche but a transplanting: an exquisitely written, kaleidoscopic work that anchors a floating post-modern world on pre-modern caissons of love, grief and transcendent longing” (Cunningham, 2008, p. II).

Virginia Woolf was always famous for her innovative writing style. She developed techniques in writing, such as interior monologues and stream of consciousness prose, and *Mrs. Dalloway* is one of her typical novels. She wrote about her thoughts on the writing techniques of *Mrs. Dalloway* in her diary, regarding her thoughts as water, “There are splashes in the outer air in every direction, and under the surface waves that follow one another into dark and forgotten corners” (Bell, 2005, p. 314). This indicates the feature of stream of consciousness. She also expressed her point of view about writing in her commentary, namely, to stress the psychological activity, the caprice of emotion, and grasping a sudden feeling, as well as the associations caused by that feeling. Her unique writing style has earned her distinction as a leader of Modernism and is often emulated by modern writers.

When Cunningham started to write *The Hours*, he immersed himself in Virginia Woolf, and read everything she wrote; it was impossible for him to ignore Woolf’s style. He spoke of this in an interview, “I did want to write in my own voice, as influenced by her as I possibly could be…I have a particular ardent love for the slight messiness of *Mrs. Dalloway*, and it seemed right to try to duplicate in my book some of that messiness” (Schiff, 2008, pp. 9-10). He employs the skill of stream of consciousness, and
appropriates images such as flowers, mirrors, jelly fishes, and kisses. He employs these Woolfian elements to create something different, something that belongs to him.

This thesis will mainly study the expansion of writing style of *The Hours*, and present the relation of tradition and creation, as well as the positive role of intertextual writing plays during literary creation.

**Fluidity of Identity**

One characteristic of Woolf’s novel is the “mental reappearance” and her ability of “constructing a path between person of relevant and irrelevant through a direct or indirect text” (Chapman, 2007, p. 317). The openness and fluid movement through time and space which one may find in *Mrs. Dalloway* is a good example. Readers will also observe the way in which Woolf established connections between characters who do not actually know each other. In *The Hours*, Cunningham appropriates and extends both techniques by obscuring their sexual orientation and depicting the fluidness of individuals’ identity.

**Ambiguity of Sexual Orientation**

Characters in *The Hours* are always in a state of fluidity of selves. This can be strongly supported in Cunningham’s appropriation of Woolf’s describing of a “kiss”. In Woolf’s *Mrs. Dalloway*, Clarissa recalls a kiss with Sally Seton as being the most imposing and exquisite moment of her whole life. This kiss stands for Clarissa’s longing for homosexual love, and it is often interpreted as a lesbian trend in the novel by the critics. In *The Hours*, Cunningham essentially enlarges the kiss; it appears in almost every major scene. The Woolfian kiss is replicated in multiple circumstances: kisses between Clarissa and Richard, Virginia and Vanessa, and Laura and Kitty. However, these kisses are depicted as awkward and ambiguous, and they serve as volatile, full-of-guilt moments:

> “Without quite meaning to, without deciding to, she (Laura) kisses Kitty, lingeringly, on the top of her forehead...Kitty lifts her face, and their lips touch. They both know what they are doing. They rest their mouths, each on the other. They touch their lips together, but do not quite kiss...Laura releases Kitty. She steps back. She has gone too far, they’ve both gone too far...” (Cunningham, 2008, p. 110).

In *The Hours*, the characters, most of the time, are depicted as alone and emotional. The kiss serves as the intimate moment of physical contact, the moment at which the gap between people is bridged. Though they often desire this moment, it is also frightening because every person involved remains uncertain. They wonder how the counterpart could react; they are afraid of the outcome of what they have done. This sense of guilt can be further supported by the depiction of the kiss between Virginia and Vanessa which they secretly shared behind Nelly’s back, “the kiss is innocent, innocent enough, but it was also full of something not unlike what Virginia wants from London, from life; it was full of love complex and ravenous, ancient…” (Cunningham, 2008, pp. 209-210).

Through expending and deepening the meaning of the crucial moment in Woolf’s novel, Cunningham not only echoes the precursory author’s text but also universalizes the ambiguity of sexual identity and desire.

**Multiplicity of Self**

Except for following Woolf’s skill of foregrounding the character’s ambiguity of sexual orientation, Cunningham’s description of the fluidity and complexity of their identity is also prominent. Each of his three central female figures – Virginia Woolf, Laura Brown, and Clarissa Vaughan – possess various or
alternative selves. Clarissa Vaughan often has a feeling of dislocation and always wants to escape to a remote place where there is only herself; Laura Brown discovers that she is Virginia Woolf and also Mrs. Dalloway when she is reading Mrs. Dalloway. Virginia Woolf is too, mixing her identity with the characters in her writing. In this brief interaction between Virginia Woolf and her servant Nelly, Cunningham reveals the ways in which performance acts in every-day activities:

“Virginia walks through the door. She feels fully in command of the character who is Virginia Woolf, and as that character she removes her cloak, hangs it up, and goes downstairs to the kitchen to speak to Nelly about lunch” (Cunningham, 2008, p. 84).

The fragmented and unstable identity is further enhanced in The Hours for the fact that these three women, whose lives echo one another, can be considered as “identities-in-relation”. They are aspects of a collective female self and three versions of a twentieth-century woman. In addition, each of these three women desire to touch or kiss someone whose gender is not suitable for them traditionally. Cunningham universalizes human desire for contact, and this desire is often confined narrowly in established labels of gender orientation. Again, it is as if Cunningham has brought various mirrors to his text, in which one can not only see through his appearance, but also his inner mind.

Thus, Cunningham employs Woolf's skill of depicting the ambiguity of self, and goes further. His three female figures are closely related to each other by their fluid consciousness. Though they live in different eras of the twentieth century, their psychological states and their longing for freedom are surprisingly the same. Their fragmented identities are just the evidence of their depressed lives: remaining housewives, while at the same time struggling for more room for their careers.

In terms of writing skill, Cunningham employs Woolf’s outstanding features of the transformation of consciousness among various characters, and adding something of his own. In this prospect, he extends and improves Woolf’s exploration of the fragmentation, complexity, and multiple natures of the self.

**Interaction: Beyond Time and Space**

In Mrs. Dalloway, simple words such as “odd” and “strange” are often found in different contexts. According to rhetorical device, repetition often indicates emphasis, however, here it has nothing to do with this function. Actually, it is one of its style. Repetition of certain words or sentences by different characters, to some extent, is a way of communication among them. In Virginia Woolf’s stream of consciousness featured in her novels, it is an interaction beyond time and space. This is also what Cunningham has reproduced in The Hours.

**Communication between Texts**

At the beginning of the novel, he quotes the first sentence from Virginia Woolf’s text “Mrs. Dalloway said she would buy the flowers herself” (Woolf, 1996, p. 1) which does, in some way, create certain connections between the two novels. In addition, he employs the scene of Virginia Woolf’s suicide as his prologue, which makes the relation closer. Readers bear Virginia Woolf, as well as her novel, in their minds as they read The Hours. Furthermore, in the part about Mrs. Woolf in 1923, this connection becomes more obvious. This section is fictional, but contains highly plausible versions of the events in that year, with people having the same names as those who actually exist around Virginia Woolf.

Cunningham uses quotations from Mrs. Dalloway to describe London – “as Big Ben strikes the hours which fall in leaden circles” (Cunningham, 2008, p. 168). This connection continues when Mrs. Woolf is longing for the life of London, she thinks to herself, “What a lark! What a plunge!” (Cunningham, 2008,
p. 167), just like in the opening section Clarissa Vaughan feels extremely excited to remain alive in the beautiful June morning – the same as Virginia Woolf describes Clarissa Dalloway’s feeling when she walks on the street in the morning. Richard himself quotes from the novel when he describes that June morning as “fresh as if issued to children on a beach” (Cunningham, 2008, p. 199), similar to Clarissa Dalloway recalling her girlhood. Furthermore, Richard hears the word “hurl” and jellyfish singing in Greek, which is an echo to Mrs. Woolf when her mental disorder occurs. It is also an echo to Septimus in Mrs. Dalloway and Virginia Woolf in reality. As a matter of fact, a headache and hearing voices were the main symptoms of Virginia Woolf’s mental disturbance (Ruth, 2009, p. 7). Reality and the fictional world become interwoven when Richard quotes from Virginia Woolf’s words in her suicide letter before he throws himself from the window, “I don’t think two people could have been happier than we’ve been” (Cunningham, 2008, p. 200). Thus, The Hours establishes continuous dialogue with its pre-text – Mrs. Dalloway.

Communication within the Text

Besides setting interactions between his pre-text, communication moves on among actors in the text. Cunningham makes his main characters, who live in different places and times, repeat some words and sentences in their respective lives. The repetition of certain words and phrases in all three sections establishes a network, not only with Woolf’s novel, but also within The Hours, in various sections. Thus, the repetition of various words and phrases links the three strands together.

For instance, “it is enough” occurs in the section about Mrs. Woolf, when she is chatting with Vanessa, she thinks, “She would like to say, it is enough. The tea cups and the thrush outside, the question of children’s coats, it is enough” (Cunningham, 2008, p. 154). When Sally brings a bouquet of flowers to Clarissa, that arouses their love and they are both simply and entirely happy loving each other for eighteen years, they feel, “It is enough. At this moment, it is enough” (Cunningham, 2008, p. 185). The same sentence appears in the part about Mrs. Brown; first, when she temporarily escapes from her tedious life in the hotel, and feels dying does not seem strange, she thinks, “Someone said, (it is) enough, no more” (Cunningham, 2008, p. 151).

Another example is the repetition of the phrase “anything at all.” When Laura, thinking of her husband’s pleasure at opening her presents, as well as how he reacted before, wonders if, “she could give him anything, anything at all…” (Cunningham, 2008, p. 100). While she stays at the hotel, she realizes she is so far away from her life and “she could do anything she wanted to, anything at all” (Cunningham, 2008, p. 150). Similarly, while Richard decides to throw himself from the window, he asks Clarissa to tell him a story and says, “the most ordinary thing, anything, anything at all” (Cunningham, 2008, p. 199). This phrase occurs in the part about Mrs. Woolf too, “This new day in which anything might happen, anything at all” (Cunningham, 2008, p. 210).

Though these sentences and phrases occur in three dependent narrative strands, they serve the same function. “It is enough” is a kind of consolation for characters to cherish their present simple life: Mrs. Woolf considers simple family life is enough, so she makes her character – Clarissa goes on loving her ordinary life; Clarissa Vaughan considers life and love with Sally is enough, so she will continue her life after Richard dies; Mrs. Brown doubts if the small perfection was enough. So she abandons home in the end. “Anything at all” is a sort of struggle, as well as being helpless, in front of life with its endless hours. Characters in The Hours never know each other, but they seem to communicate with one another. In this
way, Cunningham employs repetition to establish connections, not just within his text, but also with Woolf’s text. By doing so, Woolf’s writing has been given a new life.

**Conclusion**

From what have discussed above, Cunningham interweaves and links his characters that live in three different historical stages – 1923, 1949, and the 1990s – and three different places – a London suburb, a Los Angeles suburb and Greenwich Village. Woolf confines her story in London, making it feel rather small and intimate, while Cunningham compresses his into twentieth century and demonstrates how a novel can contain several worlds, including the one Woolf created in *Mrs. Dalloway*. In this single novel, Cunningham depends on leaps through time and space to generate a world that feels surprisingly huge and interconnected. By rewriting the story into America, he makes the novel more familiar to contemporary American readers. To fully understand a certain work, readers must take the initiative so that various intertextual relations between different texts can be recognized. So, intertextuality exists no matter whether in writing or reading. With the development of literary criticism, more attention has been paid to the role of readers. It is safe to say that in the turn of reader-oriented theory, intertextuality plays a curial role.

In his most widely-read critical work, *The Anxiety of Influence*, Harold Bloom concludes that, “poetry in the post-Miltonic period stems from two motivations: the first concerns the desire to imitate the precursor’s poetry, from which the poet first learnt what poetry was. The second concerns the desire to be original and defend against the knowledge that all the poet is doing is imitating rather than creating afresh” (Allen, 2000, p. 134). This view indicates Bloom’s vision of poetry is intertextual, however, it leads to a more serious question: the relation of tradition and creation.

This topic has been talked about by critics all the time. According to T. S. Eliot, tradition is an order which coexists simultaneously: most texts of tradition coexist in the thought of contemporaries. Thus, when it comes to poets and their precursors, “the best part of one certain poet, even the most characteristic part is just where their precursors’ most immortal point lies in” and poetry creation is a process of impersonality. “The poet has, not a “personality” to express, but a particular medium, which is only a medium and not a personality, in which impressions and experiences combine in peculiar and unexpected ways…Poetry is not a turning loose of emotion, but an escape from emotion; it is not the expression of personality, but an escape from personality” (Preston, 1974, pp. 11-16).

T. S. Eliot considers tradition as an ideal order and denies the subjectivity of the author. Harold Bloom holds the opposite opinion. For him, tradition is the obstacle which new poets must break away from. He has proved the strength of innovation through “six ratios”. His theory of “misreading” denies all exact reading that would lead to the so-called ultimate reading. It is this reading that makes writing creative. Just as Robert Escarpit put it, “misreading could even be said ‘creative betray’, which gives literary works a brand-new feature to keep another different communication with more readers” (Wang, 2005, p. 84). This has proven the claim of Kierkegaard, “people who are willing to work are bound to give birth to his father” (Wang, 2005, p. 88).

Thus, there is no definite inherited relation between tradition and creation. Actually, the history of literature is a non-linear one; it exists within an intertextual net, which indicates the nature of literature itself.

Although Cunningham borrows some images and themes from Woolf's novel and totally agrees with her general vision and depiction of human consciousness, he popularizes her techniques and successfully
creates his own style. 'is novel is neither a clone of Mrs. Dalloway nor hollow, rather, it is a successful enhancement and it has greatly expanded Cunningham’s rank and abilities as a young novelist. He is, according to Bloom, a mighty poet.

**References**

Mrs. Morel’s Sorrow as a Domineering Woman – Analysis on Sons and Lovers

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[Abstract] D. H. Lawrence’s Sons and Lovers has always been a focus of critics. Some feminist literary critics sternly criticized Mr. Morel and Paul who were the men who were destroyed in the novel. In fact, the real victim is seemingly pitiful Mrs. Morel, who failed to realize that modern civilization repressed the nature of her husband; conversely, the husband’s unconscious behaviors and some of her own limitations finally ruined her.

[Keywords] Lawrence; Sons and Lovers; Mrs. Morel; domineering

Introduction
Based on his own experiences in transcription and the influence of the women’s liberation movement, Lawrence created many female images by the penetrating description of female psychology and their self-consciousness (Zhao, 2010). Meanwhile, he also saw that the industrial development had destroyed the human spirit, especially women who had suffered distortion and destruction, which eventually led to their alienation. So we say Sons and Lovers is not only an autobiographical novel, a novel of the growth of a man, but it is also fiction reflecting the profound alienation of women. The kinds of views from critics provide a multi-dimensional cultural perspective of Lawrence for our research work. Regarding Mrs. Morel, many critics thought she should mainly be responsible for Paul’s destruction. This alienation also made her have no way to release her anxiety. In addition to her own inner problems, resulting in her dependence on men economically and emotionally, but also in a political and social status, she is eager to get equal rights as men. This inner contradiction showed her as a domineering woman in her character, thus causing her bitter life. This paper, first from Mrs. Morel’s initial love with John, expresses her strong character. Second, in the marriage with her husband, Mrs. Morel’s aggressive character deprives the husband of his family position in terms of emotion. Third, Mrs. Morel’s suffocating love ruins her sons, as well as herself. Finally, this paper analyzes the reasons for causing her misfortune life (Zhao, 2010).

Mrs Morel’s Aggressive Character Expressed in Her First Love with John
In Lawrence’s early work, Sons and Lovers, he describe three women’s alienation in love, marriage, and family life, and the author showed us a fact: in the combination of capitalism and a patriarchal society, men’s first duty was to be engaged in economic activity; the men came into public as major laborers, while women were trapped in the family, dealing with trivial, repetitive chores all day, and as excluded from the edge of the domestic market as the oppressed (Zhao, 2010). Mrs. Morel lives in a patriarchal society, and although she is not independent in economy as other women in her society are, she has some level of education, and was the product of the capitalist industrialization. She plans her children’s future according to her own will, dominates all of the family affairs and deprives her husband of the family authority (Liu, 2007).

Mrs. Morel’s such dominant, controlling characteristics are illustrated through her first lover, her husband, and her son’s attitude and reaction. Mrs. Morel was born in a small bourgeois family with short stature, but she has inherited his father’s pride and stubborn temper, belonging to a member of a new
generation of Victorian women. She has been struggling with the patriarchal phase since childhood. She hates her father because he treats her mother peremptorily. In her inner heart, she is eager to become an authoritative, independent, and responsible man. The novel initially introduced her first love with John. They talk about his future; his father wants him to inherit the family business, but he wants to be a preacher, so he is puzzled. When he turns to her for help, her voice rang with defiance, “If I were a man, nothing would stop me” (Lawrence, 2005). From this, we see Mrs. Morel has a different understanding of life compared with other general women, she wants to become the master of the family, not just the decoration of the family. In social activities, it is more obvious she is such a bright, cheerful, aspiring and cultivated woman, but her first lover eventually married a 40-year-old widow with property. She only keeps his Bible, but she buries the memory of him in her heart. Until her death, she never mentioned him. This action shows her contempt for John who cannot be master of his fate, but on the other hand, it also shows that she decides to continue to stick to her spiritual faith, that is, she still hopes to become the master of the family.

**Mrs. Morel’s Sorrow as a Domineering Woman formed in Marriage with Her Husband**

Mrs. Morel’s communication with Mr. Morel before their marriage let her see a brand-new life unfolding in front of her. In her eyes, the miner is charming, full of vitality, who is typical and very tempting to her. But reality is usually cruel, and after only one year of marriage she learns, by chance, that her husband merely obeys her advice on giving up alcohol on the surface, but in fact he still goes to the pub to drink and chat. She also learns that the house that they are living in, and the furniture, were all bought on credit, and there is a zero deposit in the home. Her heart is filled with disappointment. She falls from the peak of newly-married happiness into a deep despair when she finds her husband cheated on her. However, as a woman accepting the new influence of feminism, she isn’t resigned to everything to accept her fate, nor does she communicate and exchange her views with her husband. On the contrary, she expresses her anger in her own way. More terribly, she finds her husband is not only lacking of education, but he also is not good at expressing his opinions (Jiang, 2003). They have no common language or common interests to share at all. She thought him to be her ideal man, but now this is in vain (Jiang, 2003).

As an educated woman, Mrs. Morel does not like to be under her uneducated husband, she wants to fight for her own existence and the rights of women, which she couldn’t find in her husband. At that moment, the birth of her son provided her the chance. As the children grew up, she invested all of her attention and love to her sons, which led to her husband’s dissatisfaction and his jealousy of the sons. His temper became more and more volatile in that he would beat or scold the children for their small errors. Significantly, the decisive trigger-mechanism which finally excluded Morel from his wife’s emotional life was an act whereby the father symbolically tried to preserve his son’s masculinity against the mother’s attempts to soften and sentimentalize him (Salgado, 2005). Morel cuts off little William’s hair, and from then on Mrs. Morel ceases to yearn for her husband to return to her emotional circle (Salgado, 2005). Therefore, Mrs. Morel hates her husband more. She often uses sharp words to ridicule him, and his manners all show disdain and contempt to her. In her eyes, he is no longer that lover full of confidence and funny talk, he is just a machine to make money to support the family. Influenced by the mother, the father, in the eyes of the children, is also useless in the family. Mrs. Morel’s exclusion of her husband and her monopoly on their sons takes away the father’s family authority. His performance at home is like a clown, and he is regarded as an outsider, and thus, he is kicked out of the door in the emotional aspect. Therefore, a special feeling between the mother and son is set up. In the first instance, the son is a
substitute husband, a vicarious source of the emotional fulfilment that Mrs. Morel cannot find in her marriage (Salgado, 2005). But almost as important is the way in which the son embodies the mother’s burning social aspirations, her ideals of respectability and being looked up to, in all of which her own marriage has so cruelly disappointed her (Salgado, 2005). On both of these counts, the father is singled out as the enemy and the son’s support enlisted in the struggle against him (Salgado, 2005). The remote relation with her husband and the abnormal relation with her sons finally make Mrs. Morel lose her husband, as well as her sons.

Representative of the society in which she lives, Mrs. Morel receives education and is affected by feminism, so in her deep thoughts she is unwilling to accept other’s forcible control. In fact, she is eager to remove the traditional chains on her, eager to get recognition and respect from the world, eager to change her situation through education and finally get equal rights with men. But due to her own limitations and the influence of society, history and so on, she ultimately fails to achieve her own wishes. First, she doesn’t realize that the family misfortune is rooted in the capitalist industrial civilization. Civilization brought economical prosperity, social progress and other positive impacts. However, its negative influences exceeded its positive impacts. It not only destroyed and polluted nature, but more importantly, it distorted people’s psychology and repressed the instinct of men. Under such conditions, miners, such as Mr. Morel, were oppressed without mercy by hard work conditions, and immense work and economic pressure. The only way for Mr. Morel to relax is to drink alcohol to paralyze himself, which leads to his wife’s contempt. Second, Mrs. Morel has no awareness that her dependency on men, economically and emotionally, to some degree, ruins hers. Mrs. Morel is economically dependent on her husband, but she cannot change her husband into her ideal image of a man, so she has to put all her emotion into her sons, who are emotionally attached to her completely. However, this kind of emotion is the instinct of self-consciousness, which fully shows that women, to a certain extent, were short of full independence. The patriarchal thought of this age made women have a deep consciousness that they also needed something to rely on – an innate emotional dependence on men. This was the beginning of Mrs. Morel’s bitter life, because she failed to realize that her husband was the person who would accompany her to the end of life.

**Mrs. Morel’s Proud Sorrow from her Suffocating Love towards Her Sons**

Living in an era when women didn’t have a chance to enjoy equal rights to participate in a social life with men, or be actively involved in social practice activities to change their social status, it was miserable for Mrs. Morel. She can only stay at home all day long, educate her children and do household chores, which becomes the content her life. Constant conflicts between the husband and wife cause an irreparable rift between the two. As the children were born one-by-one, Mrs. Morel gives all of her love to them, especially to the boys. However, this love is very suffocating, and Paul is especially affected the most. Paul has been sick, so his mother always takes care of him. Soon after Paul’s birth, Mrs. Morel can see that there is a kind of pain in his eyes which does not belong to a child, as if it is going to dig out her most hidden thoughts, which causes her more heartache. She is no longer loved by her husband; she had not wanted this child to come, and there it lay in her arms and pulled at her heart. She felt as if the navel string that had connected its frail little body with hers had not been broken. A wave of hot love went over her to the infant. She held it close to her face and breast. With all her force, with all her soul she would make up to it for having brought it into the world unloved. She would love it all the more now it was here; carry it in her love (Lawrence, 2005, p. 34). Due to the mother’s attitude toward the father, the children
form a strong alliance with mom, but they hate their father. This is especially true of Paul. He often prays to let his father die during work. Even when he is ill, he also refuses his father’s attentive care, because his existence exasperates his irritable mood. He asks his mother to make him leave, which makes his father feel dismayed to leave. Lying in the bed, Paul looks at the mother’s toiling figure, and his heart fills with pain; at this time, his heart was full of his mother’s shadow, and he had thoughts of going to take the place of his father, to love his mother.

Because of his physical condition, Paul goes to Willie farm to rest, where he meets the little, shy, beautiful Miriam. They talk about Michelangelo, recite poems, read French and discuss paintings. As his mother, Mrs. Morel does not bless her son because he finds happiness, but she has a compulsion to control her son growing up, jealous of his girlfriends, for fear that she might lose him (Fermiough, 2004). She thinks Paul is her total man, so she can’t permit another woman to lead him away. Whenever Paul goes out with Miriam, his mother would be upset, fearing she would lose her son, for she knows, to some extent, that she couldn’t satisfy her son’s spiritual needs. Each time the son comes back home late after a date, she tries to satirize Paul, accusing him because in his eyes he only treasures his lover. She even puts her arms around his neck with both hands, crying that she has never had a husband (Lawrence, 2005). From this moment on, Paul has a deep resentment of Miriam. Even later when he stays with Miriam, his mother’s figure always appears in his mind, which causes him pain and a feeling of guilt. His constant suffering forces him to finally give her up, returning to his mother’s love, while Paul and Clara’s contact get his mother’s permission. She knows that handsome, beautiful Clara can only satisfy Paul’s physiological desire, and that she has a terrible shortage of spirit of the world. Clara could not communicate with Paul to his soul, so his mother’s status would not waver in her son’s heart. Later, the departure of the two lovers proves Mrs. Morel’s foreseeing judgment about her son.

The children respect their mother, so they are swayed by her and obey her will. She forbids the children to follow their father’s path as a miner, but she tries to get them to live a middle-class life. As a result, William and Paul realized her dream. William is trying to get rid of the bondage of his mother, looking for a job to work in London, but he can’t resist his mother’s control, and he dies of illness. In fact, he dies in the seesaw battle of spirit and flesh. Paul is also under the control of his mother, which prevents him from further developing relations with other women. He often suffers from emotional torture between his mother and lover. Mrs. Morel’s education to her sons proves to be a total failure. Her domineering character builds her sons to be independent men, but to make matters worse, she causes their mental illness, which influence their whole lives.

**Conclusion**

Thus, we see that Mrs. Morel’s heart is full of contradictions; on one hand, she requires women’s rights, but on the other hand, influenced by the bondage of traditional ideas, she eventually wants to find a satisfactory partner to get rid of her boring life. She still regards men as the pillar of her survival, spiritual attachment, and the master of life. Mrs. Morel seldom questions her own actions and behavior. What she doesn’t know is that as a natural person living in nature, especially for a woman, it is wise to give full play to her advantages as a weak woman rather than compete with strong men. As a woman, no matter how powerful she is in society, she has to notice her accurate and final position in family as a perfect wife and mother. As a wife, she is not only to be gentle and considerate, but sometimes she also needs to show her weakness to her husband so she can get his real love. As a mother, she should educate her child reasonably, but she can’t add those emotions which she should show towards her husband to the child,
causing her child the disability of independence or problems of psychology. Mrs. Morel’s sorrow lies in that she couldn’t understand that the civilization destroyed her family, and she owed all her bitterness to her husband. She also didn’t reflect on her own problems in her marriage, but instead only poured her abnormal love to her sons, and she got nothing for herself.

References
A Post-Colonialist View of Intercultural Communication through Films

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[Abstract] As this is an era in which technology and transnational enterprises are booming, intercultural communication is becoming inevitable. Intercultural communication can be achieved in various ways, like cross-cultural meetings, travels, exchange students, internet, books, films, and so on. For most people, films or TV is the major way for them to conduct intercultural communication. With Hollywood films flooding into China, more and more people tend to prefer American films instead of Chinese films, which causes the consequence that Chinese people are greatly influenced by American values and lifestyle. That is what we call post-colonialism, since Western culture and economic forces begin to take place; military occupation is a way to maintain their influence.

[Keywords] intercultural communication; films; post-colonialism

Introduction
Nowadays, it is becoming a tendency that Hollywood movies will be most people’s priority when they go to the cinema. With numerous Hollywood movies flooding into the Chinese film market, American values silently penetrate among young people. More and more people adore the Western lifestyle and are influenced by it gradually and greatly. Different from invasions in the past, this invasion happens in fields like culture and literature, and so on. We call it post-colonialism. This article aims to analyze the intercultural communication through films from post-colonialism. First, we will stress the crucial role of films in intercultural communication. Then, we will illustrate the current situation of Chinese films and Hollywood films, compare their characteristics, and then analyze some impacts Hollywood films have upon young generations. In other words, in this part, how young people are “invaded” by Western values will be discussed. Finally, we will try to come up with some suggestions to change this situation and rescue Chinese films and Chinese culture.

The Importance of Films in Intercultural Communication
Nowadays, there are more and more chances that people can communicate with foreigners directly, either in person or through organizations. However, for most people, the major way that they can get access to knowing foreign people or foreign cultures is still through televisions, the internet, books, and so on (Guan, 1999, p. 51). Therefore, it becomes evident that literary works and movies really play a crucial part in intercultural communication. Concerning the function of art and literature, Han Minglian stressed, “As a kind of media of intercultural communication, literature and art are more vivid and concrete than social science...art and literature are dynamic, and they can reflect cultural phenomenon enduringly. What art and literature can display can be colorful, rich, subtle and implicit. Therefore, they are more informative and closer to the core of culture” (Han, 1998, p. 41). Film, as an important form of literature and art, is obviously informative enough. This is the reason why this paper chooses intercultural communication through films as a theme of study.
Overwhelming American Movies in China

Since the reform and opening up, American movies have poured into the Chinese market in great numbers, which has led to a dangerous situation for Chinese movies and even cultural values. The statistics below may better show that:

**Table 1. Summary of the Chinese Film Market of the 46th Week of 2013**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Film</th>
<th>Number of Films</th>
<th>Number of People</th>
<th>Box Office (ten thousand)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>605087</td>
<td>9612773</td>
<td>33151</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thor: The Dark World</td>
<td>181099</td>
<td>3916550</td>
<td>15295</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Escape Plan</td>
<td>118409</td>
<td>2600582</td>
<td>8230</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Red</td>
<td>62468</td>
<td>1164335</td>
<td>3592</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Love You for Loving Me</td>
<td>52611</td>
<td>519183</td>
<td>1598</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Love Speaks</td>
<td>49230</td>
<td>367169</td>
<td>1147</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hotel Transylvania</td>
<td>28624</td>
<td>313724</td>
<td>1124</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My Boyfriends</td>
<td>19971</td>
<td>150238</td>
<td>463</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uncontrolled Mind</td>
<td>11050</td>
<td>85475</td>
<td>302</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stalingrad</td>
<td>8720</td>
<td>67282</td>
<td>275</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Black Mirror</td>
<td>13094</td>
<td>66867</td>
<td>199</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 2. Summary of the Chinese Film Market of the 48th Week of 2013**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Film</th>
<th>Number of Films</th>
<th>Number of People</th>
<th>Box Office (ten thousand)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>524565</td>
<td>10440161</td>
<td>36583</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gravity</td>
<td>156842</td>
<td>3422146</td>
<td>14052</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The White Storm</td>
<td>71748</td>
<td>2522631</td>
<td>7954</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Hunger Games:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Catching Fire</td>
<td>111481</td>
<td>2148432</td>
<td>6857</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Epic</td>
<td>26925</td>
<td>655362</td>
<td>2254</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>61481</td>
<td>655215</td>
<td>2011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thor: The Dark World</td>
<td>28439</td>
<td>355972</td>
<td>1315</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Escape Plan</td>
<td>22150</td>
<td>337347</td>
<td>1103</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Red</td>
<td>11298</td>
<td>86459</td>
<td>282</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voyage Extraordinaire</td>
<td>3979</td>
<td>30895</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Story of Zhou Enlai</td>
<td>308</td>
<td>23877</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: http://weibo.com/dianyingpiaofangba?is_search=1&key_word=2013%2047#_rnd1437234977278.

Above is information of the movie market from the 46th and 48th week in 2013. In the 46th week, the top three Hollywood movies together reached almost 27 million, which was almost 75% of the total income. Therefore, we can easily find that in these two weeks, the Chinese movie market is almost dominated by Hollywood; some Chinese movies are even relegated to limbo. *Gravity*, from Hollywood, by James Cameron, is really a big seller in China. By the end of the 48th week of 2013, it has embraced a good grade with $59 million dollars, which makes China first in all countries around the world to view this movie. From the statistics above, we can see that the Chinese film market is greatly threatened by competition from American films. Why is that? By analyzing some characteristics of Chinese and American films, we hope we can find out some clues and ways to rescue Chinese films.
Characteristics of Chinese Films Compared with American Films

A solid background knowledge and rich cultural connotations are typical characteristics of Chinese films (Zhang, 2012). Abstract and elusive lines sometimes can be very difficult to catch, even for a Chinese, not to mention foreigners. In addition to that, it seems that Chinese films cover few universal values. Chinese films are usually set in a certain background and stories are always within that background and among several people, so it might seem hard to arouse resonance worldwide. However, American films do not have concerns like Chinese films because America is, after all, a very new country formed by various people from various places, and either its language or values seem to be more universal than Chinese values. Therefore, having a solid background knowledge and rich cultural connotations really becomes a burden for Chinese films to go out and succeed in the global market.

Chinese films always turn their lens towards poor and lonely villages where people are ignorant and impoverished. Maybe directors intend to aim at the poor and laggard side of China in order to earn some attention of Western people, who take it for granted that America is the only super power in the world and that other countries, like China, are assumed to be poor and undeveloped. In order to fit Westerners’ tastes, meet their expectations, and win the market there, Chinese directors make China “the other,” which twists the real image of China and misleads some Western audiences. In comparison, most American movies tend to exaggerate real-life circumstances and always aim at certain super rich and powerful groups. America is described as a free, beautiful, developed, and strong country where people are all attractive, successful, confident, and eloquent. They can realize their American dreams by working hard.

Chinese films cover few and limited subjects and tend to rely on history as their backgrounds (Zhang Yiyin, 2012), such as Hero, The Banquet, Curse of the Golden Flower, and so on. Since China is the only ancient civilization that has survived, the Chinese people feel very proud of and show great respect to their 5000-year history. Therefore, Chinese directors favor historical backgrounds to present with audience our extensive and profound Chinese traditional culture. In contrast, American directors prefer to choose the future as the backgrounds of most films due to the fact that America is a newly founded country constituted of various people around the world with only about 200 years of history. Various races confer upon American people the quality of tolerance, and they welcome and accept difference. It could to some extent explain the fact that American films usually cover a very broad scope. Subjects that American films are involved with are from environmental protection, outer space, protection of the rights of women and children, an aging society, AIDS, and homosexuality. Moreover, different from the Chinese people, who are past-oriented, the American people are future-oriented, so American films are inclined to imagine the unknown future, which seems more tantalizing; as a result, many science fiction films come into our view, such as 2001, Pacific Rim, Resident Evil, and so on. Those science fiction films have become a big success around the world.

Weak 3D technology is another feature of Chinese movies compared with American movies, where many famous directors like James Cameron, Steven Spielberg, and Robert Zemeckis are crazy about 3D. They have spent huge sums of money on 3D without hesitation, so audiences have benefited from an enjoyable audio-visual feast. That becomes the most important element in the success of American movies. China lags behind with regards to movie technology, although I believe we can catch up with great efforts.
What needs to be noticed is that American movies contain plenty of so-called “universal values.” In essence, what they want to advocate and spread to the globe is still American values and their ways of living, and universal values are just a tool conducive to their purpose (Zhang, 2012).

**Post-Colonialism**

In the 19th century, Western colonialism took direct military occupation as the main way of invasion. They invaded a country and turned it into a colony or semi-colony. However, since 20th century, the colonies of Asia, Africa, and Latin America have won their national liberation. Western countries realized that direct military occupation might get them dragged into the condemnation of humanity and democracy. Therefore, they changed their way of invasion from military occupation to the invasion in culture and economy. According to Wang Ning, the term “postcolonial theory” only exists in English and it is seldom seen in French. It is complex theoretical research about European imperialist powers’ invasion in culture, politics, and history, different from the old colonial approach (Wang, 1995, p. 55). In other words, they plan to carry on colonialism by controlling the economy, influencing the politics, and assimilating the culture of oriental countries. That is post-colonialism.

The word post-colonialism appeared in 1959, and it also means post-colonial criticism. It is a kind of cultural infiltration and cultural invasion. In theory, it is often shown as cultural colonialism, cultural hegemonism, and cultural imperialism. Post-colonialism began in the political domain and later penetrated the literary criticism domain. In post-colonialism, it is believed that advanced Western countries and their culture are the center of the world and the cultures of undeveloped non-Western countries are deemed as marginal cultures; Western countries are suzerains, and oriental countries are their tributaries.

What floods into the Chinese market are not only American films, but also American values and their lifestyles carried by films. While numerous Chinese audiences surge towards American films, their values have been influenced more or less unconsciously. However, of course, American films have brought some positive impacts, but some negative ones cannot be ignored.

One positive impact can be the changing of aesthetic standards of the Chinese people, especially the young group. In the past, most people considered “skinny” as “beautiful.” So many young girls try to get slimmer by eating very little, which, of course, is a very unhealthy way to lose weight. Different from girls in oriental countries, people in Western countries are not skinny, since they have broader shoulders and crotches and strong arms and thighs. However, their bodies look really energetic and vigorous. Western people really work out a lot, and they take pride in their strong muscles, whether males or females. Gradually, the Chinese people have begun to favor Western-style fitness, and they have begun to change their traditional ways of keeping fit. Instead of eating little, they start to keep fit by going to gyms. Instead of being skinny, they come to find that strong people with muscle is more beautiful. An optimistic and positive world view is another good impact. Most American movies aim to manifest decent qualities, like perseverance, hard work, bravery, confidence, and so on. Leading actors in *Forrest Gump*, *The Shawshank Redemption*, and *Finding Nemo* all advocate such positive values, which, to some extent, are encouraging to Chinese audiences.

However, the negative impacts brought by American films are what are really worth paying attention to. The first needs to be addressed are the hedonism and consumerism. American films often present audiences with super rich and powerful groups of people who are socially engaged in various luxurious parties in big-brand outfits. Carrie Bradshaw in *Sex and the City* once said that girls came to New York
for two Ls – Love and Label. That drama is overwhelmed with luxuries like Vivienne Westwood, Jimmy Choo, Dolce & Gabbana, Manolo Blahnik, Dior, Fendi, and so on, which to some extent arouse in audiences the desire of pursuing big brands. Many young people begin to pursue these big brands, even though only a few people are capable of living a life saturated with luxuries; this can make most people live a hard life. Moreover, it is totally the other way around with what is advocated in Chinese traditional values where diligence and thrift are highly valued, and minds of rivalry and extravagance are highly criticized. Another negative impact of American films is that they might lead to the propensity of violence. American films are brimming with violent and bloody scenes, like all kinds of horrific killing, murder, vampires, and so on. When the audience sees too much of them, they will feel numb about pain and fear, so some who might have psychological problems might even try to imitate these films. That is a serious potential problem.

Moreover, American films might also make Chinese audiences feel inferior, which might even undermine their national pride and confidence. The American lens prefers to aim at rich and powerful groups of people who have little pressure from work and family, devote themselves to all kinds of activities and enjoyable parties, and hardly worry about money and jobs. America is described as a free, beautiful, and developed country with the most advanced technology and well-established social welfare. The Chinese audience might admire the American lifestyle and find their life not as satisfactory as Americans’.

**Suggestions**

Though the situation that American movies outshine others cannot be altered in one day or two, Chinese film artists need to figure out ways to rescue Chinese films from the background of globalization to improve and strengthen Chinese people. Below are only some tiny suggestions, and I believe more feasible solutions will come to give Chinese film a promising future. While we adhere to our Chinese traditional characteristics, it would be better if we can add some universal values to our films. For example, Confucian humane and harmonious ideals and returning to one’s original nature in Taoism could be wonderful choices. We can absorb some elite part of other cultures to make Chinese films more attractive to audiences. In this regard, Hollywood sets a very good example. Based on the need of the national film market, Hollywood movies stick to their own cultural values and, also, combine them with the cultures of different potential film markets, which guarantees huge profits for the film industry. That is what we can learn. At last, we need to study the real connotation of our extensive and profound Chinese culture and present our cultural spirit to the world as it really is, changing the stereotypes of Westerners and informing them of the real China.

**Conclusion**

As we all know, the development of things depends fundamentally on internal causes. Therefore, we need to improve our understandings of our own culture, find out problems, and figure out ways to fix them. Faced with the invasion of Western countries, we need to keep our head sober and clear, and do as Lu Xun, one of the greatest writers in modern times, has said: assimilate their merits and reject their dross, so as to survive from the post-colonialism and better promote our Chinese culture.
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The Embedded Narration and the Unreliable Narrators in

*The Turn of the Screw*

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**Abstract** Henry James’ controversial novella “The Turn of the Screw” attracted great attention from readers in different ways. This paper explores the narrative techniques of the novella and attempts to show that the unique structure of Henry James’ design and the unreliable narrators in the story contribute to the build-up of the ambiguous atmosphere so that various possibilities of study can be reached.

**Keywords** “The Turn of the Screw”; the embedded structure; the unreliable narrators

**Introduction**

Henry James’ tale *The Turn of the Screw* is successful in its design of plot and artistic conceptions. The ambiguous haunted atmosphere in the tale has, for such a long time, been drawing great attention and interpretations in various forms—literary analyses, films, opera, and such, all adopting possible ways to show different understandings of the tale. Besides being one of James’ outstanding works, it also reaches a high level in narrative techniques through which Henry James profoundly traps his readers (Zhu, 2002, p. 80).

*The Turn of the Screw* is an obscure story, telling about an unnamed governess, who carries the rosy dream of marrying the handsome master and, thus, agrees to come to Bly to look after the master’s nephew and niece, Miles and Flora, with the aid of the old housekeeper, Mrs. Grose. The appearance of the ghosts of Quint, the former housekeeper, and Miss Jessel, the former governess, however, brings her great torture. When she realizes that the two ghosts are seeking Miles and Flora, she determines to fight against them. Flora, according to the narration of the governess, misunderstands her, and she asks Mrs. Grose to take her away to her uncle but leaves Miles behind. That night, the ghost of Quint appears again. In this time of crisis, the governess tries to protect Miles by pressing him in her arms. Only when the ghost disappears in the darkness does the governess realize that Miles has died in her arms.

Henry James doesn’t tell the story directly, however. Right from the prologue, the embedded narration builds up layers of gruesome atmospheres. The narrator, “I”, introduces his friend Douglas, who claims that he has a ghost story to tell, but it is actually written in a manuscript of his sister’s governess. The story, of course, is the experience of the governess before she becomes governess to Douglas’ sister, and Douglas shows his admiration of the governess. From the manuscript, we see the governess, who has been haunted with hallucinations and knits her recollection with agony. Unreliable narrators within the embedded maze are, thus, prominent in the story telling.

**The Embedded Narration in *The Turn of the Screw***

In practicing his art, Henry James indulged himself in the delicate arrangements of the narrative structures in his tale to create an ambiguous effect. In the prologue, it’s quite easy to identify the embedded structure with levels of narration. Narrative level, as Hu Yamin defines in her book *Narratology* (1994), “refers to the boundary in-between stories or narratives in one story” (p. 42). Rimmon-Kenan also gives her explanation about the narrative level in that the action of a character is the object of narrative, while the
character or characters in the narration also have their own story to tell. The form of a-story-within-a-story, or stories-within-a-story, thus form levels with each internal narrative story belonging to its next closest outer layer (as cited in Hu, 1994). Here in The Turn of the Screw, the narrative levels are quite explicit. The embedded structure locates the governess in the center of the framework, and the very outer layer of which is the narration of Douglas. In a similar way, we can find still another layer out of Douglas’s narration—the narration of “I”, the anonymous man who accompanies Douglas on Christmas Eve and through whom Douglas is introduced. This absent-minded Douglas guides the attention of the reader to the ultimate narrator, that is, the unnamed governess. This frame-within-a-frame design successfully pushes the central character into the spotlight.

The initial part of the story is written in a conventional mode: a warm gathering of friends by the fireplace on Christmas Eve. The first-person narrator of the outer layer narration, “I”, notices one of the friends, Douglas, who apparently doesn’t follow the story-telling – in this way the new narrator is introduced. Douglas, contrary to expectation, however, is not the internal narrator. Emotionally, Douglas then mentions the manuscript of his sister’s governess. If “I” is at the first layer of the external level, then Douglas is at the second layer at which level the reader can gradually decide that the real story begins.

An identical embedded narration is again used in the further development of the story. The center of the embedded frameworks varies with the progress of the plot. The governess is a newcomer to Bly, so Mrs. Grose, the housekeeper, who has beheld and experienced the mysterious past of the homestead, somewhat unwillingly introduces people and events to her and to the reader. Thus, Mrs. Grose stands in the center of the embedded framework. Similarly, Miles, the young master, who is expelled by school for unknown reasons, is also the center of the framework of school events. However, it is a riddled framework, for the governess, and even Mrs. Grose, is excluded from the knowledge of the whole event. Disappointedly, however, for various reasons, neither Mrs. Grose nor Miles tells any truth that the governess, or rather, the reader, is eager to know – everything is ambiguous. Whatever the truth is, one thing is quite sure: the embedded structures employed in the story works excellently. As Lucie Armitt (2009) explains in her book Fantasy Fiction: An Introduction:

*Once the teller starts, we learn that, although it is to be narrated orally, he (Douglas) will have to retrieve a written text from a locked drawer, and in order to do this he will have to ‘send to town’... Furthermore, the version we are reading is not the version Douglas tells, but a further written version... by our frame narrator... this is pure Gothic formula, with secrets raveled up in secrets to evoke a labyrinthine quest for a truth that recedes as quickly as it is chased* (Armitt, 2009, p. 182).

The embedded narration thus enforces the Gothic atmosphere by gradually uncovering layers of the narration. In this way The Turn of the Screw develops its power of being a strange and unsettling tale.

**Unreliable Narrators**

*The Governess as an Unreliable Narrator*

Hu Yamin indicates in her Narratology that the reader may heavily rely on the narrator in his or her reading. For many reasons, however, there may be some narrators who are not reliable, usually unconsciously, such as if the narrator is a child, an idiot, or somebody strange in a certain place or time, and such. Their narrations might be influenced or limited by their own knowledge and perspectives.
In *The Turn of the Screw*, there are many occasions in which we can judge that the governess is in a morbid state. This state makes it possible for her to be an unreliable narrator. Take the last chapter, for instance. When the story is marching on to its end, the governess is trying to dig all the secrets out of the poor boy, Miles. In her “recollection,” we can feel the pride drown by the strong sense of her heroism. When she finds Quint is right outside of the window, she reacts swiftly: “It represents but grossly what took place within me at the sight to say that on the second my decision was made; yet I believe that no woman so overwhelmed ever in so short a time recovered her command of the act” (James, 2000, p. 90). She IS really great that even under such a horrible scene she can still press Miles for the truth. When Quint disappears, she feels her “personal triumph,” and she can’t help letting her “elation out” (James, 2000, p. 91).

Such a pompous attitude and ultra-behavior means too much to a young boy like Miles. Besides, the boy is suffering the torture of being found out for stealing the letter that the governess had written to the master all this comes suddenly to him. It’s just too heavy a burden for a young boy to bear. Hence, when the governess pulls him into her arms, she “could feel in the sudden fever of his little body the tremendous pulse of his little heart, …” (James, 2000, p. 90). This strongly contrasts to the tragic ending of the story: “I held him…and his little heart, dispossessed, had stopped” (James, 2000, p. 94). A young life fades. In the strong confidence of the governess, this results from the harm of the two ghosts and not from her. In her mind, she is still the loyal guardian embracing the poor body until the end.

While reviewing the onward march of the events, we can see the unreliable elements within the governess. Apart from the frequent appearance of the ghost of Quint (it’s not that important here if Quint’s image is there or not), her enforcing pressure of Miles is far too much of a threat and blow to the young boy. When the threat is overloaded, the tragedy is unavoidable.

Still in the last chapter, the governess’s self-defense is obvious – when she urges Miles to tell the real reason of his expulsion from school, she writes: “My face must have shown him I believed him utterly; yet my hands – but it was for pure tenderness – shook him as if to ask him why, if it was all for nothing, he had condemned me to months of torment” (James, 2000, p. 91). The sentence in between the two dashes “but it was for pure tenderness” is rather a confession without being asked. In a boy’s eyes, it is a harsh ordeal to be held by the arms and shaken by a woman that urgently. One can hardly think it is “pure tenderness.” Under such circumstance when she still thinks, “My face must have shown him I believed him utterly,” it is a mere excuse for self-defense. Another piece of evidence comes when she realizes that the boy might not have committed such severe harm as she expected to his peers at school. Instead of feeling released, she asks: “for if he were innocent what then on earth was I?” (James, 2000, p. 92). It seems to imply that in order to prove her own innocence, she would rather hope that Miles is the guilty one. All the self-defense, perhaps subconsciously, rightly reveals the unreliability of her being a narrator of her own story.

**Douglas as an Unreliable Narrator**

Apparently, on Christmas Eve, Douglas is deeply absorbed in nostalgic emotions. He still carries good memories of the governess: “she was a most charming person … she was the most agreeable woman I’ve ever known in her position” (James, 2000, p. 4). He never feels it’s too much to praise the goddess-like woman. Besides his words, there are his actions. A woman guest, teasing all the time, cries out: “Oh, how delicious!” (James, 2000, p. 4). It is quite possible that out of his revulsion to this impolite attitude that Douglas postpones his telling of the story until the garrulous woman goes away, an action from which we can see Douglas’s great respect and care for the governess. Through all the efforts and the delicate design
of the embedded structure, Henry James successfully heightens the reader’s curiosity, making it then the best time to unfold the story.

Douglas’ complex feelings towards the governess undoubtedly make him carry personal emotions when describing the governess to his audience. Critics even have boldly guessed about the intimacy between Douglas and the governess:

*Is it possible, then, that Douglas [the employer] is Miles [the haunted boy]? That the governess, in love with Miles (Douglas), and unable to act in the situation, herself wrote a story, a fiction? And, finally, that Douglas as a child, as well as a young man down from Trinity, was in love with the governess?* (qtd. in Booth, 1983, p. 370).

While we may not necessarily agree with this assessment, his evaluation of the governess, before the real story begins, definitely effects the judgment of the reader. If we take Douglas as a reliable narrator, with the good impression of the governess that he gives us, it’s even more difficult to understand the story itself.

*Mrs. Grose as an Unreliable Narrator*

Mrs. Grose has served the family for so long that she knows everything that has happened in Bly. For some reasons or other, she decides to keep the information secret from the governess. While the latter says shyly but excitingly that she is carried away by the charms of the master, Mrs. Grose smiles and says, “Well, miss, you’re not the first – and you won’t be the last” (James, 2000, p. 11). There are so many secrets that are kept so well in Bly. We have every reason to believe that Mrs. Grose, the old housekeeper, keeps the most – on purpose.

When the governess first arrives at Bly, she can feel that Mrs. Grose is happy to see her. While the governess says dreamingly, “He seems to like us young and pretty” (James, 2000, p.14), and Mrs. Grose, somewhat at a loss of thought at that time, answers weirdly – it seems that she’s referring to someone else and not the master as the governess did while talking about “he.” While the governess intensively asks questions, she puts forward a curt answer and quickly goes away. She refuses to explain the death of Miss. Jessel, and she refuses to believe the governess when she says that Miss Jessel’s spirit is there by the lake, but the next day she comes to confess that she believes her (James, 2000, p.10, 14-15, 15, 33, 36), just to mention a few such descriptions of the weird behavior of Mrs. Grose. The descriptions gives good reason to suspect that she has for a long time realized that the Bly is turning into a haunted castle that she is urgently in need of a good help – the governess then is her good help. As an old maid serving for so long, she has experienced the lives of two generations in Bly. She should have shared all the knowledge that the governess is so anxious to learn. However, on most occasions, she chooses to keep them all secret. The probable reason is that she ardently loves the family she serves, and she’s determined to devote herself to Bly, especially to the two children who are so cute and naïve as angels. While she realizes the danger that the family is encountering, her great loyalty requires her to do anything possible to maintain the family. The governess arrives at the right time: her great sense of responsibility, her quality of being kind-hearted, and her eagerness to be a good governess proves to be a perfect choice to help the children out of the dilemma. Her fear that the notorious former governess and the family evil might result in the dismissal of the new governess causes Mrs. Grose to choose not to tell her anything – it is only right and proper to keep the sin of Bly from the governess so that she could keep her dream and stay and help as long as possible. In order to cover the evil past of Bly, Mrs. Grose keeps a distance from the governess, and of course, from the reader, a distance so great that what she says is far beyond the truth.
Conclusion
In fact, Henry James employs many more narrative techniques in his *The Turn of the Screw* than just the two that are discussed here. The embedded narration and unreliable narrators meet the same goal in *The Turn of the Screw*: to build up an ambiguous atmosphere. Henry James successfully accomplishes this goal and makes the story one of his most mysterious works, so that the multiple decipherment of the story becomes possible.

References
Literature Review of Mao Dun’s Translation Theories
– To Remember Mao Dun’s 120th Birth Anniversary

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[Abstract] Mao Dun (1896-1981), a productive translator and a prominent translation theorist in China, contributed tremendously to the translation circle. Mao Dun’s remarkable translation theories were indispensable parts in Chinese translation history and played a key role in the construction of translation theories in China. As 2016 is the year to remember the 120th anniversary of Mao Dun’s birth, this paper gives a thorough literature review of Mao Dun’s translation theories and concludes that scholars have made progress since 1980s, but there are still some gaps for further study in terms of the research perspective, the research content and the research methodology.

[Keywords] Mao Dun; translation theories; literature review; 120th anniversary of birth

Introduction
Mao Dun (1896-1981), a great translator, as well as a famous translation theorist in China, obtained great achievements in his translation career. As a great translator, Mao Dun translated many works from different countries, which amounted to ten volumes of translated works. As a famous translation theorist, Mao Dun put forward many sparkling translation theories from 1919 to 1981, and took part in the construction of translation theories in China. “As for the quantity, Mao Dun’s translation theories came to the top in China; And as for the quality, his translation theories were objective, wholesome and systematic” (Meng & Li, 2005, p. 154). Before 1949 Mao Dun published many articles on translation, and after 1949, Mao Dun became the first Culture Minister of China and stated many important guidelines on translation. “To study those translation theories of Mao Dun will not only help to understand the system of translation theories since 1919, but also will help to promote the construction of translation theories and enhance the development of literary translation cause in China” (Wang, 1985, p. 89).

As 2016 is drawing near, the correct year to remember Mao Dun’s 120th birth anniversary, it is vital for us to review what has been studied on his translation theories. This not only will help us enrich our understanding of Mao Dun’s translation theories, but also can help us further our research in the future. Therefore, this paper will go through those studies on Mao Dun’s translation theories in the 1980s, in the 1990s, in the 2000s and in the 2010s. After such a literature review of Mao Dun’s translation theories, this paper comes to the conclusion that some progress has been made since 1980s, yet there is still some room for further study in terms of the research perspective, the research content, as well as the research methodology.

Literature Review of Mao Dun’s Translation Theories in the 1980s
In the 1980s, scholars mainly introduced Mao Dun’s translation theories including translation purpose, translation standard, translation method, translation mode and translation criticism, etc. Many scholars emphasized the importance of Mao Dun’s translation theories in terms of its historical value, as well as its
present significance. However, few studies gave a detailed elaboration on the historical value or the present significance of Mao Dun’s translation theories.

Yang Yu (1983) introduced Mao Dun’s translation theories including translation standard, translation method and translation mode, asserting that Mao Dun’s translation theories were valuable to guide the translation cause in China. Wang Weiping (1985) discussed Mao Dun’s translation purpose, translation standard, translation method, translation mode and translator quality, etc., thinking that Mao Dun’s translation theories played an important role in Chinese translation history. Jin Yanyu (1986) talked about Mao Dun’s translation of children’s literature, including translation purpose, translation materials and translation language, stating that Mao Dun’s translation of children literature was helpful to the creation of Chinese literature. Yang Jianmin (1986) mainly talked about Mao Dun’s translation standard together with his translation method, regarding that Mao Dun’s consistent translation theories were treasures in the Chinese translation history. Ren Xiaojin (1986) studied Mao Dun’s translation theories covering translation standard, translation method, translation mode, translation criticism and translator quality, asserting that Mao Dun’s translation theories occupied an outstanding position in Chinese translation history. Zhu Yuzhi (1989) introduced Mao Dun’s translation theories, including translation purpose, translation criticism, translation method and translation mode, etc. thinking that Mao Dun was both a pioneer in the Chinese translation circle and a leader of the Chinese youngsters in literature.

**Literature Review of Mao Dun’s Translation Theories in the 1990s**

In the 1990s, scholars also emphasized the importance of Mao Dun’s translation theories and mainly discussed his translation purpose, translation standard, translation mode and translation method, etc. Moreover, some scholars discussed the relationship between Mao Dun’s translation theories and his literary creation, as well as the relationship between his translation theories and the social context. This definitely broadened our scope of studies on Mao Dun’s translation theories. However, few scholars focused on the relationship between Mao Dun’s translation theories and those potential factors affecting his translation activities.

Jin Fang (1993) stated that Mao Dun’s translation theories played an important role in Chinese translation history, including his translation purpose, translation materials, translation standard, translation method, and translation criticism, etc., which contributed a lot to the translation circle. Sun Zhili (1996) held the view that Mao Dun’s “artistic creative translation” enhanced the level of Chinese translation theories and his report on translation in 1954 was significant to guide the translation cause in China. Zhang Xiangyu & Wang Jiling (1999) discussed the relationship between Mao Dun’s translation and literary writing, as well as the relationship between Mao Dun’s translation and the social reality. It can be seen that some factors affecting Mao Dun’s translation still need to be studied, such as factors of politics, culture and other translators, etc.

**Literature Review of Mao Dun’s Translation Theories in the 2000s**

In the 2000s, scholars made great progress in the research perspective, the research content and the research methodology. First, as for the research perspective, scholars talked about Mao Dun’s translation theories from the perspective of culture, reception theories, and translation Skopos theories. Second, as for the research content, some scholars began to focus on some key translation theories of Mao Dun, such as “artistic creative translation”, literary translation criticism, and translation of children’s literature. This can surely enrich our understanding of Mao Dun’s translation theories. Furthermore, some scholars
noticed that there were some contradictions in Mao Dun’s translation theories. However, the potential reasons behind those contradictions were not elaborated in detail. Third, as for the research methodology, some scholars compared differences and similarities of translation theories between Mao Dun and Lu Xun.

Chen Fukang (2000) discussed Mao Dun’s contributions in translation theories before 1919 and Mao Dun’s official report on translation in 1954, holding the view that Mao Dun’s translation theories represented the highest level in his time and guided the development of translation cause in China. Xie Tianzhen & Zha Mingjian (2004) discussed Mao Dun’s translation purpose, translator quality together with translation method, and asserted that Mao Dun’s translation theories were systematic and comprehensive. Wang Yougui (2004) discussed the relationship between Mao Dun’s translation and ideology, and he pointed out some contradictions in Mao Dun’s translations. Meng Zhaoyi & Li Zaidao (2005) commented on Mao Dun’s translation purpose, translation method, and translation standard, etc. thinking that Mao Dun’s view was quite similar to Lun Xun’s in literal translation and retranslation.

Luo Jianzhou (2008) stated that Mao Dun was the pioneer of modern literary translation criticism in China, whose important position in translation criticism should not be ignored. Fan Tengteng (2008) asserted that Mao Dun’s “artistic creative translation” could be viewed as his highest achievement, which guided the development of Chinese translation cause. Li Hongying (2008) mainly discussed Mao Dun’s translation purpose, translation standard, translation method and translation mode, asserting that Mao Dun’s translation theories helped to construct literary translation theories in China. Gan Lu (2008) commented on Mao Dun’s translation theories from the perspective of culture, and concluded that Mao Dun had distinct political purpose in his translation.

Wang Bingqin & Wang Xie (2009) focused on Mao Dun’s “artistic creative translation” as well as “equal importance between translation and creation”, asserting that Mao Dun’s translation theories were significant to construct Chinese translation theories. Tang Lijun & Shu Qizhi (2009) discussed Mao Dun’s translation of children’s literature from the perspective of reception theories, holding the view that Mao Dun’s translation provided spiritual nourishment for children and promoted the development of children’s literature in China. Tang Lijun (2010) talked about Mao Dun’s translation strategies in children’s literature, thinking that Mao Dun’s translation purpose, translation materials and translation strategies were closely connected with the social context.

**Literature Review of Mao Dun’s Translation Theories in the 2010s**

In the 2010s, scholars made achievements in their studies on Mao Dun’s translation theories. First, as to the research perspective, translation Skopos theories, hermeneutics theories, Bourdieu’s social theories, rewriting theories and manipulation theories are employed. Second, as to the research content, some scholars discussed the relationship between Mao Dun’s translation and social context, the relationship between Mao Dun’s translation and his creation, as well as the relationship between Mao Dun’s translation and politics. Furthermore, some scholars began to study factors which affected Mao Dun’s translation, such as ideology, patronage, poetics, social field and personal habitus, etc. Third, as to the research methodology, some scholars compare similarities and differences of translation theories between Mao Dun and Pushkin. Moreover, some scholars began to analyze some of Mao Dun’s translations in novels. However, few studies focused on Mao Dun’s translation practice in dramas, essays, and poems, etc.

Tang Lijun (2010) discussed Mao Dun’s translation purpose, translation materials and translation method in children’s literature from the perspective of translation Skopos theory, asserting that there was
close relationship between Mao Dun’s translation of children’s literature and the social & cultural context. Han Bo (2010a) compared similarities and differences of translation theories between Mao Dun and Pushkin, asserting that they were similar in their views on artistic creative translation and poem translation, while they were different in their views on translation mode. Han Bo (2010b) argued that translation theories of both Mao Dun and Pushkin were foreseeable, for they started to discuss “why to translate” from “how to translate”. Li Beibei (2010) mainly talked about Mao Dun’s ideas about artistic creative translation, translator quality and translation method, holding the view that we should treasure our Chinese translation theories when we were learning translation theories from Western countries. Pei Huili & Li Junling (2011) discussed Mao Dun’s translation materials of children’s literature from the perspective of hermeneutics, asserting that Mao Dun’s patriotism influenced his translation of works from weak and small nations. Du Jiayi (2011) talked about Mao Dun’s literal translation and poem translation, thinking that Mao Dun’s translation was closely connected with his creation. Zhu Jun (2011) discussed Mao Dun’s translation purpose and translation materials from the perspective of politics, holding the view that Mao Dun’s translation served the purpose to input Western modern thoughts and to develop Chinese literature.

Lu Zhiguo (2013a) employed the perspective of Bourdieu’s social practice theory and analyzed the reasons why Mao Dun focused on translating works from weak and small nations, pointing out that Mao Dun’s political translation purpose corresponded to his personal translation habitus. Lu Zhiguo (2013b) discussed the turn in Mao Dun’s translation materials, translation language and translation strategies from 1916 to 1919, revealing that such a turn in Mao Dun’s translation was connected with his interest in social field as well as his personal translation habitus. Wu Li Cong (2013) discussed Mao Dun’s translation criterion and translation method, asserting that Mao Dun’s translation theories could be helpful to guide translation practice. Pan Jingying (2013) adopted the perspective of rewriting theory and compared Mao Dun’s translation strategies as well as translation materials before 1919 and after 1919, pointing out that Mao Dun’s translation before 1919 was influenced by patronage, and Mao Dun’s translation after 1919 was influenced by ideology and poetics.

Ma Lijie (2014) discussed Mao Dun’s translation standard, translation method and translator quality, thinking that Mao Dun’s translation theories could be helpful to guide translation practice. Tong Siqin (2014) adopted the perspective of manipulation theory and asserted that Mao Dun’s translation in his early years was influenced by patronage, ideology and poetics. Lu Zhiguo (2014) used the perspective of Bourdieu’s social theories and analyzed factors influencing Mao Dun’s translation during 1930s, and concluded that Mao Dun’s translation choice and translation strategies were influenced by the social field as well as his own personal translation habitus. Lian Yajian (2015) argued that Mao Dun’s literal translation and artistic creative translation could enrich Chinese translation theories and could guide the translation practice.

Implications and Conclusion
It can be seen that from 1983 to 2015, studies on Mao Dun’s translation theories have made some achievements in terms of the research perspective, the research content, and the research methodology. First, in terms of the research perspective, scholars have adopted perspectives of cultural theories, reception theories, Skopos theories, hermeneutics theories, rewriting theories, manipulation theories, and Bourdieu’s social theories, etc., which undoubtedly can broaden our eyesight towards Mao Dun’s translation theories. Second, in terms of the research content, many scholars have stressed the importance
of Mao Dun’s translation theories and discussed Mao Dun’ views on translation purpose, translation standard, translation method, translation mode, translation criticism, and translation of children’s literature, etc. Particularly, some scholars have focused on some key translation theories of Mao Dun, such as creative translation, translation criticism and translation of children’s literature, etc. And this can surely deepen our understanding of Mao Dun’s important translation theories. Moreover, some scholars have started to discuss the relationship between Mao Dun’s translation theories and his writing, as well as the relationship between Mao Dun’s translation theories and his social & cultural context, etc. Furthermore, some scholars have talked about some factors which influenced Mao Dun’s translation activities, such as ideology, patronage, poetics, social field and personal translation habitus, etc. This can certainly enrich our view of Mao Dun’s translation theories. Thirdly, in terms of the research methodology, some scholars have compared similarities and differences of translation theories between Mao Dun and other translators home and abroad. And a few scholars have analyzed some of Mao Dun’s re-translation in novels.

However, there is still some room for further study on Mao Dun’s translation theories in terms of the research perspective, research content and research methodology. First, as for the research perspective, we can study Mao Dun’s translation theories from the perspective of philosophy, which can help us to look at Mao Dun’s translation theories from positive and negative sides dialectically. This can not only help us deepen our understanding of Mao Dun’s translation theories, but also can give us some hints to our translation circle at present. Apart from the perspective of philosophy, we can also use the perspective of history. According to the micro-history theory, we need to find out some materials which have been ignored in the past. By analyzing those new materials carefully, we can compensate and enrich the present study on Mao Dun’s translation theories. Second, as for the research content, we can study Mao Dun’s translation theories in terms of the diachronic development, the historical value, the affecting factors, the relationship with his translation practice, and the present significance. Third, as for the research methodology, we can integrate qualitative research with quantitative research, and combine diachronic research with synchronic research, so that we can enrich our understanding of Mao Dun’s translation theories. As 2016 is coming near, the correct year to remember Mao Dun’s 120th birth anniversary, it is hoped that this study can not only deepen our understanding of Mao Dun’s translation theories, but also can give us some implications for our further study.

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References


Computer Network-based Multimodal Teaching of British and American Literature

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[Abstract] Guided under the Multimodal Teaching Theory, this paper mainly discusses the practice of the computer network-based multimodal teaching of British and American literature. This article emphasizes that teachers take advantage of pictures, network screenshots, movies, video, sound, and other resources in the classroom lectures to mobilize the coordination operation of the auditory, visual and tactile senses, to enhance the students’ impression of the writer and his works. By doing so, the students have a good understanding of the original works, and have no difficulties in comprehending the text and then the classroom teaching is improved.

[Keywords] computer network; teaching of British and American literature; multimodality; image mode; sound mode

Introduction

In the Network Information Age, the computer network provides people with various information that includes both excellent pictures and texts audio-visually in a quick and convenient way. People no longer rely on a single text to get the information in the form of books, and newspapers, etc. Students no longer obtain knowledge only through books and classroom attendance; they can acquire knowledge, update knowledge and accumulate knowledge through the computer network. The interactive learning environment with friendly interface and intuitive image (Sui, 2002), as well as the rich source of information provided by the computer network, helps students to get more knowledge, helps stimulate students’ interests in learning and collaborative learning, and helps them take the initiative in finding and exploring. Therefore, the mode of teacher-centered classroom teaching can not meet the individual needs of students (Chen, 2010).

Because of this, the computer network, or multimedia, has been successfully applied to the modern English teaching process, presenting unprecedented multimodal forms of English teaching. Through Information and Communication Technology (ICT), curriculum resources are rationally used and actively developed. Abundant teaching resources on the Internet are fully used. Students are provided with curriculum resources that can present them with actual life situations, and these resources are rich and instructive (Chen, 2010). The ways of learning and using English have also expanded. Teachers can enrich their teaching content and forms to improve the effect of their English teaching by using a variety of audio-visual resources and network resources. Teachers can also take advantage of the computer and multimedia teaching software to explore new teaching modes to promote personalized learning. Therefore, the computer network technology has changed the original single and monotonous textbooks, and made multimodal teaching feasible.
The Multimodal Teaching Theory

Multimodality refers to the combination of different semiotic modes in a finished communication or communication activities (van Leeuwen, 2005). Semiotic modes are these different systems for meaning-making, or possible “channels” such as speech, writing, and images, etc. Semiotic modes can include visual, verbal, written, gestural and musical resources for communication. They also include various “multimodal” ensembles of any of these modes (Kress & van Leeuwen, 2001). Multimodality, the multiple presentations of modality, is the most important factor in teaching. Multimodal educational and a pedagogical approach promote not only the teaching through the means and principles of ICT education, e-learning, and modern technology, but also the reforms traditional culture (Kanari & Potamias, 2011).

This theory, mainly from the perspective of social semiotics and based on the theory of Halliday’s functional grammar, holds that the traditional paralinguistic images, colors, music and action symbols are no longer in the auxiliary position in modern social communication, but form a broader semiotic resources along with text symbols to make meaning.

Multimodal teaching advocates that teachers should take advantage of more channels and more teaching methods such as websites, pictures, and role-plays, etc. to mobilize students’ multiple senses to engage in language teaching. According to Kress, et al., (2001), teachers often use gestures together with speech to draw attention to images and other references within the classroom. In particular, they maintain that various modes are interacting and interplaying: gestures, drawings, speech, and objects. Each mode contributes to meaning construction: speech to create a difference, an image on the blackboard to get a visual background, manipulation of an object to locate the discussion in the physical setting, action to clarify the dynamic nature of the concept, or an image in the textbook to do a stable summary, and cohesion is achieved through repetition, synchronization, similarity and contrast.

Characteristics of the British and American Literature Course
and the Feasibility of Multimodal Teaching

Characteristics of the British and American Literature Course

Situational. The course of British and American literature includes British and American literary history, writers, and selected reading materials. All of these aim to depict beautiful pictures for readers. While reading, the readers can imagine seeing the Paradise that God has built for Adam and Eve and the enormous marlin that the old man Santiago catches, entering the palace where Prince Hamlet lives, or landing on the island where Robinson Crusoe lives alone. The sense of these pictures is the manifestation of the literature class scenarios.

Episodic. The writers, the works and the characters in the works in British and American literature are all related to some moving stories. While reading these works, the readers can “experience” the plots, accomplishing the missions and overcoming the innumerable hazards and hardships, such as Beowulf’s fighting closely with the monsters, Hamlet’s revenge, Adam and Eve’s expulsion from the Garden of Eden, Tess’s hanging, and Rip Van Winkle’s long sleep, etc. The characters and their stories in the works contain complex plots.

The Feasibility of Multimodal Teaching under Computer Network-Based Conditions

Moreno and Mayer (2007) believe that multimodal learning environments use different modes to represent content knowledge; for example verbal and non-verbal, where the non-verbal mode is the pictorial mode including static and dynamic graphics. These different presentation modes (verbal and
non-verbal) are used to attract students’ different sensory modalities (visual, auditory and tactile). Once the stories of a literary work and the pictures depicted in it are combined with the languages, the work is alive, which gives the readers a sense of reality. Thus, every literary text is an integration of various modes, instead of a single text mode. Moreover, the internet happens to be able to provide the multimodal sounds, texts, images, or even different colors and fonts for English and American literature teaching, fully facilitating students’ auditory, visual, tactile and other senses, which make this course an organic integration of many means of languages, images, sounds, texts and symbolic resources.

Multimodality Teaching Construction of British and American Literature Course
The British and American literature teaching under computer network conditions, is a multimodal auxiliary teaching mode based on its own curriculum characteristics: the multimodal teaching theory and the use of computer network platform.

Nowadays, the network culture is very popular, and it is necessary for teachers to offer students, who are addicted to internet culture, some English and American Literature learning websites, and guide them to visit and browse them, learn something and finish a certain amount of assignments. Therefore, the teaching mode of British and American literature can be transformed from the mode of single teacher-centered lectures to the teaching mode based on classroom teaching supplemented by students’ online study. This teaching presents three main modes, whose positions in the teaching process are as follows: text mode, image mode and sound mode.

**Text mode.** In the course of British and American literature teaching, text mode is always playing a leading role. It includes the text in students’ book, the text in the courseware, the text in the reading materials which students complete reading online as a task, the writing text which includes the literary essay writing assigned, the adaption of literary screenplays, etc.

**Image mode.** The image mode includes all kinds of image materials that are displayed for literature learning, such as the course videos which the teachers upload to the LAN, network ppt courseware including the pictures, drawings and screenshots in the courseware, literary movies adapted from literary works, and even literary drama performances with living images. This mode makes text mode more vivid and intuitive.

**Sound mode.** The sound mode regards the sound as the carrier, including the ppt courseware for classroom teaching, the network ppt courseware, course videos, adapted movies, drama recording, which makes text mode and image mode more vivid.

Among these three modes, text is the main mode, in charge of providing key information, while image and sound are auxiliary modes, in charge of providing background information. Although they emphasize different aspects, they are used to achieve the same macro purposes to enhance the communication purposes of literature teaching content.

Multimodal Teaching Practice of British and American Literature Course
In the course of multimodal teaching, the text mode plays the leading role, but the other modes interact to and reinforce one another, building the same discourse meaning of British and American literature. In one case, the image mode and sound mode make the features of text mode prominent; in the other case, the text mode makes the features of image mode and sound mode obvious.

We will take the teaching of Shakespeare and one of his masterpieces, *Romeo and Juliet*, as an example in the following to present the entire process of the three modes.
Text mode. When we introduce Shakespeare’s life story and the four periods of his works, we mainly use the text mode, supplemented by PowerPoint (PPT) courseware. The text mode in the courseware always plays the leading role. Shakespeare’s writing career has been often divided into four periods. In the first period (1590-1594), he wrote mainly comedies influenced by Roman and Italian models and four historical plays in the popular chronicle tradition. His second period began in 1595 with Romeo and Juliet and ended with Julius Caesar in 1599. From about 1600 to about 1608 was his third “tragic period” during which Shakespeare wrote mostly tragedies, and from about 1608 to 1613, Shakespeare’s fourth period, consisted of mainly tragicomedies, also called romances. All of these are presented by text mode, because only the text mode can express the boundaries of time and classification of the works. While we use the text to express the time and classification, it is supplemented by pictures, screenshots, and videos, etc. Because of its strong visual impact, the image mode, as a background for the teaching, emphasizes the literal meaning of the expression, and highlights the text mode. Meanwhile, we can add sounds to the same page of PPT courseware using a custom animation effect, causing a combination of clear text, the obvious image and a striking sound. For example, when we add a “typing sound” to the page, together with the voice in the video shots, we involve the student’s auditory senses in the text mode. At this time, the auxiliary role of the image mode and sound mode will deepen the students’ impression of the text mode.

In addition, extracurricular literary reading is also based on the text mode. After the teachers’ guidance in class, the students can read the original works, or read materials downloaded in the designated campus network platform to expand their literary background. Accordingly, the students must read the original works and download “film and television scripts” from the network platform to perform it in later literary practice. Moreover, the teacher will teach the students how to analyze the literary works and the films adapted from them, and how to write critical literary essays, which are also based on the text mode.

Image mode. Image mode is the auxiliary mode in the classroom lectures or the display of the text mode. However, the image is the main mode in image-based pages of some parts of the PPT courseware, or the course videos, online videos, and screenshots, and the text mode and sound mode become the auxiliary modes. For example, when the teacher uses pictures to illustrate the story of Romeo and Juliet, the picture will take up most of the entire PPT page, while the text is only at the bottom of the picture, as the caption.

Likewise, the image is the main mode in film videos, or screenshots, and the text mode is the auxiliary mode in the form of the caption at the bottom of the picture and the sound mode is the auxiliary mode synchronizing with the screen character’s language. At this point, the text mode highlights the image mode for its function of interpretation, and the sound mode makes the image mode vivid for its synchronization, which also has a strengthening effect.

The primary modal role of the image is also reflected in the student network learning. Through the course network platform, students can watch the course videos, and browse the network courseware to consolidate the content of school textbooks. According to the assignments set by the teacher, after reading a literary work, the students can also see the movie adapted from the original work on websites recommended by the teacher. For instance, after reading the work of Romeo and Juliet, students are encouraged to see the movie’s different editions, such as the 1936 edition, the 1954 edition, the 1968 edition, and the 1996 edition. The students can understand the interpretations of the work by different
directors and also form their own understanding. The movie image mode is the interpretation of the text mode of the work, and the sound mode synchronized with it enhances the image mode.

Another manifestation of the image mode is the students’ drama performances based on their adaptations of the literary works. In the play, according to the text description, the students set the classroom and a small stage, and play the roles based on the pre-recorded lines. Although the performances are based on the text mode, and occasionally, the switching of the scenes also needs a notice board, the image mode (live image) is the major mode in front of the audience. The text mode provides the performing situations for the image mode, and the sound mode – pre-recorded sound – provides clues for the performances.

**Sound mode.** The sound mode is always responsible for providing background information. In the PPT courseware, a text or picture to enter or exit needs the hints of a sound background to emphasize the input of a new piece of information. In the course videos and movie videos, sound is the guarantee to make the characters of the pictures lifelike.

However, when the students create the drama performances after they develop beforehand, in accordance with the need for the scenes, tasks, and background, the drama performances’ recording, the sound mode becomes the main mode. Still using *Romeo and Julia* as an example, the students download the related script from the teaching platform, adapt it according to their own understanding, pre-record the lines in accordance with the role assignment, create a soundtrack according to the story, and burn an mp3 format of their play. While playing the roles, the students just perform and converse based on their recording of the musical situation. At this moment, the playing sound dominates every performer on the stage, and also the development of the story. Thus, it becomes the major mode. On the contrary, the notice board (text image) of the sub-scenes for the live performances and the entire scene (the image mode) play a supporting role.

**Conclusion**

Compared with the text mode of the previous teaching material, computer network-based multimodal teaching makes every mode inter-dependent and mutually promotes the use of the computer network technology. The different modes (verbal and non-verbal) are used to appeal to the students’ different sensory modalities (visual, auditory and tactile, etc.). Moreover, multimodal courses allow instructional events or elements to be presented in more than one sensory mode (multiple representations), and then be used to further facilitate the student’s learning (Shah, & Freedman, 2003). Based on this, British and American literature classes become more vivid, lively and effective.

In multimodal teaching, the text mode runs throughout all aspects of teaching, and always bears the irreplaceable role in the interpretation of the other modes; at the same time, the text mode, along with the sound mode, and image mode, complement each other, which makes the text vital. The visual and auditory impacts of the sound mode and image mode supplement the lack of pictures in the original works, fill the students’ sensory gaps, fully mobilize students’ multiple senses such as hearing and vision, and strengthen the significance of the original works, as well as largely eliminate the difficulties in the students’ comprehending the text.

The quick pace of change from text-based to more modes of presentations of information involves a quick response from language teachers to take advantage of multimodality to engage learners in meaningful cognitive, critical understandings. More close attention to the meaning-making potential of
the multimodal teaching and learning can help language teachers and learners to cope more efficiently as they face new modes of information presentation.

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References
An Analysis of the Characterization and Relationship in *Emma*
Through Interpersonal Function

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[Abstract] Based on the framework of interpersonal function theory in Halliday’s systemic functional grammar, the main purpose of this thesis is to explore the characterization and relationships in this novel through the analysis of dialogues between two characters in *Emma*. In this thesis, the writer intends to study the interpersonal function theory in *Emma* by use of mood, a modality field. The mood aspect is analyzed by sentence patterns and choices of subject. The modality aspect is analyzed by the modal verbs and orientation. From these aspects, the speakers’ characteristics and relationship can be reflected. This research gives us a new perspective to the study of characters in a play. Meanwhile, this research is also valuable to our future research on interpersonal function theory in discourse analysis.

[Keywords] interpersonal function; characteristic; relationship

Introduction
In this thesis, the author conducts research of Emma Woodhouse and Harriet Smith’s characteristics and relationships through interpersonal function theory. The study is divided into two aspects, analysis of mood system and analysis of modality system. As a tool for communication, language undertakes a variety of functions (Hu, 2015, p. 243). As for the significance of this research, according to the theory of Halliday, meta-function and meaning are two interchangeable terms. Nevertheless, interpersonal function serves to establish and maintain social relations such as the expression of social roles, which include the communication roles created by language itself by means of the interaction between one person and another.

The author will focus on the mood system and modality system in analyzing the novel that few critics paid attention to. The author intends to analyze the characteristics in this novel through the analysis of dialogues among two female characters by the mood and modality systems.

In terms of systemic functional grammar, language is regarded as a purposeful behavior. One of the main features is that it focuses on the study of the relations between the linguistic system and the outside world. Therefore, systemic functional grammar should be paid much attention. Moreover, as it can provide the theoretical basis for appreciating and appraising the text, it is also considered discourse grammar. Therefore in this thesis, Halliday’s systemic functional grammar is adopted. In previous years, many researchers have applied systemic-functional grammar to many fields, for example, advertisements, conversations, and autobiographies. However, they have seldom applied the systemic functional grammar as a structure to novel analysis, which is a significant work for linguistic study. In order to widen its scope of research, this writer adopts a systemic functional grammar theory to research the interpersonal function of the novel *Emma*. 
Emma

*Emma*, published in 1816, is one of the most successful novels by Jane Austen (Zhou, 2013, p. 245). This novel is different from her other novels for its imperfect heroine: Emma Woodhouse. (Zhou, 2013, p. 245). It’s not as famous as Austen’s other novels, like *Pride and Prejudice* and *Sense and Sensibility* which are widespread in China, but in the West, many reviewers and critics think *Emma* is the most successful among Jane Austens’ works because it is the most mature novel in artistic ideology and she created a lively comedy of manners among her characters. The novel was first published in December 1815. As in her other novels, Austen explores the concerns and difficulties of genteel women living in Georgian-Regency England; she also creates a lively comedy of manners among her characters.

To the readers’ surprise, Emma was rather spoiled, headstrong, and self-satisfied, and she greatly overestimated her own matchmaking abilities. Emma Woodhouse, aged 20 at the start of the novel, is a young, beautiful, witty, and privileged woman in Regency England. She lives on the fictional estate of Hartfield in Surrey in the village of Highbury with her elderly widowed father, a valetudinarian who is excessively concerned for the health and safety of his loved ones. The only misfortune is that Emma’s mother “died too long ago for her to have more than an indistinct remembrance of her caresses” (Austin, 1994, p. 3). Emma's friend and only critic is the gentlemanly George Knightley, her neighbor from the adjacent estate of Donwell, and the brother of her elder sister Isabella's husband, John.

As the novel opens, Emma has just attended the wedding of Miss Taylor, her best friend and former governess. Having introduced Miss Taylor to her future husband, Mr. Weston, Emma takes credit for their marriage, and decides that she rather likes matchmaking. Against Mr. Knightley's advice, Emma forges ahead with her new interest, and tries to match her new friend Harriet Smith, a sweet, pretty, but none-too-bright girl to Mr. Elton, the local vicar. Emma becomes convinced that Mr. Elton's constant attentions are a result of his attraction and growing love for Harriet. But before events can unfold as she plans, Emma must first persuade Harriet to refuse an advantageous marriage proposal. Her suitor is a respectable, educated, and well-spoken young farmer, Robert Martin, but Emma decides he is not good enough for Harriet. Against her own wishes, the easily influenced Harriet rejects Mr. Martin. Fortunately, Mr. Knightley helps Emma realize her faults, and all the couples in the novel live happily in the end.

This thesis is focused on the dialogue in which Emma persuades Harriet to refuse Martin’s marriage proposal. Through the conversations between Emma and Harriet, the characteristics of these two girls will be seen clearly.

**Theoretical Framework**

Language is a tool for human communication and the product of social activities. (Hu, 2015, p. 243). In terms of Halliday’s theory, as an important part of interpersonal meaning, mood and modality analysis can reveal characteristic of person in literature and relationships among characters. Halliday (1994) divided the language into three metafunctions named ideational function, interpersonal function and textual function (p. 243).

It is considered that Halliday regards language as a social semiotic phenomenon; he has been enriching the study of linguistics and has developed the most influential theory among functionalism for almost half a century. Systemic functional grammar is one of his major researches.
Halliday’s Theory of Interpersonal Function

In the view that Halliday’s systemic-functional grammar is of three meta-functions: ideational function, interpersonal function and textual function. Besides the function of expressing speakers’ personal experience and one’s inner life, language still has the function of expressing the speaker’s status, position, attitude motivation and characteristic. Moreover, it also delivers the speaker’s deductions from incidents, participation in social activities and building of social relationships. This kind of function is called language’s interpersonal function; through this the speaker can take part in a context of situation to express his attitude, and at the same time, try to influences others’ attitudes and behaviors. Interpersonal function is embodied by the mood system and the modality system.

Mood belongs to a grammatical category of verbs, which shows the speech roles of people. Mood includes a subject and the finite. The selection of mood reflects the speaker’s attitude toward the state of affairs. The presence of a subject and the finite in the clause indicates whether the clause is indicative or imperative and the ordering of the subject and finite shows whether the clause is declarative or interrogative. The finite manifests not only tense, but also polarity. Therefore, the expression of polarity can get realized by the mood. As for modality, it includes two parts: moralization and modulation. The speaker expresses his or her attitude towards the propositions or proposals uttered by him or her, such as “perhaps”, “always”, “surely”, and “of course”. It focuses on the intermediate stages between the positive and negative poles of the attitude towards the propositions or proposals.

Basic Aspects of Interpersonal Function Theory

The Interpersonal Function Theory has two aspects: the mood system and the modality system. Moreover, the mood system can be divided into speech roles, speech function, and the structure of mood and the types of mood, and at the same time, the modality system consists of types of modality, values of modality and orientation of modality. The mood system can be divided into speech roles, speech function, structure of mood and the types of mood. According to Halliday, mood is the system for exchanges of speech roles. During the speaking process, the speaker plays a particular speech role, and in doing so, distributes to the listener a complementary role in which the speaker hopes the listener will agree with him.

The four principal speech functions consist of two kinds of speech roles and commodity exchanges, which are offer, command, statement and question. These are matched by a set of respected responses, accepting an offer, carrying out a command, acknowledging a statement, and answering a question (Halliday, 1994: p. 69). In communication, the speaker will choose a speech role, and in the meantime, he also presents complementary role for the listener. For example, the person who asks the question and the person who answers the question are the mandatory and executor. The conversation is carried forward by the exchange of speech roles; each theme is exchanged by the mood system.

The mood is made up of two parts, the subject and finite elements. The subject has a grammatical function – the noun, and any other words, or phrases; even clauses that have noun characteristics can be the subject. The subject is an important part of the proposition that expresses what the speaker wants to make responsible for the validity of the proposition being continued in the clause. The listener can confirm, reject, query or qualify the validity by repeating or amending the finite. The subject must remain the same; if it is altered, the exchange has moved on to a new proposition. That is to say, the subject has responsibility to the success of proposition.
The Interpersonal Function Analysis in *Emma*

Based on the Theoretical Framework, we will study this from two aspects, namely, mood analysis and modality analysis. By choosing a conversation between Emma Woodhouse and Harriet Smith in *Emma*, the author has researched the number of clauses and minor clauses, types of clauses, and the choice of subjects in detail to analyze the two figures’ characteristics and relationships.

*Mood Analysis in Emma*

The conversation happened after Harriet received the letter from Martin who is one of her friends. With Martin, Harriet spends a happy summer holiday and she likes Martin. The letter is a proposal of marriage that expresses his love to Harriet. Harriet is so surprised that she does not know what to do so she comes as fast as she can to ask Miss Woodhouse what she should do.

We can find that in this conversation, there is a great distinction between the amount of Emma speaking and that of Harriet. The number of Emma’s words is more than that of Harriet’s. Emma has 73 clauses, and Harriet has 49 clauses. We can clearly see Emma is the predominator of the entire dialogue. As we know, this dialogue is to persuade Harriet to refuse Martin’s proposal of marriage. After receiving the proposal letter, Harriet does not know what to do, and she turns to Emma for help, hoping to figure out some way to deal with this letter. Therefore, Emma should play the dominant role in the whole dialogue. From the dialogue, we can see that Harriet regards Emma as her best friend because when she faces problems, she comes to see Emma at once. At the same time, Emma also cares about Harriet and wants to find a better man for her. In a word, the number of clauses shows Emma is in the predominate position – she intends to give advice to Harriet, and Harriet intends to ask some information of Emma.

*Modality Analysis in Emma*

After the above analysis of mood in *Emma*, the author will focus on the modality analysis in the novel. The following part will research it in two aspects: modal verb analysis and orientation analysis.

According to one of her speech, we can find that Emma uses 35 modal verbs altogether in her speech. “Must” and “would”, which appear 8 times, are the most frequently used modal verbs. “Will”, appears 5 times, and it is the second frequently used modal verb. “Ought”, “should” and “could” are each used 3 times, so they are the third widely used modal verbs. “Shall” is used 2 times – the fourth widely used modal verb. “Can” and “need” appear only once, and are the fifth widely used modal verb.

Harriet uses 30 modal verbs in total in her speech. “Would” and “shall”, which appear 8 times, are the most frequently used modal verbs. “Will” is used 4 times, “ought” and “should” appears 3 times, and “must” and “could” are used 2 times. The percentage of usage of high value modal verbs that Emma uses is 27%, while Harriet uses 6%; the percentage of median value of such words that Harriet uses is 87%, while Emma uses 63%. As for the usage of low value modal verbs, Emma and Harriet are 10% and 7%, respectively. As mentioned in Section three, we talked about modality as involving degrees and scales, that is to say, the intensity of modal elements with the intensity of commentary on possibility of the propositional content. Nevertheless, modality was divided as high, median or low, which is a useful sign in investigating the question to the speaker’s commitment, or the degree to which the speaker commits himself to the listener, the validity of what he is saying, or the extent to which he appears to be putting pressure on the listener to carry out a command in a proposal.

“Must” indicates obligation and has a high value. In general, in order to express the speaker’s judgment, the speaker always uses “must” to make the strongest judgment and to show an obligation, and
thus it is very highly likely to be true of this speech. In addition, the speaker also uses “must” to set an obligation or requirement which demands compliance on the part of the listener. Therefore, “must”, used with the second person, epitomizes the speaker’s hegemony of the addressee’s obligation, but with the first person it is usually supposed to show the speaker’s own obligation to perform.

It is known that the modality can be expressed by orientation, which is divided into two parts, subjective and objective. In general, subjectivity expresses the speaker’s own thoughts and judgment, while objectivity reflects that the speaker conceals his feeling or judgment. In the dialogue, Emma prefers to choose an objective orientation to express her thoughts while Harriet intends to use subjective orientation to show her idea directly. Here is the example:

Emma said, “If a woman doubts as to whether she should accept a man or not, she certainly ought to refuse him.” “If she can hesitate as to ‘Yes, she ought to say No directly.’ “It is not a state to be safely entered into with doubtful feelings with half a heart.” “A woman is not to marry a man merely because she is asked.” Harriet said, “I am sure you are a great deal too kind,” “I am quite determined to refuse him.” “I do not think he is conceited either, in general.” “I do really think Mr. Martin a very amiable young man.”

Through these sentences, the characteristics of the two girls can be easily found. Emma who prefers to use objectivity to conceal her real feeling which is to persuade Harriet to refuse Martin. Her thoughts can be more persuasive by using objective orientation. From this part, it is obvious that Emma is a clever girl who is good at making things more reasonable, and she considers herself always right. Emma objects to Harriet accepting Martin’s proposal only in that Martin is a farmer and Harriet is also a bastard whose social status even lower than his. As for Harriet, she uses subjective orientation to express her feelings, and she is a girl who is very simple, forthright and sincere. She tells all of her thoughts to Emma without concealing any, and even though she refused Martin, she still insists in vindicating him, which reflects that she really likes him. From another perspective, it reflects the fact that Emma’s action to pull Harriet and Martin apart is totally wrong.

According to Interpersonal Function Theory, this author studied the characteristics and relationship of Emma Woodhouse and Harriet Smith through mood analysis and modality analysis. After the analysis of the type of clauses in their dialogue and the words they used, this author finds that Emma is a self-centered girl, and in a higher social position than her friend, while Harriet is a gentle girl who is indecisive. The relationship between Emma and Harriet is harmonious, but unequal.

**Conclusion**

Based on these analyses, we can clearly find the personalities and relationships between Emma Woodhouse and Harriet Smith through their dialogues. Emma Woodhouse, the protagonist of the story, is a beautiful, high-spirited, intelligent, and slightly spoiled young woman at the age of twenty, but she lacks the necessary discipline to practice or study anything in depth. She is portrayed as very compassionate to the poor, but at the same time has a strong sense of class. While she is in many ways mature for her age, Emma makes some serious mistakes, mainly due to her conviction that she is always right and her lack of real world experience.

Harriet Smith, a young friend of Emma, is a very pretty, but unsophisticated, girl who is too easily led by others, especially Emma, and she becomes the subject of some of Emma's misguided matchmaking attempts. Harriet’s marriage proposal from farmer Robert Martin failed because of Emma's belief that he
was beneath her. Ultimately, Harriet and Mr. Martin get married, despite Emma's initial meddling. Now the wiser Emma approves of the match.

The relationship between Emma and Harriet is a little complicated; on the one hand, they love each other and regard each other as best friends, but on the other hand, there is an inconspicuous unequal status between them. To some degree, it can be found that every relationship will be unconsciously influenced by social position. The difference of social status determines that this friendship can not be equal in all aspects.

As we all know, behind every characteristic, there is a profound and lasting environment influencing a person, which is his family. The reason why Emma is self-righteous and lacks of real world experience is that she grew up with love. Born in a rich family, although her mother died when she was a kid, her father, sister, and private tutor give all their love to her, especially her private tutor Miss Tylor, who was just like her mother. It is no wonder that Emma became a spoiled girl, while Harriet Smith, an illegitimate daughter of initially unknown parents, is revealed in the last chapter to be the daughter of a fairly rich and decent tradesman. Growing up without her parents’ love, Harriet lacks a sense of security, is indecisive and used to being led by Emma.

All of these conclusions are obtained by adopting Halliday’s interpersonal function theory of mood and modality systems, which proves these theories are valid and practical. Moreover, the research of interpersonal function theory on this literature can be considered as a complement to the previous studies. It is also valuable to our future research on interpersonal function theory in discourse analysis.

References
Comparative Study on Online Peer Feedback and Teachers’ Feedback in Teaching English Writing

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[Abstract] Online peer feedback can motivate students’ interests in English writing and improve their writing abilities. This paper explores the effectiveness of online peer feedback by comparing it with traditional teachers’ feedback based on data analysis from questionnaires in Linyi University.

[Keywords] online peer feedback; teachers’ feedback; college writing

Introduction

Wang indicated that “students are expected to master the basic writing ability, to be able to finish general writing task; to describe their personal experience, perception, feeling and event; to write common application composition; to write a composition at least 120 words according to the given topic or outline. The product should have intact content, clear theme, appropriate words, and coherent meaning” (2008, pp. 4-10). Wang’s ideas informed English teachers in China how to help students to develop basic skills in writing. These are also the goals in teaching English writing so students should gain abilities during their English language study at university. However, the current situation of English writing ability of Chinese college students is far from meeting the requirements. Facing to the topics given by teacher, students, who are required to finish and hand in the writing drafts within the time limit, are not sure of themselves and even feel afraid of writing; they feel so anxious even their minds go blank. As many researchers describe in their study, writing is the weakest part of Chinese college students in the CET-4 examination, with “the average score of 70 compared with total score of 142” (Hu, 2009, pp. 51-54). Even though some students can pass the exam with the total score over 425, their writing is still called as the baby composition.

At the same time, the writing instruction is also the weakest part in English teaching (Liu, 2011). There are several kinds of methods used to give students feedback about their writing, teachers’ feedback and peer feedback are the most widely used. The teacher feedback, the backbone in current writing instruction in China, is not effective and efficient, while peer feedback is the least used (Cai, 2011, pp. 65-72). In writing class when teacher feedback is used, drafts of weaker students are full of red correction signs, which is detrimental to students’ confidence, just like what Raimes (1983) said “teacher have trapped our students within the sentence.”

From analysis above, an effective writing teaching method is necessary to solve these problems in English teaching, especially in the era of high-technology to meet the characteristics of Chinese EFL learning context. Therefore, I conduct this research to have more insights into the mentioned matter with non-English major students, with the intention of signifying the differences between the teacher feedback and online peer feedback and exploring the students’ attitudes toward online peer feedback, the effect of online peer feedback in improving college students’ English writing proficiency, and their opinions on the application of online peer feedback in future writing class.
Theoretical Framework of the Study
The theory of Vygotsky’s Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) is one of the important supports for the employment of online peer feedback in the EFL writing. Vygotsky (1978) stated “the distance between the actual developmental 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”.

In recent years, many researchers have embedded this theory into their researches to examine group work, such as peer feedback in writing, in which Vygostky (1978) said that social interaction with peers was necessary for the internalization of thought and language. In the study by Donato (1994), interaction in group work was investigated. Some other researchers have examined how peer feedback activities influence language learning during group work in the second language writing classroom. All the results of researches indicate that peer feedback can improve student’s writing skill and “foster a myriad of communicative behaviors” (Donato, 1994). In a word, it can benefit all members of a group. In addition, with the help of internet, the peers’ potential development can be more developed in the process of the peers’ cooperation because of the relaxed and convenient learning community offered.

Research Methodology

Research Questions
• What are the college students’ attitude towards teachers’ feedback and peer feedback?
• Which kind of feedback can improve college students’ writing performance?

Research Subjects
The subjects involved in the study were 21 physics majors, in Grade 2013 from the researcher’s college English writing classes in Linyi University. All of these participants were in their first semester with the same English teacher, who is also the author and researcher of this study. Among these participants, aged 18 to 20, there were 11 boys and 10 girls.

Research Instruments
To answer the research questions in the study and achieve the purpose of the study, the instruments employed in this study include: the pre-study questionnaire on students’ attitudes towards the use of online peer feedback.

Results and Discussion
After the successful implementation of the questionnaire, the data were collected and sorted. There were altogether 21 students involved, with the major of Physics in Grade 2013 from the researcher’s college English writing classes in Linyi University. All of these participants were in their first semester with the same English teacher, who is also the author and researcher of this study. Among these participants, aged from 18 to 20, there were 11 boys and 10 girls.

The results of the questionnaire survey are shown in Table 1, in which choices and the number of students making the corresponding choices are listed. For the convenience of reporting, several abbreviations are used, with IEW standing for “interest in the online English writing”, ETF for “the effect of teacher written feedback”, and UPF for “the usefulness of online peers’ feedback”. On the basis of the data from Table 1, findings can be summarized as follows:
**Students’ Willingness to Accept the Online Peer Feedback in English Writing**

The first five questions in the questionnaire (see Appendix) were designed with the purpose to move students’ attitudes toward the online peer feedback in English writing class. As the results of Table 1 indicate, most students have a favorable opinion towards online peer feedback in English writing, which not only includes the opinion on the writing online, but also on the receiving or giving the feedback between the lines.

**Table 1. Statistics of the Pre-Study Questionnaire**

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As to the first item, over half of the students (52.38%) disagree and strongly disagree with the statement, “I like English writing”. Besides, the mean value is only 2.67 in the experimental group, which informs us that it is very critically important to change the present condition that students are lacking in interest of the English writing class. As to the young students in E-age, when facing Item 2, about 38.1% of them in the experimental group like to communicate with their friends online by email or writing blog, which presents us an ideal answer to the former confusion. What’s more, the majority of them (66.67%) with 42.86% of the students having strong agreement, have the habit of commenting on peers’ writing online, as expressed in Item 3. Meanwhile, over 71.42% of the students facing Item 4 agree that they feel relaxed and comfortable to write English essays online. And much to our surprise, a few students, only 19.04%, dislike to share their writing with others as to Item 5.

All of these data mean that most students in the experimental group accept and welcome the fact that their peers can read and comment on their writing with the help of internet. This is in line with Jiang’s (2005) and Cai’s (2011) studies. In Jiang’s study, about 81.73% of students and 93% of students in Cai’s study welcomed online peer feedback in English writing. In addition, this finding can also explain the conclusion, obtained by Carson, that Chinese students’ studying ESL “will generally work toward maintaining group harmony and mutual face-saving to maintain a state of cohesion” (1996, pp. 1-19).

**The Effect of Teacher Feedback on English Writing**

Questions from 6 to 10 are aimed at finding the students’ perception of the teacher feedback in English writing. As Table 1 shows, most students favor teacher feedback as the authority even though maybe they could not grasp the meaning of the teacher from their comments.
Facing Item 6, only 42.86% of students can understand the teacher’s comment fully, yet there are 23.81% of the students who do not correct the mistakes according to the teacher’s comments when answering Item 7. The majority of the students (80.94%), on Item 8, hold that reading teachers’ comments might help them improve their organization and grammar in English writing, which is similar to the number of students who believe that the teacher can offer help in the writing content in Item 9. As to the item of “teachers’ comment benefitted me a lot” in Item 10, only 19.04% of the students felt they are unclear and 71.43% of the students even hold a positive attitude towards this statement.

From the above analysis, we can get that teacher feedback is still playing an important role in English writing class and the usefulness and benefits from teacher feedback are approved by the participants of this study. In comparison to peer feedback, teacher feedback might make up the deficiency of peer feedback in writing, which have the same the results made by former researchers. Meanwhile, the teachers’ authority on language, including grammar and vocabulary, is proven by Items 8 and 9. Take Item 8 as an example, the students’ confidence in the teachers’ abilities of correcting grammatical and lexical errors has already been relatively high (the mean value is 4.29). This clearly presents the condition of English teaching in China and also reflects the dominant role the teacher has to play in class.

**The Usefulness of Online Peer Feedback on English Writing**

From Questions 11 to 15, the usefulness of online peer feedback has been revealed. As shown in Table 1, a great amount of students in the experimental group are willing to read and comment on their peer’s composition online. As to Item 13, “online peer feedback benefits me a lot”, 71.43% of the students have given a positive answer, which also can be concluded from Item 11 with 42.85% of the students’ improvement of grammar and writing structure, and Item 12 with 76.2% of the students developing richness in content. Specifically speaking, as to Item 14, “I feel more relaxed when doing some writing and commenting through the internet”, 66.67% of the students hold a supportive opinion. In addition, 80.95% of them maintain that online peer feedback can cultivate their awareness of the audience as Item 15 claims, which will give them proper direction for writing.

Therefore, it points out for us that online peer feedback helps students to decrease their anxiety about writing, which has been a long headache for teachers and students. Obviously, students feel less threatened in the world of the internet. On the contrary, they may feel nervous and obliged to accept comments from their teachers, as teacher feedback has been regarded as an indispensable part in EFL class.

However, although not many students think that they can improve the linguistic aspects such as Item 11 on avoiding grammatical mistakes (42.85%), which is less compared with the effect of teacher feedback on the grammatical aspect (80.94%). This can be explained in the following aspects. First, the young students have the same experience which ensures they can really understand their peers’ ideas so that they could open their minds and enrich their content of writing. Second, the wide source of information on the internet will offer students all kinds of material for study and self-improvement. Third, their peer’s cooperativeness will be a win-win for all students, which has been concluded in the former analysis in this study.
Table 2. Choices Between Teacher Feedback and Online Peer Feedback

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Mean: 3.71 3.52

Note: Choice 1 = strongly disagree, Choice 2 = disagree, Choice 3 = uncertain, Choice 4 = agree, and Choice 5 = strongly agree

Students Preference for Teacher Feedback or Online Peer Feedback

Questions 16 and 17 in the questionnaire aim at discovering the students’ favorable form of feedback in college English writing. As Table 2 indicates, 61.9% of the students believe that they have become more and more interested in English writing with the help of internet, and 52.38% of students have the sense that their peer’s feedback, with the help of internet, is more helpful than teacher feedback. These students hold an idea that the comments online from their peers can be more understandable and useful because the young students are on their same level of language proficiency, while their teacher’s feedback is more likely to be over their heads. What’s more, compared with face-to-face feedback, online peer feedback can offer an unthreatened surrounding and the large source of website provides an opportunity for more information available on writing topics, which are the most charming aspects for the young students.

Conclusion

In summary, four conclusions can be drawn from the questionnaire study. First of all, the students’ attitudes towards online peer feedback are positive with a warm welcome by the majority of students because they agree with the idea that the website offers them an unthreatened environment to communicate with each other such as by email or exchanging ideas on the blog. Second, traditional teacher feedback, as the authority of the draft writing, does still benefit students greatly, even though peer feedback has been well-received by the majority of students. Third, the positive effects of online peer feedback can be listed as increasing the reader’s awareness and a relaxed mood, whereas the effect of language aspects from online peer feedback can not equal that of teacher feedback. Fourth, compared with teacher feedback, online peer feedback is more effective and a better way to promote writing interest and writing performance for most of the students.

References


An Analysis of Ideology in D. H. Lawrence’s Sons and Lovers

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[Abstract] David Herbert Lawrence is a famous, prolific writer; he is generally considered an influential modern novelist. Sons and Lovers is one of his chief masterpieces. In this essay, we mainly discuss two kinds of ideologies in his novel: resistance to industrialization and morality and rationality. From these aspects, we can deeply understand that his works were influenced by his own experience.

[Keywords] Sons and Lovers; Industrialization; morality; rationality

Introduction
D. H. Lawrence, as one of the most talented novelists in modern British literature, has become more and more popular in China. He is of great talent while arousing great controversy in the history of modern English literature. His novels have brought him international prestige, especially one of his saga novels, Sons and Lovers, which is generally regarded as his chief masterpiece (Liu, 2004). It is almost a kind of autobiography. This paper discusses two aspects from reality in that period and the inner world of Lawrence. It can help people who are interested in his work to understand his writing style and the technique of expression in his work. Society and his life experience influenced his thoughts, which is why Lawrence has his own style. This article will discuss his ideology in his masterpiece Sons and Lovers. It mainly includes two aspects: first, is resistance to industrialization, and second, is morality and rationality.

Resistance to Industrialization
In the late 19th century and the first two decades of the 20th century, British society witnessed political, economic, and cultural changes. The First World War is usually regarded as the watershed in English history. To meet the demands of this change and world, there had to be a new belief, which would guide people through these chaotic years. It was against such a background that Lawrence started to develop his own ideas about the relationship between man and industry. He believed that industry destroyed both environment and the relationship between man and nature. He loved nature, and we can get so many nature descriptions in the fiction, poems, and travel essays. In these works, there were many descriptions of the natural world, of birds, beasts, and flowers. It reveals that Lawrence hated industrialization and had a passion for nature. At the center of his philosophy was human life and potential. So, Lawrence forged a theory to rebuild a living world. He insisted that man should return to the natural world because man was the child of nature instead of God. Man was the product of nature rather than the creation of God. “Only from the natural world, can man derive his instinct and thus get vitality. In the meanwhile, nature can solve the social problems caused by the industrialization” (Tu, 2002).

In England, during the time that Lawrence lived, the agricultural civilization was threatened by the industrial civilization. When Lawrence was a little boy, he lived in the confrontation of the two civilizations. The situation of his hometown, Eastwood, was the real reflection of such a confrontation as in this area, the beautiful countryside scenery coexisted with the mechanical mine area. Lawrence himself enjoyed the happy time he spent in Eastwood very much. For example, in Sons and Lovers, Chapter 7,
there is the following sentence: “White clouds went on their way, crowding to the back of the hills that
were rousing in the spring-time. The water of Nethermere lay below, very blue against the seared
meadows and the thorn-trees” (Lawrence, 1981). The nature scenery occurs in our eyes immediately.
However, the lovely scenery of Eastwood had been threatened severely due to the fast development of
industrialization. The original countryside landscape had been gradually destroyed (Luo, 2007). The
Industrial Revolution seemed to prove to Europeans the underlying assumption of the scientific revolution
of the seventeenth century that human beings were capable of dominating nature. By rationally
manipulating the material environment for human benefit, people could create new levels of material
prosperity and produce machines not dreamed of in their wildest imaginings. Lost in the excitement of the
Industrial Revolution were the voices that pointed to the dehumanization of the workforce and the
alienation from one’s work, one’s associates, one’s self, and the natural world. This negative side of the
spread of modern technology was not the one on which most of Lawrence’s contemporaries were inclined
to dwell. However, in his works, Lawrence clearly foresees the alienated and even the destroyed
relationship between nature and human beings.

The coexistence of the beautiful agricultural landscape and the mechanical industrial mine area, as
well as the sharp confrontation of these two civilizations, violently stimulated Lawrence’s sentimental
thinking of the opposites in life. On the one hand, he was aware that the old agricultural civilization had
gradually showed its limitations and shortcomings; on the other hand, with a typical feature of mechanical
production, the industrial civilization had an irresistible power of development and destruction, attacked
by industrialization, the originally pure, natural human nature had been alienated and became the victim
of the industrial civilization. The outside world had a great change; the self-contained and demoded could
not adapt itself to the fast development. Society required a newer and stronger civilization to fit the social
development. In Lawrence’s opinion, the ideal civilization should have more vigor and should never ignore human nature and treat everything indifferently. “A reasonable civilization, in his mind, should be
able to keep the pure nature of human beings from being attacked, and also be able to realize the
independence of the individuality of human” (Luo, 2007).

Lawrence tried hard to find some way to solve the serious social problems that were caused by the
industrial civilization. In Sons and Lovers, Lawrence wanted to evoke people’s original desire to resist the
mischief of industrialization. He thought the relationship between a man and a woman was the basic
relationship of a society. During the time that Lawrence lived, the relationship between human beings,
particularly the relationship between men and women had been twisted and eroded by the fast
development of the capitalist industry. Thus, Lawrence always devote himself to thinking out a method
to set up a new relation between men and women or readjust the original relation so as to achieve a
harmonious relationship between men and women and between man and nature, and, at the same time,
achieve balance and stability of the society.

Lawrence didn’t like the effect of industrialization. From the bottom of his heart, rethinking the
relationship between male and female is the method he used to resolve the results of industrialization. He
believed that sex can arouse man’s passion for life. Using the original desires of people to express the
intent of resisting industrialization, the custom divided D. H. Lawrence into either an artist or a prophet. It
prevented people from seeing that Lawrence’s own goal was actually to unite the fiction and philosophy.
In his work, he has such description, “Gradually, some mechanical effort spoils their loving, or, when
they had splendid moments, merely to be running on alone; often they realized it had been a failure, not
what they had wanted. He left her, knowing that evening had only made a little split between them. Their
loving grew more mechanical, without the marvelous glamour” (Lawrence, 1981). He insisted that the purpose of his writing was didactic. As a modern novelist, Lawrence bravely broke the traditional way of writing, revealed the instinctive power deep inside human nature and called people to rebuild society from the ashes of modern industrial civilization.

**Morality and Rationality**

Lawrence grew up in the period of capitalist world developed as imperialism; he thought that capitalist civilization suppressed and distorted human nature, especially the instinct of sex and love. This harmonious relationship between people was destroyed by industrial civilization, and what Lawrence thought about was how to survive the lost nature; the result of his idea was reconstructed in the relationship between people and nature. So, the sex description in Lawrence’s novel was a rational idea, which was based on the social phenomena of capitalism's industrialization and the civilization's mechanization, which destroyed human life and vitality. He was concerned more with the heart-breaking, which was injured by industrial revolution. He felt that mechanization cruelly injured humanity and made people alienated (Wu, 2003). Human morals became more and more declined under this situation. In his works, Lawrence tried to show the reason how human nature took sexual psychology as the center and was destroyed by industrial civilization and how industrialization destroyed the harmonious relationships between people. Based on this point, he especially emphasized descriptions of relationships between people and sought for the evolutionary track that was impacted by industrialization.

For example, in Chapter 13, Baxter Dawes, of *Sons and Lovers*, “They did not often reach again the height of that once when the pewits had called. Gradually, some mechanical effort spoils their loving, or, when they had splendid moments, merely to be running on alone; often they realized it had been a failure, not what they had wanted. He left her, knowing that evening had only made a little split between them. Their loving grew more mechanical, without the marvelous glamour. Gradually they began to introduce novelties, to get back some of the feeling of satisfaction. They would be very near, almost dangerously near to the fiver, so that the black water ran not far from his face, and it gave little thrill; or they loved sometimes in a little hollow below the fence of the path where people were passing occasionally, on the edge of the town, and they heard footsteps coming, almost felt the vibration of the tread, and they heard what the passers-by said – strange little things that were never intended to be heard. And afterwards each of them was rather ashamed, and these things caused a distance between the two of them. He began to despise her a little, as of she had merited it!” (Lawrence, 1981).

Although he didn’t describe it in detail, we also knew that he felt sex was a mechanical and curious operation of organs. There were more or less dissatisfactions about the industrialization. Facing the ruins of humanity destroyed by industrialization, Lawrence suggested that how to revert to the nature and humanity was the “natural and perfect sex relationship” to overcome humanity, which was distorted by capitalist civilization. In Lawrence’s opinion, exerting all of the natural characters (especially sexual desire) would overcome the evils of capitalism, and the revival of original instinct would restore the relationship between people and the universe. For this aim, Lawrence opposed any forms for restrictions of the sexual instinct, and he advocated that humanity and instinct should be free.

If Lawrence’s description about sex was based on rational resistance for social progress of civilization, which was created by human nature distortion, Yu Dafu’s description about sex was a kind of instinctive resistance for traditional morality under heavy repression. The base of resistance was national self-criticism. Around “May Fourth,” Chinese society was in a state of unprecedented corruption, which
made the youth feel depressed, and most of them were imprisoned and restrictive on love and life. Feudal morals and ethics made them out of breath, so it was difficult to achieve normal association between men and women. As a result, sexual depression developed as the depression of the age which retorted the youth. As ideal love cannot be reached, it is inevitable to create so many metamorphoses of the various distortions, such as prostitution and abnormal sex, etc. Love was separated from sex that couldn’t be called love. People so enjoyed the sensory pleasure that they lost the sense of morality. In Yu Dafu’s era, “sex” still seemed as a scourge and people were afraid of talking about it. The old harsh morality led to sexual repression and taboos that had been accumulated in people's subconscious for thousands of years; it made people lose their pursuit of normal sex and courage and ability in life. This depression was created by the age as the “disease of the time” among the youth. By his experiences, he felt that feudal ethics suppressed human nature, so he wrote some descriptions on sex in his novels.

Conclusion
Both Lawrence and his works are famous. The novel was an art that derived from life but was higher than it. Lawrence used his experience as the frame of the novel, and it has profound influence on society. It was not only the reproduction of life, but also reflection of the reality by the novel. Lawrence believed that the harmonious relationship between people was destroyed by industrial civilization, and what Lawrence thought about was how to survive the lost nature, and the result of his idea was reconstructing the relationship between people and nature in the works. So, the sex description in Lawrence’s novel was a rational idea, which was based on the social phenomena on capitalist industrialization and the civilization of mechanization destroyed human life and vitality. He was more concerned about the heart-broken who were injured by the industrial revolution. He felt that mechanization cruelly injured humanity and made people alienated. Human morals declined more and more under this situation. In his works, Lawrence tried to show how human nature with sexual psychology as the center was destroyed by industrial civilization and how that destroyed the harmonious relationship between people. He especially emphasized the description of the relationship between people and sought the evolutionary track, which was impacted by industrialization.

However, there is no doubt that Lawrence had not only exerted great impact on his generation and subsequent generations. Time can test the value of his excellent works. Although the novel was questioned when it came out, people gradually accepted it and appropriated its value in modern literature.

References
A Comparative Study on the Novel and the 1979 Movie Version of *The Scarlet Letter*

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**Abstract** Among the various movie versions of *The Scarlet Letter*, the 1979 movie version is regarded as the most faithful to the original novel. However, after a close reading, some minute differences between the novel and the movie version are found. This paper focuses on the differences between the novel’s narrative techniques and the representative methods of the drama version, and, furthermore, explores the reasons for the differences.

**Keywords** *The Scarlet Letter*: Nathaniel Hawthorne; novel; movie; drama

**Introduction**  
Nathaniel Hawthorne published *The Scarlet Letter* in 1850, and the novel and its various movie versions have aroused great interest among literary critics. Frequently called by Americans “our most enduring classic” (Bercovitch, 1991, p. xxii), the novel has been translated from print to the screen by filmmakers as “its surface story has all the elements of a steamy soap opera – adultery and illegitimacy, heroism and cowardice, concealment and surprise revelations” (Daniels, 1999, p. 1). According to Mao Lingying (2013, pp. 143-150), at least twelve movie versions of *The Scarlet Letter* were made in the 20th century, among which six are silent. Jennifer Anne Solmes (2001, p. 152) states that among the various movie versions, the prestigious PBS miniseries that aired in 1979 is regarded as the most faithful to the original. Solmes (2001, pp. 152-171) points out that some changes are made to the story and characters in the 1979 version. However, no scholars have given a detailed and minute analysis on the differences between the so-called most faithful motion picture adaptation and the original novel. This paper compares Hawthorne’s novel and the 1979 PBS movie version of *The Scarlet Letter* in order to focus on the differences between the novel’s narrative techniques and the representative methods of the drama version, and furthermore, to explore the reasons for the differences.

The 1979 movie, directed by Rick Hauser, starring Josef Sommer (Hawthorne), Meg Foster (Hester Prynne), John Heard (Arthur Dimmesdale), Kevin Conway (Roger Chillingworth), and Elisa Erali (Pearl), aired on WGBH from March 3, 1979, to March 24, 1979. The series was four episodes long, 60 minutes each. Part 2 won the 1979 Emmy Award for Outstanding Video Tape Editing for a Limited Series or Special for film editors Ken Denisoff, Janet McFadden, and Tucker Wiard. The video also includes three behind-the-scenes interludes: a discussion of the set design, the filming of a market scene, and an interview with Kevin Conway. In 1979, when most literary programs were being produced in the United Kingdom, Boston public television station WGBH decided to produce a home-grown literary classic of its own. The result was this version of Hawthorne’s enduring novel of Puritan America in search of its soul.

PBS’s production of *The Scarlet Letter* was conceived as a very orthodox dramatic presentation of the novel that would, according to the producer’s NEH grant application, “represent the novel as faithfully as a drama can represent a work of fiction” (Hauser, et al., 1977). For the most part, the PBS miniseries is successful in this regard. It is very faithful to the original, not just in the storyline, but in the overall mood of gloom that is created and in the dialogue, which at times is verbatim. In some cases, the
film is too faithful. “The characters, and a voice-over narrator meant to be Hawthorne himself, speak Hawthorne’s lines and play out the events of the novel faithfully” (Solmes, 2001, p. 153). This production is treated by many professors as a complement to the book in a classroom setting. Students who struggle with the novel may find this video to be a more palatable version of the story and a more faithful adaptation than the 1995 film starring Demi Moore.

**Novel vs. Drama Version**

The term “novel” refers to a long written story in which the characters and events are usually imaginary. Novels are frequently adapted for films. Inevitably, the question of “faithfulness” arises. On one hand, we can say that a director should be, to some degree, unconcerned with the source, as a novel is a novel, while a film is a film, and the two works of art must be seen as separate entities. On the other hand, it is widely acknowledged that what a film adaptation does is to fit (literally, adapt), and the film must be accurate to either the effect (aesthetics) of a novel or the theme of the novel or the message of the novel and that the film maker must introduce changes where necessary to fit the demands of time and to maximize faithfulness along one of these axes. As regards to *The Scarlet Letter*, although the 1979 movie is regarded as the most accurate, deftly-acted version of America’s first classic novel, we can still find some differences between the book and the film.

**Deletion vs. Addition**

One of the biggest and everlasting attractions of Hawthorne that fascinates readers and critics of all times is the ambiguity and complexity implied in his works. Actually, Hawthorne’s ambiguous narrative method has never lost its color among literary critics by far. We can say, to some extent, that the ambiguities lie in Hawthorne’s intricate language style, which results from the delicate interweaving of degree adverbs between the lines. The use of degree adverbs makes Hawthorne’s attitude more indirect and euphemistic and endows the novel with a sense of uncertainty. For example, in *The Custom-House* part, the preface of *The Scarlet Letter*, the narrator stated:

> I must not be understood as affirming that, in the dressing up of the tale, and imagining the motives and modes of passion that influenced the characters who figured in it, ... I have allowed myself, as to such points, nearly, or altogether, as much license as if the facts had been entirely of my own invention. What I contend for is the authenticity of the outline.” (Hawthorne, 1992 p.25).

Here, Hawthorne puts three degree adverbs (or degree adverbial-phrases) in succession, i.e., as to such points, nearly, and altogether. The juxtaposition of the three degree adverbs (or degree adverbial-phrases) in one sentence makes Hawthorne’s attitudes ambiguous and deep. The uncertainty produced by the three adverbs or adverbial-phrases give the readers more space to think in the reading of *The Scarlet Letter*. However, the three adverbs or adverbial-phrases are cut by the voice-over narrator in Rick Hauser’s 1979 movie version; consequently, the ambiguous language style disappears.

In his review of the production for *Newsweek*, David Gelman (1979, p.94) explains that “to shape the story to small-screen parameters, director Rick Hauser has trimmed its ambiguities.” Besides cutting some adverbs or adverbial-phrases, Hauser reduces Hawthorne’s trademark equivocations by deleting sentences. For example, in the novel, the narrator reports, “The scarlet letter was her passport into regions where other women dared not tread. Shame, Despair, Solitude! These had been her teachers - stern and wild ones - and they had made her strong, but taught her much amiss” (Hawthorne, 1992, p.150). In the
1979 movie version, the sentence “but taught her much amiss” is omitted. Hauser subtly reassigns characters and incidents as well. In the movie adaptation Hester exclaims, in response to Dimmesdale’s complaint that he lacks her strength and, thus, cannot think to flee the colony: “This is my strength [gesturing to the scarlet letter]. It is my passport to the wild, free, lawless regions where others dare not tread. My teachers have been Shame, Despair, Solitude. They have made me strong.” As mentioned before, these lines are originally spoken by the narrator, not Hester. The problem with this reassignment and omission is obvious: Hawthorne’s ambivalence toward Hester and condemnation of her opinions are removed surgically.

Like the “much amiss” deletion, the deletion of sentences or clauses from voice-over passages may be small, but matters a lot. I will give another two examples to illustrate this. After Hester makes up her mind to continue her residence in Boston, Hauser’s narrator (Hawthorne) explains in voice-over, “Here dwelt, here trod the feet of one with whom she deemed herself connected in a union that, unrecognized on earth, would bring them together before the bar of final judgment, and make that their marriage altar” (Hawthorne, 1992, p. 60). However, the novel’s narrator ends the sentence with another clause, “for a joint futurity of endless retribution” (Hawthorne, 1992, p. 60). Another deletion comes from the last part of the movie. The voice-over narrator intones the tale’s moral, “Be True! Be True!” and that’s over. Actually, the novel continues with the following lines, “Show freely to the world, if not your worst, yet some trait by which the worst may be inferred!” (Hawthorne, 1992, p. 194). These deletions, together with the deletion of “much amiss” mentioned before (along with many others), point to a subtle reshaping of the story along the melodramatic lines.

These deletions are identified by Larry Baker as examples of the adaptors’ diminution of language, defined as the “deletion of phrases or sentences vital to establish Hawthorne’s authorial intent” (Baker, 1978, p. 221). Hauser’s misunderstanding of Hawthorne’s attitudes or his insensitivity to the context is reflected in the adaptations. Michael Davitt Bell (1990, pp. 89-90), a Hawthorne scholar, has noted that:

“a popular reading of The Scarlet Letter sees it as a tragedy of true love crushed by an unfeeling society. This line of criticism, in a curious way, turns Hester completely into a conventional natural heroine, unjustly persecuted by an intolerant society. But it falsifies the reality of the book. Hawthorne may pity Hester, he may sympathize with her, but he does not accept her values as his own. She is not his spokesman in the book. Hawthorne’s position is made quite clear, not only in his frequent criticisms of Hester, and in the seriousness of her crime, but also in Hester’s return to Boston at the close... [W]hat Hawthorne approves in his heroine is not her rebelliousness...but rather her ability to overcome that rebelliousness and assume the feminine qualities of domesticity.”

Jennifer Anne Solmes (2001, pp. 154-155) points out that the PBS adaptation “does exactly what Bell describes, reproducing this popular reading. Hauser reshapes the novel into a story of unjust persecution of lovers to avoid alienating his modern audience by criticizing them.”

Besides deletion of some words, phrases or sentences, Hauser diverts from his asserted faithfulness to the original novel through elaborate invention of some plots. One example is the invented exchange between Hester and Pearl in Part Three, meant to dramatize Hester’s inflections about woman’s destiny that are detailed by the narrator at the end of Chapter Thirteen, the “Another View of Hester” chapter.

Hester begins to question the nature of the whole race of womanhood. Was existence worth accepting, even to the happiest among them? ...She discerns, it may be, such a
hopeless task before her. As a first step, the whole system of society is to be torn down, and built up anew. Then, the very nature of the opposite sex, or its long hereditary habit, which has become like nature, is to be essentially modified, before woman can be allowed to assume what seems a fair and suitable position. Finally, all other difficulties being obviated, woman cannot take advantage of these preliminary reforms, until she herself shall have undergone a still mightier change; in which, perhaps, the ethereal essence, wherein she has her truest life, will be found to have evaporated...At times, a fearful doubt strove to possess her soul, whether it were not better to send Pearl at once to heaven, and go herself to such futurity as Eternal Justice should provide (Hawthorne, 1992, pp. 123-124).

The miniseries adapts this passage into a dialogue that begins with Pearl reading the Biblical story of Bathsheba. Solmes (2001, p. 156) gives us a minute portrait of the conversation between Hester and Pearl. Pearl turns and asks her mother, “Mother, what does it mean to be a virtuous woman? Mother, what does it mean to be a woman?” Hester answers, “It means that there are many truths, Pearl. But of all truths, this one - that if a woman swerves one hair’s breadth out of the beaten track then the whole universe will make common cause against her.” The scene then changes but the dialogue continues, with Pearl asking, “Are women not meant to be happy, Mother?” Hester answers, “Meant, Pearl? Nay, they are commanded to be happy. True happiness lies only in our obedience. For it to be different, then all about must be torn down and built up anew. It is a task a thousand Anne Hutchinsons could not accomplish.” Pearl inquires, “Who is she, Mother?” Hester responds, “A woman who set her spirit above the law. A woman brave enough to make men fear her.” Finally, Pearl asks, “What do men do when they fear women, Mother?” Hester replies, “They make us doubt whether it were not better to send the children we bear to heaven at once.” Hester’s comments in this sequence include many phrases from the passage in the novel, but the message overall is more directly anti-patriarchal and feminist, in the modern sense.

Hauser’s another adaption of the plots happens in the forest scene where Dimmesdale and Hester kissed, while in the novel Hester merely pressed Dimmesdale’s head against her bosom. The setting of The Scarlet Letter is in the 17th century America when Puritanism prevailed in every aspect of people’s life, Hawthorne is very careful about the erotic descriptions in his works. The love affair between the hero and heroine ends at the very beginning of the novel. Hauser’s addition of the kissing part caters to the taste of modern audience.

**Narrator’s Voice vs. Performance/Scenario**

The narrative ways of the novel and the representative methods of the film are different. The medium of literature is language or words, while the film mainly depends on the performance of the cast. Therefore, a narrator’s voice should be cut as much as possible or else the film will appear tedious. In many parts of the film, scenarios replace the narrator’s voice. For example, in Chapter 5 of the original novel, the “Hester at Her Needle” chapter, the narrator tells the readers, “Clergymen paused in the street to address words of exhortation, that brought a crowd, with its mingled grin and frown, around the poor, sinful woman” (Hawthorne, 1992, p. 64). The scene was performed vividly in the movie. When Hester was walking in the street with Pearl, Minister Wilson stopped her and questioned her. When Dimmesdale tries to persuade him that his exhortation might be improper with the presence of Pearl, Mr. Wilson says: “The child must know the mother’s shame. It was for her soul’s good.” And Hester replies, “Mr. Dimmesdale, fear not for Pearl, for I’m not” (Knee, 1979). Here Hauser’s invention of the scene is typical of drama:
performance instead of narration. Hester’s position as a marginalized woman and stigmatized mother is highlighted in the scene. The dramatic scene can achieve a better effect than the narrative and cannot fail to resonate with the audience.

Another example comes from the characterization of Pearl. In the novel, Pearl’s character is given through the narrator’s voice, “Above all, the warfare of Hester’s spirit, at that epoch, was perpetuated in Pearl. She could recognize her wild, desperate, defiant mood, the flightiness of her temper, and even some of the very cloud-shapes of gloom and despondency that had brooded in her heart” (Hawthorne, 1992, p. 68). In the movie, the readers need not struggle with the old English language because this part is represented by a scene: Pearl opens the door of the church and lets in the storm when Mr. Wilson is shouting in his sermon, “Is there any evil in the city? Search it out!” (Knee, 1979). Mr. Wilson’s stern tone reminds the audience of Hester’s situation told by the narrator in Chapter 5: “If she entered a church, trusting to share the Sabbath smile of the Universal Father, it was often her mishap to find herself the text of the discourse” (Hawthorne, 1992, p. 64). Hauser’s invention of the scene is tricky; he combines Hester’s situation and Pearl’s protesting behavior together. Pearl’s petulance, precociousness and perversity is vividly reflected in the scene. This scene foretells the next scenario of the conflicts between Hester and Governor Bellingham over the custody of Pearl.

The above examples show Hauser’s creative skills of changing narrative into scenarios. Besides this kind of transformation, Hauser shows his tricky transformation from the narrator’s voice to one of the characters’ voice in the drama version.

One example comes from the phenomenon that Dimmesdale puts his hand over his heart. In the novel, this phenomenon is told from the perspective of the townspeople, “he was often observed, on any slight alarm or other sudden accident, to put his hand over his heart with first a flush and then a paleness, indicative of pain” (Hawthorne, 1992, p. 90). In the movie, Dimmesdale’s putting his hand over his heart is mentioned by Chillingworth; following those words, Mr. Wilson suggests that Dimmesdale should take Chillingworth as his physician, and consequently, the plot of them living under the same roof seems plausible.

We can find another example from the famous statement of the narrator in the novel, “The scarlet letter had not done its office” (Hawthorne, 1992, p. 124). The narrator’s criticizing attitude towards Hester is implied in this sentence. From the narrator’s voice, we can infer Hawthorne’s attitude towards Hester and her sin. However, this sentence is not uttered by the narrator as it is in the novel, but comes from the mouth of Governor Bellingham in the part when Hester comes to Bellingham’s mansion for the custody of Pearl. Hauser’s invention is not faithful to the original source and loses the narrator’s criticizing tone.

Symbols/Psychological Description vs. Images/Music
A striking feature of The Scarlet Letter is Hawthorne’s frequent employment of symbols. For example, the symbol of a rosebush is discussed by many critics over its importance in showing nature’s sympathy and pity to Hester. This technique is emphasized by Hawthorne in the last sentence of Chapter one: “It may serve, let us hope, to symbolize some sweet moral blossom that may be found along the track, or relieve the darkening close of a tale of human frailty and sorrow” (Hawthorne, 1992, p. 36). In the film, however, the rosebush never appears. Without the narrator’s voice, the rosebush is only a cluster of flower without any specific meaning to the audience. If the voice-over narrator in the film reads the
sentence, it will seem sentimental. From here, we can see the shortcomings of the movie when compared with the novel version.

Likewise, in the novel, Pearl is regarded as the living scarlet letter. Hawthorne makes use of the narrator’s voice to remind the readers of the phenomenon:

*It was the scarlet letter in another form: the scarlet letter endowed with life. The mother herself – as if the red ignominy were so deeply scorched into her brain that all her conceptions assumed its form - had carefully wrought out the similitude, lavishing many hours of morbid ingenuity to create an analogy between the object of her affection and the emblem of her guilt and torture.* (Hawthorne, 1992, p. 76).

The narrator tells the readers the influence of the scarlet letter on Hester and Pearl’s symbolic meaning. The presence of the scarlet letter “A” and Pearl is a torture to Hester, as the narrator in the novel tells us. However, in the movie, it’s almost impossible to associate the scarlet letter with Pearl’s image. On one hand, Hauser’s decision to outfit Hester with a gold letter “A” was sharply criticized at the time of the mini-series premiere on PBS, as Hawthorne was quite specific about the “scarlet letter” being red-colored. The gold letter “A” is fantastically designed in the 1975 movie version, each stroke embroidered in the shape of gold branches with purple and pink flowers in between. Moreover, when Hester is stitching the letter, she is humming a merry little tune. It’s impossible for the audience to feel Hester’s agony brought by the scarlet letter and Pearl. On the other hand, Pearl, in the movie version, is dressed in pink and white, instead of scarlet.

Hawthorne’s frequent psychological description of the protagonists is another style of *The Scarlet Letter*. The employment of psychological depiction contributes to Hawthorne’s fame as the most well-known 19th century American writer. By the employment of psychological description, Hawthorne is able to go into the interior heart of the protagonists and examine their moral and psychological actions. For example, when Hester is standing on the scaffold platform to endure humiliation, her mind begins to recall her past in order to escape the cruel and oppressing reality. In this way, Hawthorne can tell the readers of Hester’s past life: her declining family, her loving mother and deformed husband and her dissatisfaction with her marriage. The readers can see that Hester is penitent publicly, but privately, she imprisons herself into her own world of freedom. She is not truly penitent for her shame. Actually, she doesn’t think that she is sinful. There is no image of the angry God in her mind, just scenes of her past life. When she saw her husband among the townspeople, she felt that, “dreadful as it was, she was conscious of a shelter in the presence of these thousand witnesses. It was better to stand thus, with so many betwixt him and her, than to greet him face to face - they two alone. She fled for refuge, as it were, to the public exposure, and dreaded the moment when its protection should be withdrawn from her” (Hawthorne, 1992, p. 48). From the minute depiction of Hester’s psychology, we can sense her fear at the sudden presence of her husband.

Although it is difficult for the drama version to convey the connotations of symbols, and psychological description seems impossible in the movie version, images accompanied with music are frequently employed in the latter medium to achieve the same effect. For example, the images of the scaffold are interwoven in the movie from time to time, each time accompanied with tragic music in order to arouse the audience’s resonance. In Chapter 5, Hawthorne gives a psychological description of Hester’s horror and struggle when she finds that she gains a penetrative power of perceiving others’ sin, which is endowed by the scarlet letter. In Chapter 11, Dimmesdale was tortured by his inner conflicts and visions
of ghosts. In the movie version, Hauser shows the two protagonists’ psychology with the same medium: fire. Hester sees others’ sin through images emerging from fire and Dimondale sees the visions also from fire. Both of the scenes are accompanied with astounding music.

**Conclusion**
There are numerous differences between Hawthorne’s classic *The Scarlet Letter* and the 1979 movie version. As regards to the cast members, we can say that the actors and actresses have done an excellent job. However, we can still find some discrepancy between what the novel tells and what the cast member conveys. For example, a notable difference is the color of Hester Prynne’s eyes, which are black in the story but light blue in this version. This is mentioned because Meg Foster’s eyes stand out to give her an other-worldly look, which is very effective. Also, this author expected to see more differentiation between Kevin Conway’s early vs. later Chillingworth. We, as the audience, would like to see Chillingworth more “eaten up” by his own evil in the end scenes. John Heard deals superbly with the dichotomies and private tortures of Dimmesdale. John Heard is not only physically handsome (helping us understand Hester’s “fall”), but he seems more than able to effortlessly manipulate the shame-filled, weak, and complex character of Dimmesdale. However, his eyes contain no loving feelings towards Hester, even in the kissing scene, which is Hauser’s other invention.

Readers read a novel by the decoding of language and symbols in the novel. Films provide images and sound to the audience. The narrative ways of the novel and the film are different. Novels can use various narrative techniques to describe the character’s mind, but the film can only depend on the camera, lighting, sound, and background. Therefore, changes in adaptation are essential and practically unavoidable, mandated both by the constraints of time and medium, but how much is always a balance. From this sense, we can say that it is impossible for a four-hour-long movie to convey all the connotations and ambiguities contained in a twenty-four chapter of the novel. After all, the readers of a novel can understand according to individual differences, but a movie is directed according to the director’s ideas and understanding. The audience has to accept a specific understanding.

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**References**


An Interpretation of Iris Murdoch’s The Black Prince from the Perspective of Existentialism

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[Abstract] Iris Murdoch’s The Black Prince, which successfully fuses artistic creation with philosophical meditation, is considered by many critics to be the best of her novels. This paper, based on a close reading, will try to explore the existentialist literature features and philosophical themes embodied in her work through the analysis of the protagonist, Bradley, and the exploration of the “self” road in The Black Prince. Man’s moral growth as a spiritual pilgrimage to good is, at the same time, a process of unself by means of practicing the moral attention of artistic creation and love for others.

[Keywords] existentialism; self; contingency; absurdity; freedom

Introduction
Iris Murdoch (1919-1999) is considered one of the most productive and prominent writers of postwar British literature. She was also a great philosopher and an outstanding fictional theorist in Britain. Her novels mainly discussed the issues concerning human’s existence, free choice, the significance of goodness and the concept of the individual. In four decades of writing, she produced twenty-six novels, which include Under the Net, The Black Prince, and The Sea, etc. Novels of her later writing period received a variety of literary awards as they are more mature and complex in themes, and in artistic forms more versatile and creative (Murdoch, 1973). In 1973, she was awarded the James Tait Black Memorial Prize for Fiction for The Black Prince. The Black Prince, which successfully fuses artistic creation with philosophical meditation, is considered by many critics to be the best of her novels. In the novel, Iris Murdoch shapes a mysterious and multiple image of the Black Prince – Bradley.

The Black Prince is considered by most critics as one of the best, if not the best, of Murdoch’s works. It is considered as Murdoch’s most successful attempt to fuse philosophical meditation with artistic creation. The novel is a first-person narration of Bradley Pearson’s love affair with Julian Baffin, the daughter of his friend and literary rival, Arnold Baffin. The narrative consists of three parts. The first part ends at the point Bradley realizes he has fallen in love with Julian. The second part deals with his declaration of his love, and the responses of Julian’s parent Arnold Baffin, Rachel and several other characters. The third part is concerned with Bradley’s elopement with Julian and Arnold’s discovery of them. The narrative ends with Bradley’s scapegoat imprisonment for Rachel’s murder of her husband Arnold and at last Bradley dies from cancer in the prison.

Existentialism has a great impact on Murdoch’s thoughts and her literary creation in her early life. She expresses her philosophical concepts and ethical thinking through her novels in the same way as French existentialist Sartre does. To a considerable degree, her novels are a fictional illustration and artistic representation of some of her most essential existentialist ideas.

This paper tries to explore the existentialist literary features and philosophical themes embodied in The Black Prince by analyzing the protagonist’s (Bradley) image and the exploration of the “self” road. Through the analysis of the philosophical themes in The Black Prince and the discussion of existentialist...
theory, we can profoundly understand Murdoch’s creative thinking. Murdoch tried to explore some philosophical and moral problems: human existence and freedom, pursuing human goodness and the animadversion to the autism. She considered that only by shifting our attention from selfness to otherness could we truly achieve love and goodness in this world of contingency. Meanwhile, true love helps us overcome our natural selfness.

**The Influence of Existentialism on Murdoch**

Iris Murdoch’s fictional world is multi-dimensional. Philosophical thoughts and literary schools such as realism, existentialism, feminism, mysticism, psychological theory and Neo-Platonism may have, more or less, found their positions in her novels. In Western literature, it is really not so common for writers to combine serious moral, philosophical thinking and complex plots in an artistic entity. However, Murdoch was the first writer who brings the style of the Sartrean philosophical novel into the literary world in Britain (Murdoch, 1989).

During World War II, *Sartre, Romantic Rationalist* was published in 1953 after Murdoch met the French writer Sartre in Belgium. In this book, Murdoch discussed Sartre’s creative thought in philosophy and literature as a representative of the existentialist theory and literature. Only from the title of this book, can we discover some correspondence between Murdoch and Sartre. The more important thing is that “*Sartre, Romantic Rationalist*” could be a clue to seek the root in that Murdoch was deeply influenced by the existentialism. Actually, Murdoch herself was a romantic rationalist. She, like Sartre, expressed her philosophical reflection in her novels.

Jean Paul Sartre (1905-1980) was the great master of existentialism. He formed his own system of philosophical thought, atheistic existentialism, by abandoning Kierkegaard’s religious mysticism and inheriting the irrationalism of Husserl. From then on, the development of existentialism entered a new stage, which was the commonly so-called contemporary existentialism. Sartre’s existential philosophy mainly encompassed three points (Sartre, 1987), as follows.

**Existence Precedes Essence**

In Sartre’s view, the existence of the human being is like a seed accidentally falling into this world; there is no nature at all. The existence of a man must be proven through his own actions. Human existence can be proven by his being, appearance and presentation. The so-called “existence” first refers to “self” existence which is a “self-perceived” existence. If “self” existence does not exist, nothing can exist. The concept of “existence precedes essence” means that a human’s “self” determines his nature. A human being is not something else but simply the result of his actions. Human beings exist in the absurd and then choose to create their own nature. In Sartre’s drama, the so-called existence is the “situation” or “environment”. Facing the crisis of survival, one felt depressed. But he had to choose by his own will, and found the final solution to the crisis in his own way.

**Free Choice**

Freedom is the core statement of existentialism. God is dead, people in this world are free and human’s choices for their actions are free. People live in this world and when they face various situations, everyone has his or her own free choices, such as what action to take and how to take it. This is because people have to decide their own actions without any prior model, without God’s guidance, and without the judgment of others. People should be responsible for their own actions. Sartre believed that if man could not make a
“free choice” in accordance with his own individual will, he would lose his personality. The loss of “self” cannot mean real existence.

**The World Is Absurd**

People accidentally come into this world, which is rapidly changing, irrational, purely accidental, chaotic, and unreasonable and objective. People feel restricted and obstructed. There are inevitable conflicts, struggles, and cruelty. The world is full of evil and crimes, and everything is absurd. People who are bitter cannot decide their own destiny in this absurd, cold, and vast world. What the world can give to people is only endless depression, despair, and pessimism.

The key point of the existentialist theory is considering that all things and all existence in the world are only the form of the human-self. On the other hand, the existentialist has to admit that the outside world is antagonistic to the “self” world, and it becomes the limit or obstacle for people to make free choice. So, everyone is lonely, and he or she will be scared because of the danger of the world. This was a very popular thought process in post-war Europe. It was a subject of most writers in the 1950s-1960s, and it was also one theme that manifested in Murdoch’s books again and again. In this paper, based on a close reading, this author will try to explore the existentialist literary features and philosophical themes embodied in Murdoch’s works through the analysis of the protagonist, Bradley, and the exploration of the “self” road in *The Black Prince*.

**An Interpretation of Bradley’s, the Protagonist, Image and the Exploration of the “Self” Road from the Perspective of Existentialism**

**Self Existence and Attention to the Other**

*The Black Prince* is one of the typical works of exploring self-existence. It explains the problems of man’s existence through the aspects of love, art, and morality. Whether it is love, art, or morality, in a sense, it reflects the philosophical significance of Kierkegaard’s existence and self. Kierkegaard argues that "self" is implemented in the relationship of the existence (Miles, 2010). Existential relationships should be associated with a perfect target. Only in the process of mutual control, can people recognize their true selves’ existence, continue to achieve the self, surpass the self, and perfect the self, thus obtaining the true existential significance and value. As a man of spiritual pursuit, Bradley, in life, art, love, has his own comparative objects. However, Priscilla’s death, Arnold’s death, and the departure of Julian’s love all make the multiple selves gradually disintegrate. Their passing away, one-by-one, reflects the failure of Bradley's self-centered existence. The collapse of the self–centered existence leads us to the unself. Bradley moves gradually from the claustrophobic dilemma in life, self-doubt in art and moral deformity, to self-affirmation, to recognize the reality of the situation, and to achieve self-perfection.

In *The Black Prince*, in life, Bradley's devotion to self mainly is reflected in his sister Priscilla and his neglect and indifference to his brother-in-law, Francis Marlowe. To sum up, Bradley’s self is mainly reflected in the escape of the real self. It is this kind of escape that makes him pay more attention to his own feelings while ignoring the meaning of the other. The novel actually reveals the tragic situation of modern people by Bradley’s self-centered ideas: recognition of self – hinders establishment of the essential link with the other; the loss of others at the same time means the loss of himself. This is his tragedy and the tragedy of the people in modern society.

The novel’s subtitle is “the celebration of love,” so we cannot avoid the subject of love, mainly reflected in the relationship between Bradley and Julian. Julian is Bradley’s spiritual pursuit level and the
ideal of the self: “This is a sacred piece of virgin land,” and “It is also a world without sin” (Liu, 2009). She could lead to the passion of Bradley’s creation to arouse his love for life and to focus on the other, and she could lead him to the attention of the other and the world. With Julian’s departure and the denial of his love, the soul of the self began to collapse, and eventually Bradley had to go to the unself in art.

**Contingency and Absurdity of Life**

Existentialism is a kind of non-rationalism philosophy in modern Western thoughts. “Although the existentialist ideas are not the same, but the self-consciousness is the core. The self and the world are under the hostile position. In the strange, cold and absurd world, people are isolated and subjected to the pain of living and fear of death” (Sartre, 1987). “Murdoch holds a similar view. Murdoch's novels are influenced by Sartre deeply, at least in the human condition, which is similar to Sartre’s ideas: humans are lonely individuals living in an absurd world and forced to make moral decisions, the results of which are uncertain (Miles, 2010).

In comparison with other existentialists, Murdoch emphasizes the existence of a contingency and a series of accidental incidents that must bring about absurd ends. In the novel, the interpretation of Bradley’s tragic life’s destiny is to reveal the nature of life and the absurdity of life. In the literary creation, through the depiction of the contingency, the author expresses the true state of human existence.

In the novel, Bradley’s fate shows that he was controlled by accident, and he had to face reality at last. Bradley’s troubles and miseries are from his brother-in-law’s unexpected coming when Bradley is about to leave London. It was not too late, but in the last moment, he met him, and he brought the news that he was unable to leave London and then he fell into various disputes. If Bradley had left London smoothly, he would not have helped Rachel deal with rehabilitation, and he would not have left fingerprints in the cards, thereby not being doomed; if, as before, he hadn’t asked Francis to accompany him to help Rachel, he would not be on trial. However, he happened to not let Francis to accompany him. In Bradley’s life, there seems to be an invisible hand manipulating him, making him fall into a number of external and accidental factors that are difficult to get rid. It is the many accidental things that eventually lead him to his inevitable fate. In another example, the love between Bradley and Julian is the contingency. As a Puritan, he has been laughing at love. However, Julian made him fall in love. Because of contingency, Julian eventually left him, causing the tragedy of his love.

A series of causal events are bound to make a series of absurd endings. In *The Black Prince*, almost every character causes a ridiculous ending because of some accidental causes. Bradley pursues perfect art in his lifetime, but ultimately cannot write any popular books, and he did not murder, but he eventually died in prison. Rachel is really killing Arnold, but eventually goes unpunished; Julian does not love reading and repeatedly drops out of school, but eventually she becomes a writer and talks about artistic creation in writing. All of these things are absurd. More absurd is the end in which the killing occurred, Rachel is not dead, but Arnold is. Bradley becomes a murderer falling life’s adversity. His tragic life is self-evident. So, in the face of real life, humans need to recognize this chance, to fully understand the true state of people. In this, the author may want to tell the reader such a philosophy: people’s lives and people’s destinies are full of contingency and uncertainty. Life does not have certain rules. It is dominated by opportunity and need. All people can do is to accept the reality and have the courage to face life. In reality, people can constantly realize and improve themselves.
Free Choice

The core of existentialism is freedom. That is, when people choose their own actions, they are absolutely free. Existentialism believes that people in this world have their own freedom. In the face of a variety of environments, the kind of action to take and how to make free choice are controlled by human selves. Sartre argued that people in the face of things lose their personalities and their selves, if they do not have the will to make free choice. A person’s existence is not true. Murdoch was influenced by Sartre and existentialism, so, to her, life is absurd in the face of an indifferent universe. People are forced to select their freedom, but in this crazy world, people can make their own choices. Murdoch does not fully accept Sartre’s conception of freedom, and she thinks his theory lacks the objective evaluation of the status of “the other”, thus lacking moral standards. Murdoch’s view of freedom is based on recognition of the other’s objective reality. Only through admitting the existence of the other, accepting this reality, and changing the self-centered thinking mode, can people find the road leading to freedom. In the novel the Black Prince, Murdoch vividly reveals the profound connotation of freedom through a detailed description of the hero’s exploration of the road of the self to the unself.

In The Black Prince, Bradley is a flawed man, but in the end, Murdoch gives him full freedom to choose. In the choice of life and death, Bradley chooses to take responsibility for others and take on all these responsibilities. As he said, this is a sin of love. Bradley closes the self at the beginning and has ultimate choice of implied meaning. His short life experiences the existence of two kinds of freedom in different ways, although the two are not the same, yet nevertheless, they profoundly reflect the characteristics of a kind of “freedom”. When Bradley decides to choose holiday travel and write with great concentration, he thinks this isolation is the way to self-existence is his own world. At this time, his cognition of freedom is entirely based on self, and his choice is free of social rules and contingency. This existence is the freedom through which he desires to transcend all bonds and obstacles to achieve a kind of freedom that has no desire. When man’s will conquers all obstacles, there is nothing to get rid of. In fact, with contingency in reality, the existence of people and people will make this freedom become empty, unreal and impractical. In the preparation of leaving, the ex-wife’s brother suddenly visits, Priscilla suddenly comes, and the Arnold family’s conflicts erupt the chance to meet and fall in love with Julian. All of this seems to be in a sudden moment to disrupt the lives of Bradley. He began to face a series of difficulties and problems. At this time, this kind of freedom is obvious and has a kind of social significance. Murdoch believes that “freedom” is not usually what we say; people are able to choose a certain object, but it’s whether or not people can choose. She thinks freedom, on the one hand, is the process of conquering the self, namely, getting rid of self. On the other hand, Murdoch also believes the recognition of the dissimilarity between people. Visibly, to be really free is to recognize differences in the outside world and to understand and respect the differences. Therefore, Murdoch thinks that freedom is the way of getting rid of self and the starting point of respecting the other. Through the creation of the character, Bradley, Murdoch also did a detailed interpretation and cognition of the dual performance of freedom.

Conclusion

In art, love, freedom, death and other issues, the choices and dilemmas Bradley faces are actually the entire human living condition. Through Bradley, it is clear that Murdoch does not promote human egocentrism but outlines a critical attitude towards it. In Murdoch’s view, self-consciousness is an obstacle to the human thinking mode of morality. There is no benefit to living which is a dilemma of modern people. Instead, achieving the unself is to bring peace and happiness to others and the world. Therefore, the only way to live
is to give up the self; human beings can clearly recognize themselves, pay attention to the other, and recognize the world. The ultimate pursuit is getting rid of selfish “good”. In Murdoch’s thought, “good” is not only the ultimate purification of the evil nature of humans and is also an important way to survive the human predicament.

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References
A Study on the Different Versions of Translation

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[Abstract] Chinese President Xi Jinping raised the initiative of jointly building the Silk Road Economic Belt and the 21st-Century Maritime Silk Road, which has been referred to as Yi Dai Yi Lu in Chinese. However, because of the extensive connotations of the Chinese language and profound meanings of the initiative Yi Dai Yi Lu, there are misinterpretations of the implication, ambiguity of the acronym and some inconsistent translations in its translation. This paper reviews different translation versions and discusses their pros and cons, illustrates the corresponding relationship between the translations and the deep implications of Yi Dai Yi Lu, and proposes a reference version of Yi Dai Yi Lu, in order to clarify misunderstandings and help promote the implementation of the initiative.

[Keywords] Yi Dai Yi Lu; translation; initiative; Silk Road

Introduction

Since the 21st century, the world has entered an era marked by complex international situations and closer international cooperation. At the same time, China has entered into a fast track of comprehensive development and the Chinese government has endeavored to build good images and to seek more cooperation. Therefore, the Silk Road Spirit – “peace and cooperation, openness and inclusiveness, mutual learning and mutual benefit” (NDRC, et al., 2015) - has been much more important in the process of international and regional development. It is based on this consideration that President Xi Jinping raised the initiative of jointly building the Silk Road Economic Belt and the 21st-Century Maritime Silk Road, which has been referred to as Yi Dai Yi Lu in Chinese.

The implementation of this initiative will strengthen intercultural communication between various civilizations and promote mutual prosperity of different countries, which will play a significant role in world peace and development. Therefore, the translation of the name Yi Dai Yi Lu is especially essential to the initiative, since the translation itself is a cross-language and cross-culture communicative behavior. A successful translation will reflect the common pursuit of different countries, enhance cultural, even all-round, exchanges, and help China obtain the understanding and trust from the world while a clumsy translation will impede intercultural communication, hinder the understanding and recognition of the initiative from the world, and do harm to the implementation of the initiative.

However, because of the extensive connotations of the Chinese language and the profound meanings of the initiative Yi Dai Yi Lu which has been created for nearly two years, there are still some problems in the translation of Yi Dai Yi Lu such as misinterpretation of the implication, ambiguity of the acronym and some inconsistent translations and so forth.

Literature review

After the initiative of Yi Dai Yi Lu was raised by Chinese President Xi Jinping, it drew a lot of attention from the critical circle at home and abroad, and many scholars and critics have done many researches and commentaries on it from different perspectives. However, previous studies on this initiative mainly focused on its implications while little attention has been paid on the translation of Yi Dai Yi Lu.
Therefore, the previous studies on the initiative can be mainly divided into four aspects which are the connotation, goals, necessity and challenges of the initiative.

As to the connotation of the initiative, Zheng Yongnian, the director of East Asian Institute (EAI), held that the key words of Yi Dai Yi Lu initiative are “peace and development” (2015a). Besides, as an article in *Journal of Resources and Ecology* stated, the initiative is “a significant national strategy for China”, and the emphasis of the initiative is “on the construction of roads and achieving economic agglomeration and radiation through the construction of traffic axes” (Wang Zhe, et al., 2015). When it refers to the goals of the initiative, David Arase, a Visiting Senior Fellow at the Institute of Southeast Asian Studies (ISEAS), said that the aims of the initiative are “to restructure the economy and geopolitics of Eurasia” (2015). Most scholars agree that it is necessary to raise and implement this initiative, and according to Yao Peisheng (2015), the Yi Dai Yi Lu initiative is a “booster” for the cooperation between foreign countries and China as well as the development of the whole country”. Meanwhile, there are also different voice for the initiative. For instance, a foreign press (2015) reported that some countries stay “wary and skeptical of the real intentions” behind the initiative.

In China, there are also abundant studies on the Yi Dai Yi Lu initiative which also pay much attention on its implications while research on the translation of Yi Dai Yi Lu still remains quite limited. When it comes to answering the question, “What is Yi Dai Yi Lu?”, Li Xiangyang (2015) came up with his definition in which he thought that Yi Dai Yi Lu is a new type of regional economic cooperation mechanism whose goal is to assemble an integral whole with a common destiny. Chen Yurong (2015) answered the question by regarding the Yi Dai Yi Lu initiative as a new cooperation mode of international politics and economy. And according to Zhang Yunling (2015a), the Yi Dai Yi Lu initiative is corresponding with the demands of the era, while it aims to realize China’s peaceful rise. In the process of the implementation of Yi Dai Yi Lu initiative, he believes there are three challenges that China needs to deal with: to reassure the international community about the idea of a “China threat”; to prevent and defuse extremism and terrorism risks; to reduce the investment risk (Zhang, 2015b).

Through reviewing the studies on the implications of Yi Dai Yi Lu initiative, people may come up with better reference translations of Yi Dai Yi Lu. Furthermore, there are various translating versions of Yi Dai Yi Lu in different researches, which, to some degree, hinders the understanding of the initiative from the world, and presents the necessity and urgency of an accurate translation of Yi Dai Yi Lu. At the Beijing APEC Summit, Xi Jinping once said that only when there is a road can people and things flow. Similarly, therefore, only when there is a proper translation of Yi Dai Yi Lu can culture and common benefits flow.

**Different Translation Versions of Yi Dai Yi Lu**

With the development of this initiative and its great significance, and although there has been the official translation version “The Belt and Road Initiative”, the translation of Yi Dai Yi Lu has been discussed more and more heatedly and various versions have emerged, one after another. Some people hold the version the “Belt and Road Strategy” (Huang, 2015), of which the “strategy”, frequently used in national policy, in the author’s opinion, is inappropriate. According to Lawrence Freedman (2013), the word “strategy” is always used to denote “a comprehensive way to try to pursue political ends, including the threat or actual use of force, in a dialectic of wills”. Zheng Yongnian (2015b) also holds that when the word “strategy” is used, it is always related to some political or military factors. Therefore, a “strategy” in the name of the initiative will make other countries misunderstand China in that the initiative perhaps
includes other political or military intentions instead of a program merely serving the public. Other countries may regard the initiative as a China’s public diplomacy tool which will harm their state interests and threaten their national security.

Another version is “One Belt, One Road” (Zhao, 2015) whose acronym is “OBOR” is widely accepted because of its conciseness. Only four letters are used to represent an initiative with extensive meaning, which on one hand, is brief and concise and is easy to remember for foreigners, while on the other hand, it is so concise that it leads to vagueness of its meaning. As The Vancouver Sun reported, “the AIIB is an institution that...has a concrete role and function. In comparison, ‘One Belt, One Road’ is far more nebulous, despite playing an equal (or perhaps greater) role in China’s efforts to have more say on the world financial stage...” (Chiang, 2015), which fully expresses their criticism that the meaning expressed by these four characters is too “nebulous”. And its acronym “OBOR” is also quite brief and short, but at the same time, there may be ambiguity about this acronym. For one thing, Obor is the name of the surrounding district of Bucharest, the capital of Romania. For another, “obor” meant enclosure or corral in old Romanian, which is contrary to the ideas of the initiative being open and inclusive.

As is known, China’s official translation version of Yi Dai Yi Lu is “The Belt and Road Initiative” (NDRC, et al., 2015). In this version, “initiative” is included, which is quite accurate and appropriate, since it avoids letting other countries misunderstand the initiative as a “strategy” of China’s expansion. And “initiative” itself represents the meaning of “proposal”, which is a kind of “suggestion” instead of “imposition”. In the implementation of the initiative, all countries can take participation in this initiative as a voluntary choice rather than a forced situation, which is in conformity with the Silk Road Spirit “peace and cooperation” and the basic principles of the initiative. As to the “Belt and Road” included in the translation, the two simple words “belt” and “road” fail to express the extensive connotations and profound meanings of Yi Dai Yi Lu. This version tries to translate the Chinese words “Yi Dai Yi Lu” word-by-word as “belt” corresponds to the Chinese character “dai” while “road” to “lu”. Such a word for word translation will never give the full meaning of Yi Dai Yi Lu initiative. Besides, the consonance of the pronunciation and the aesthetic perception of the array form of Chinese Characters “Yi Dai Yi Lu” has been completely lost in this translation. Therefore, if we try to find an accurate and vivid translation of Yi Dai Yi Lu, a word-for-word translation should be avoided.

**Reference Version Based on the Implications of Yi Dai Yi Lu**

In this paper, Yi Dai Yi Lu is suggested to be translated into “The Land and Maritime Silk Road Initiative”, which has been also promoted by NDRC, the Chinese Foreign Ministry and Chinese Ministry of Commerce (NDRC, 2015). First of all, the idea of “Silk Road” can be demonstrated in the translation of Yi Dai Yi Lu. Firstly, it is known that the initiative of jointly building the Silk Road Economic Belt and the 21st-Century Maritime Silk Road was raised by President Xi Jinping according to the ancient Silk Road, and thus ‘Silk Road’ emerging in the translation can make the source of Yi Dai Yi Lu clear. Secondly, the ancient Silk Road, dating back to more than two millennia ago, is the symbol of the cooperation and communication between the East and the West. So with the help of this symbol reflected in the translation, foreigners in other countries will understand and recognize this initiative much more easily. The Vancouver Sun also published, “the best way Western observers have been able to visualize Beijing’s plan is a revival of the ancient ‘Silk Road’, which linked Europe to China as a major trade route more than a thousand years ago, boosting the economies and cultural interactions of all the peoples along the way” (Chiang, 2015). Third, there are profound cultural implications and bountiful historical images
of the conception of the Silk Road itself. According to Liu Jinsong (2015), Kevin Rudd, the former Australian prime minister, also suggested that “Silk Road”, as the key words, should be preserved in the translation of Yi Dai Yi Lu since the words “Silk Road” are full of historical sense and emotional appeal.

Furthermore, the conception of land and sea can be expressed in the translation of Yi Dai Yi Lu. According to the vision and proposed actions outlined on jointly building the Silk Road Economic Belt and 21st-Century Maritime Silk Road, the Silk Road Economic Belt covers the continents of Asia, Europe and Africa. Up north, it links China with Central Asia, Russia and Europe; the western part covers parts of Central Asia, West Asia, Persian Gulf and the Mediterranean Sea; to the south is Southeast Asia, South Asia and the Indian Ocean. Thus, the Silk Road Economic Belt is an economic belt that mainly runs through the continents. The 21st-Century Maritime Silk Road starts from China’s coast, goes to Europe through the South China Sea and the Indian Ocean in one route, and to the South Pacific through the South China Sea in the other, hence, the 21st-Century Maritime Silk Road is a kind of “Silk Road” on the sea. Therefore, based on the actual areas the two roads cover, the implication of land and sea can be reflected in the translation of Yi Dai Yi Lu in order to introduce the initiative in a better way with more specific and clearer details and to avoid the nebulousness of its meaning.

Lastly, as the official translation of Yi Dai Yi Lu, the word “initiative” is suggested to be retained. As is known, for one thing, the word “initiative” has the meaning of “first step” or “opening move”, which reflects China’s active and positive attitude to seek mutual cooperation to promote common development. For another, as discussed above, “initiative”, with neutral meanings, is different from “strategy” which has strong political intentions.

Therefore, this paper suggests that Yi Dai Yi Lu be translated into “The Land and Maritime Silk Road Initiative”. On one hand, this version includes several key words to introduce the connotation of Yi Dai Yi Lu from both the horizontal and vertical perspective in order to boost a better understanding and recognition of Yi Dai Yi Lu from the world. On the other hand, “The Land and Maritime Silk Road Initiative” can avoid the confusion of ideas between Yi Dai Yi Lu of China and the New Silk Road of the United States since the latter has always been regarded as a hegemony plan of US.

Conclusion
The Yi Dai Yi Lu initiative explores a road towards a win-win cooperation and common development by enhancing mutual understanding and trust, and a successful translation version of the name will not only express the implication of the initiative fully and accurately, and accelerate the implementation of the initiative and the development of China, but will also boost further understanding and recognition, encourage more countries to participate in this program, and help instill positive energy into the development of the entire world.

It is certain that the present study of the translation of Yi Dai Yi Lu has its limitations. For instance, the acronym of the reference version “The Land and Maritime Silk Road Initiative” will be slightly more complex. Also, opinions put forward in the paper need to be tested with a large amount of practices.

The author sincerely hopes the paper will shed a new light on the study of the translation of Yi Dai Yi Lu. Hopefully, more scholars and translators will devote their endeavors to this study to put forward much better translations of Yi Dai Yi Lu to promote the implementation of the initiative, as well as the development of China and the entire world.
References


Comparative Study of Two Translated Versions of Zhuangzi Based on Steiner’s Hermeneutic Translation Mode

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Abstract Zhuangzi is a great representative of Taoist Classics and classic Chinese ancient literature. Zhuangzi is noted for its bold vision, implicit nature and unique expression. In less than 100 years, Zhuangzi has been translated many times by different translators, both home and abroad. This thesis attempts to perform a comparative study on two translated versions by Professor Wang Rongpei and eminent American sinologist Victor H. Mair from the perspective of George Steiner’s Hermeneutic Translation Mode, which, the author hopes, will provide some useful suggestions on the translation of Zhuangzi and other Chinese ancient classics at large.

Keywords Zhuangzi; Zhuangzi’s translation; Steiner’s Hermeneutic translation mode

Introduction

In this paper, I am going to perform the comparative study of two translated versions of Zhuangzi based on George Steiner’s Hermeneutic translation mode. In this regard, I reckon that comparative study of two translated versions of Zhuangzi from hermeneutic views grows out of my personal interest in the immense glamour of Zhuangzi, as well as the hermeneutics and George Steiner’s Hermeneutic Translation Mode. The Hermeneutic Translation Mode is the great contribution of George Steiner who is probably the first scholar to make a systematic and comprehensive study of hermeneutics of translation. Steiner envisions that the act of translation as hermeneutic motion through four stages. It is believed that “George Steiner’s Hermeneutic Translation Mode blazes the trail for the formation of translation theories” (Edwin, 2001, p.100). Hermeneutics is a philosophic theory of understanding and interpretation of the text meaning. The hermeneutics started with the explanation and interpretation of the Bible. After a long time, Schleiermacher illustrated the first general hermeneutics in the late 18th century. It is might be pointed out that hermeneutics has entered its modern era. It is Martin Heidegger who established the ontological hermeneutics and he also extended the scope of hermeneutic understanding beyond individual texts and all other historic entities to an understanding of being itself. As early as the 1960’s, a more systematic modern philosophical hermeneutics was brought into existence by Gadamer. The fundamental idea of Gadamer’s hermeneutics is an individual with a comprehensive mind always starts his understanding with a certain prejudice. Gadamer initially touched upon the relationship between interpretation and translation. In his eyes, every translation is at the same time an interpretation and translation and translation work can be viewed as a crystallized interpretation. In Gadamer’s monumental work: Truth and Method, he dedicated one chapter named “language as the medium of hermeneutical experience” to expound on this issue. He suggested that “the whole process of understanding is linguistic, and as an art, the concern of hermeneutics belongs traditionally to the sphere of grammar and rhetoric” (Gadamer, 1975, p. 160). The condition of the translator and that of the interpreter is fundamentally the same. The example of translators, who has to bridge the gap between languages, demonstrates clearly the reciprocal relationship that exists between interpreter and text, corresponding to the mutuality of understanding in
conversation. Although both hermeneutics and translation employ language as their medium, translation involves two different languages. Therefore, translation is an extreme case of hermeneutical difficulty. The translator’s task of recreation differs only in degree, not qualitatively, from the general hermeneutical task presented by any texts (Gadamer, 1975). Yang Wuneng describes the process of translation as a special form of interpretation, “one may talk about reception, recreation, or understanding and expressing, but all these can be encompassed in the word interpretation” (Xujun, 2003, p. 239). Translation is entirely concerned with interpretation and “if we acknowledge that interpretation is a prerequisite for translation, and then the study of translation shows the same horizon with hermeneutics as an art of understanding and interpretation” (Xinle Cai, 1997, p. 128).

In After Babel, George Steiner points out that the hermeneutic approach, with meaning and understanding as the major concern, provides translation theory with “a frankly philosophic aspect” (Steiner, 2001, p. 201). Steiner is also the first translation theorist to apply modern hermeneutics in the study of translation. In his After Babel, he defined the hermeneutic motion in translation. He held that hermeneutic motion is the act of elicitation and appreciative transfer of meaning. Then, he divided the hermeneutic motion into four folds: trust, aggression, incorporation and compensation. Modern hermeneutics, with an emphasis on the ontological place of language and interpretation, may provide a new way to learn to understand the process of translation. Moreover, a hermeneutic approach to translation might be of help for us to have a deeper understanding of the translation process and highlight complicated relationship concerning languages, texts, authors and translators. The root of the word “hermeneutics” lies in the Greek verb “hermeneuin”, which means to “express, explain; translate or interpret”, and the noun “hermenein” which is “interpretation and so on, of then the interpretation of a sacred message.” When we are scanning a better understanding of hermeneutics, we will always come face to face with Hermes, the multiple-sided messenger greeting us in different directions. Heidegger tells us that the Greek words for interpreting and interpretation-hermeneuein, which can be traced back to the God Hermes.

The traditional Hermeneutics began with the “interpretation of the Bible” (Baker, 2001, p. 112). In the late 18th century, Schleiermacher outlined the first general hermeneutics. After a long development, ontological hermeneutics was established by Martin Heidegger. Heidegger extended the sphere of hermeneutic understanding beyond individual texts and all other historical entities to an understanding of being itself. At the beginning of the 1960’s, a more systematic modern philosophical hermeneutics was brought into existence by Gadamer, one of the most important contemporary representatives of Hermeneutics. Gadamer believes that Hermeneutics is that an individual with a comprehensive mind always starts his understanding with a certain prejudice. In his eyes, every translation is at the same time an interpretation and the translation work then can be viewed as crystallized interpretation (Gadamer, 1976, p. 100). Standing on the shoulders of giants, George Steiner published his masterpiece After Babel. Steiner is perhaps the first scholar to make a systematic and comprehensive study of hermeneutics of translation. His After Babel examines the difficulties of translation by focusing on question of how we understand and use language. He puts forward that all understanding is translation and works of a particularly dramatic account of the hermeneutic process of translation. Steiner envisions the act of translating as a hermeneutic motion through four stages: trust, aggression, incorporation and compensation. Steiner’s translation mode begins with trust. He believed that the imitative trust was an investment of belief. To some extent, the translators believed that the original text should be meaningful and sometimes the original texts are to be adverse texts. The translator firstly penetrates and surrenders to
the original, trust it to mean something in spite of alineness. The second stage is aggression. “After trust comes aggression, the second move of the translator is incursive and extractive” (Steiner, 2001, p. 313). According to Steiner, in the interlingual event, translation is explicitly invasive and exhaustive. Steiner draws on Heidegger to explore the aggressive nature of all understanding and interpretations of every hermeneutic move. The translator enters the source text, driven by active intention of taking something away, of grabbing up meaning and walking off with them. If the second move of aggression indicates a clash between two languages and two modes of thought, then Steiner’s third move demonstrates the depth of clash. “Through all decipherment is aggressive and, at one level, destructive, there are differences in the motive of appropriation and in the context of bringing back” (Steiner, 2001, p. 315). Steiner held that no language or translation symbolic set or cultural ensemble imports without risking of being transferred. As everyone knows, the translator who stops at the stage of incorporation produces assimilative texts that are so conferred to the target language norms as to bear no trace of translation. In his description, the fourth and final move is compensation. A compensation for loss in the passage occurs between the source and target languages. Steiner attempts to shift the grounds on which the fidelity has been understood, from a static one-to-one correspondence between SL and TL texts to an ethical process whereby power seized is relinquished in restorative ways, “the translator, and the exegetist; the reader is faithful to his text, make his response responsible, only when he endeavors to restore the balance of forces, of integral presence, which his appropriative comprehension has disrupted” (Steiner, 2001, p. 318).

To sum up, translation in a hermeneutic motion begins with an incursive, penetrative aggression aimed at extracting comprehension from the original text. This is followed by an incorporative moment when translation is hauled and stuffed into a new environment that may react by rejecting or accommodating the new comer. If the new translation is received, the environment lays itself open to either infection or regeneration. Finally, Steiner sees a phase of compensation of calmness to compensate for the movements of violence and violation. The translator has invaded the source culture and taken some of its property, and compensated by rendering the source text into a target language that is balanced between the divergent pulls of the source and target cultural contexts. This reminds us of some descriptions of translation as bringing to light something valuable that had been lost or forgotten: digging up treasures and hauling treasure from overseas. Translation restores and puts previously inaccessible texts and concepts at the disposal of agents in a new environment. “Steiner considers translation as a particularly consistent example of human consciousness in the process of understanding through hermeneutic exploration” (Heuson & Martin, 1991). Steiner’s viewing translation and understanding as homogeneous paves the way for the construction of translation theories from hermeneutic perspective, widens the horizon of translation, researches and turns translation into an extreme illustration of understanding and interpretation. His analysis of hermeneutic motion reveals the translator’s experience of the contradiction between two worlds, which at the same time enables the translator to question his own preconceptions and to assimilate the others.
A Comparative Study of Two Translated Versions of Zhuangzi Based on Steiner’s
Hermeneutic Translation Mode

A Comparative Study of Two Translated Versions of Zhuangzi Based on Trust in Steiner’s
Hermeneutic Translation Mode
The trust is the first step of George Steiner’s Hermeneutic translation mode. It consists of the translator’s assumption that source text contains “a sense to extracted and retrieved, more or less substantively, into and via his own speech” (Steiner, 2001, p. 372). That is, the translator firstly penetrates and surrenders to the original text and trusts it to mean something in spite of its alienisms. For translators of Zhuangzi, their trust for Zhuangzi shall be examined from three aspects. The first aspect is to choose the authoritative and trustworthy Chinese version of Zhuangzi and an authoritative and complete Chinese version of Zhuangzi is the guarantee of successful translation. The second aspect is the motive of translators. For translators, that is why they are determined to translate Zhuangzi and also the stimulant for them to take up such an arduous task of translating Zhuangzi. The third aspect is the translation method the translator adopts. As we know, it’s difficult for translators to have crystallized understanding of Zhuangzi. In Zhuangzi the book, Zhuangzi himself “spoke and argued in the manner of “卮言, 寓言, 重言” (Yu-Lan & Feng, 1989, p. 28). “All those complicated and ambiguous utterances confused the readers and translators” (Xiaogan Liu, 1988, p. 172). How to make the readers understand the essence and gist of Zhuangzi will heavily depend on translators’ choices of translation methods.

Wang Rongpei’s Trust Towards the Translation Text
At the outset, we are about to examine Wang Rongpei’s choice of appropriate and authoritative Chinese version of Zhuangzi. Mr. Wang adopted Guo Qingfan’s annotated version of Zhuangzi: A Variorum Zhuangzi (Guo, 2001). One of the prominent features of this book is that it includes the annotations and explanations of the famous scholars from Guo Xiang, Yuyue to Cheng Xuaying. Generally speaking, we can say that A Variorum Zhuangzi is an outstanding collection of different scholars’ annotations and explanations and serves as the must read for scholars and translators of Zhuangzi. We are sure that the book will facilitate Mr. Wang’s translation. The motive is also very important for translators. Professor Wang explained his motive in the preface of his book. The reason is that the current three complete translated versions of Zhuangzi are all done by westerners who have difficulties in grasping the true essence of Zhuangzi. Surprisingly enough, these sinologists (translators) try to be faithful to the original text and fall into bizarre and vague English, which confused the readers. Therefore, Professor Wang determined to present a better English version as a native Chinese so that the true identity of Zhuangzi would be introduced to Western readers. The second reason for a fresh translation is that he is able to use the first-hand materials to facilitate his translation. In his translation, he endeavored to deliver the true meaning of the original text and keep its beauty and grace.

Victor H. Mair’s Trust
Victor H. Mair got an urgent task to pick the authoritative Chinese version of Zhuangzi. Unlike Professor Wang Rongpei, Mair adopted the famous scholar Chen Guying’s The Present Translation and Annotation of Zhuangzi (Chen, 2001) and with reference to the Harvard-Yanking Concordance. As for the latter, he put it as “the most important tool in producing this rendition”. When deciding upon the best English equivalent of a given word or expression in the Chuangtzu, I have constantly checked this concurrences, elsewhere in the text without the Harvard-Yanking Concordance, this would have been a madly virtually
impossible task” (Mair, 1994, p. 1iii). From the preface of his Wandering On the Way, we can have a clear picture of Mair’s motive of translating Zhuangzi. As he put in the preface, “Chuangtzu is far and away my favorite Chinese ancient classic book and a very fascinating book and a wonder. I found reading Chuangtzu, even after hundred times, gives me pure pleasure and helps me to relax in times of stress or anxiety. I wanted to share with others – in the US TaoTeChing has become a thoroughly domesticated American classic. And I have a strong feeling that the Chuangtzu deserves to be better known in the Western world. That is why I decided to translate Chuangtzu” (Mair, 1994, p. 1iii). With regard to the translation method adopted by Mair, we can infer that he preferred the literal translation and he also resorts to free translation during the translation of the character’s names in Zhuangzi.

A Comparative Study of the Two Translated Versions from Wang Rongpei and Mair

Now let’s study two translated versions from Wang Rongpei and Mair.

Example 1.

野马也，尘埃也，生物之以息相吹也。

Wang’s version: the air, the dusts and the microbes float in the sky at the breath of the wind.

Mair’s version: there galloping gusts and motes are blown about by the breath of living organisms.

Professor Wang ignored the image of “野马” in his translation for he adopted Guo Qingfan’s A Variorum Zhuangzi as his original Chinese version of Zhuangzi. He also believed that the “野马” and “尘埃” almost mean the same thing. Therefore, we believe Wang’s translated version for Example 1 is faithful and expressive.

In Mair’s translation, he translated “生物之以息相吹也” into “the breath of living organisms.” That is also correct. However, the modified word “galloping” here is redundant and we presume that the inappropriate translation is also affected by Chen Guying’s Annotated Zhuangzi. Chen mistakenly explained the “野马” as the floating air which looks like galloping horse in heaven and earth. Hence, Mair consulted his book and accepted his incorrect annotations and explanations. That also reveals the importance of Xun Guxue in the process of translation of ancient Chinese classics.

A Comparative Study Based on Aggression in Steiner’s Hermeneutic Translation Mode

The Aggression in George Steiner’s Hermeneutic Translation Mode

Aggression also can be called the penetration or decipherment. According to Steiner, “After trust comes aggression. The second move of the translator is incursive and extractive” (Steiner, 2001, p. 313). And he also argues that the translator “invades extracts and brings home the meaning of the original text” (Steiner, 2001, p. 315). Steiner refers to St. Jerome’s image of the ST meaning being led home captivated by the translator. The translator enters the source text, driven by active intention of taking something away, of grabbing up meaning and walking off with them. The translator can also refer that back to St. Jerome’s famous image of meaning brought home captive. XuJun also discussed the aggression and hermeneutic translation mode in his book On Translation. He believed that translation has become the conflicted center of different relations. Aggression happens when the translator enters the source text, driven by active intention of taking something away. Surely the translation of Zhuangzi is also involved in
the violent act of aggression. We will have a comparative study on the unique philosophical terms translation by Mair and Wang Rongpei.

A Comparative Study of Translation of “坐忘” by Mair and Wang Rongpei

“坐忘” is a unique philosophical term in Zhuangzi. What is “坐忘”? According to Zhuangzi himself, “坐忘” refers to the state of sitting still and forgetting oneself. Let’s examine the source text of Zhuangzi:

Example 2.

仲尼蹴然曰: “何为坐忘?”
颜回曰: “堕肢体, 黜聪明, 离行去之, 同于大通,此谓坐忘。”

Now, let’s look at the translated versions from Wang Rongpei and Victor H Mair.

Wang’s translated version:
Confucius asked in astonishment, “What is sit and forget?”
Yanhui said, “I cast off my limb and trunk, give up my hearing and sight, leave my physical form and deprive myself of my mind. In this way, I can identify myself with Tao. This is the so-called sitting and forgetting.”

Mair’s translated version:
“What do you mean sit and forget?” Confucius asked with surprise.
“I slough off my limbs and trunk,” said Yanhui, “dim my intelligence, depart from my form, leave knowledge behind, and become identical with the transformational thoroughfare. This is what I mean by sit and forget.”

Analysis:
The literal meaning of 坐忘 is to sit still and stop thinking. Here 坐忘 in the context refers to the ideal state which Yanhui pursued persistently and the translation of 坐忘 should be understood as the sitting and forget or sitting and forgetting. In Mair’s translation of 坐忘, in his translation, “dim my intelligence, depart from my form, leave knowledge behind, and become identical with the transformational thoroughfare. This is what I mean by sit and forget.” The use of words dim and depart is the rhetoric of alliteration and at the same time use the parallelism sentence type like “dim-, depart-” are very powerful and impressive.

A Comparative Study Based on Incorporation and Compensation in Steiner’s Hermeneutic Translation Mode

Incorporation and Compensation
The third stage of Steiner’s Hermeneutic Translation Mode is incorporation. If the second move of aggression indicates a clash between two languages and two modes of thought, his third move of incorporation shows the depth of the clash. At the second stage, the translator goes abroad with plunder in mind, while at this stage, the translator returns home with plunder in hand. The translator who stops at the stage of incorporation produces assimilative texts that are conformed to the target language. After the aggression and incorporation comes the compensation. In Steiner’s Hermeneutic Translation Mode, the fourth and final move is the compensation which makes up for loss in the passage between the source and target language and Steiner once emphasized “translation fails where it doesn’t compensate---” Steiner attempts to shift the ground on which fidelity has been understood, from a static one-to-one

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correspondence between SL and TL texts to an ethical process whereby power seized is relinquished in restorative ways. “The translator, the exegetist, the reader is faithful to his text, makes his response responsible, only when he endeavors to restore the balance of forces---” (Steiner, 2001, p. 302).

**Compensation for the Information Loss in the Process of Translation**

Owing to the difference between source language culture and target language culture, it is impossible to achieve the complete equivalence between the source language and target language. In order to achieve the natural and closest equivalence between the source text and target text, the information loss must be compensated by any means. The information loss is caused by the cultural differences and only compensation can make up the loss.

**Example 3.**

太初有无，无有无名，一之所起，有一而未行。

*Wang’s translation:*

“At the very beginning, there was nothing in the world at all. There was no existence and there was no name. then, there was oneness, another name for Tao, which did not assume any form."

*Mair’s translation:*

In the grand beginning, there was only nonbeing,

But no being and no names.

Out of it arose the One;

There was One, but still no form.

Analysis: In Wang’s translation, the addition words Tao clearly conveyed the hidden meaning of One. While in Mair’s translation, the One here is confusing. Thus, the addition word Tao is necessary in the translation.

**Conclusion and Implications**

We are trying to provide a Hermeneutic Translation Mode which will be conducive to the translation of ancient Chinese classics such as Zhuangzi and Analects. In Steiner’s Hermeneutic Translation mode, there are four major steps and we believe that the four major steps of Steiner’s translation mode shall shed light on the translation of Chinese ancient classics. At the stage of trust, the translator must trust the source text to be meaningful and pick the authoritative and acceptable version. Thus, we are able to conclude that the choosing of the source text version is extremely important. Next, we come to the step of aggression. At this stage, we focus on the concrete process of translation. That indicates we have to encounter the barriers of linguistics, rhetoric and culture, and adopt the varied translation methods to overcome the obstacles. At last, there comes the final stages of incorporation and compensation. At this stage, translators should resort to different kinds of compensation methods such as contextual amplification to facilitate the “mutual communication” (Steiner, 2001, p. 352) between the readers, translators and the original text. Generally speaking, we try to present a hermeneutic translation mode which will be helpful to the translation of Chinese ancient classics.
References


Argument Realization of Double Object Constructions in English and Chinese

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[Abstract] There are Double Object Constructions (DOCs) in both English and Chinese, but the method of the argument realization of DOCs in English and Chinese is different and this difference brings the difficulties to the Chinese student in translation between the two languages, this thesis aims to find out the difficulties and further the way that can help the students get rid of the difficulties through a survey.

[Keywords] Double Object Constructions; argument realization; learnability in translation

Introduction

Recent years, there are many scholars and experts discussing the Double Object Constructions (DOCs). In English, Kayne (1984), Larson (1988), Aoun and Li (1989), Jackendoff (1990), and Beck and Johnson (2004), among others, have contributed greatly to the analyses of the construction. At the same time, the Chinese DOCs are being discussed in China too; the main topic is the properties of the get-type DOCs in Chinese. Some scholars argue that they belong to DOCs, but others disagree. In our opinion, the key to solve the problem is to uncover the method of argument realization of the variety of DOCs in Chinese, because the arguments that the similar verb sub-categorizes are different in English than in Chinese, as in Ai and Chen (2008). They point out that while English dative verbs sub-categorize for theme, goal or benefactive, potential dative verbs in Chinese sub-categorize only for theme or goal. Here, the difference will be illustrated, and the difficulties in English study brought by this difference will be surveyed.

The Difference in Argument Realization of DOCs in English and Chinese

According to Ai and Chen (2008), the English dative shift happens as in the following examples:

1. Dative Construction
   a. I send a post card to John.
      <agent theme goal>
   b. I knitted a sweater for John.
      <agent theme benefactive>

2. Dative Shift (DS)→Double Object Construction
   a. I sent a post card to John. →I sent John a post card.

Goals and benefactives can be both interpreted as recipients. Hence, they are intended possessors of the theme, the post card/a sweater. In other words, John will end up with potentially or factually owning the post card/a sweater. Since an intended caused possession between the theme argument, John, and the goal/benefactive argument, the post card/a sweater, can be established, DS can take place in (1-2).

Chinese, in contrast with English, allows verbs that select a goal to alternate between dative construction (DC) and DOC, as in (3a-b), but not a benefactive argument, as in (4a-b).
The subcategorization framework in the lexicon is responsible for certain (im)possibility of DS and it can be cross-linguistically parameterized. In general, the semantic constraint on the alternation of DC and DOC as proposed by Pinker (1989), Gropen, et al. (1989), and Rappaport Hovav, & Levin (2008) has to be coupled with syntactic constraints associated with the subcategorization framework of the dative verb in the lexicon. English dative verb *send and *knit can be good examples. Their subcategorization framework selects two internal arguments (a theme and a goal/benefactive).

Since both the theme and the goal/benefactive are the core (internal) arguments of the dative verb (i.e., they are both sub-categorized by the verb), it can be said that the theme, goal, and benefactive argument are all ‘lexicalized’ in English. However, unlike English, the benefactive argument is NOT lexicalized in Chinese. The Chinese verb *zhī (knit) does not really parallel with the English verb *send or even *knit. Since benefactive is not sub-categorized by verbs in Chinese, what looks like a dative verb is actually a surface illusion. Verbs like *zhī (knit) in Chinese only sub-categorize for a theme.

According to Liu (2006), the three typical constructions in Chinese are GO (V NP1 gei NP2) – the dative, V gei DO (V gei NP2 NP1) – like give to sb. sth. in old English, and DOC (V NP2 NP1) – double object constructions.

When the benefactives are not lexicalized, the dative shift can not occur, as in (5) and (6):

(5) Benefactive is not lexicalized in Chinese (putative DC):

a. Wo jian-le yi-dong fangzi gei Zhang San.
   I build- PERF one-CL house for Zhang San
   ‘I built a house for Zhang San.’

b. Wo zuo-le yi-jian yifu gei Zhang San.
   I make- PERF one-CL cloth for Zhang San
   ‘I made a piece of cloth for Zhang San.’

c. Wo zhi-le yi-jian maoyi gei Zhang San.
   I knit- PERF one-CL sweater for Zhang San
   ‘I knitted a sweater for Zhang San.’
6. Dative Shift (impossible DOCs):
      I build PERF Zhang San one-CL house
      ‘Intended: I built Zhang San a house.’
      I make PERF Zhang San one-CL cloth
      ‘Intended: I made Zhang San a piece of cloth.’
      I knit PERF Zhang San one-CL sweater
      ‘Intended: I knitted Zhang San a sweater.’

   Liu (2006) also points out that the verbs can not alternate because of the arguments that they sub-categorized, and he suggests that the reason for these verbs in (7) and why they do not occur in GO is that they do not take a recipient argument, rather, they take a patient argument.

      teacher teach-PERF some methods to students
      ‘The teacher taught some methods to the students.’
   b. *Mama wei niunai gei Xiaoming.
      mother feed PERF milk to Xiaoming
      ‘Intended: Mother fed Xiaoming milk.’

   The above analyses illustrate that the way of argument realization of DOCs in English and Chinese is different except for the most typical ones constructed with the English verb give or Chinese verb song.

   Chinese Get-Type Double Object Constructions

   Even for the comparatively typical DOCs, the argument realization is different in English and Chinese, the get-type DOCs are superficially DOCs, shown as in the following examples (8-10) are more common in Chinese, their existence makes the situation more complex.

8. Wo mai-le Zhang San yi-ben shu.
   I buy PERF Zhang San one-CL book
   ‘I bought a book from Zhang San.’

   I eat PERF Laowang three apples.
   ‘I ate three apples from Laowang.’

10. Xiaowang tou-le Lao Li yi-jian chenshan.
    Xiaowang steal PERF Laoli one shirt.
    Xiao Wang stole a shirt from Lao Li.

   The IO (indirect object) in these sentences should be an adjunct, as occurs in buy in English (in Jackendoff’s opinion, John bought Mary a book, and Mary, as a beneficiary is an adjunct) (8-10) has no for-phrase of beneficiary, although the IOs in them have a similar status with English ones, because IO is a source not a beneficiary, and it has no for-dative. Therefore, the get-type DOCs are not real DOCs.
(which is not important here), and they have different interpretations in English counterparts as in (11-13).

(11) I bought Zhang San a book.
    I bought a book for Zhang San.
(12) *I ate Lao Wang three apples.
(13) Xiao Wang stole Lao Li a shirt.
    Xiao Wang stole a shirt for Lao Li.

According to the above analysis, we can see the Chinese DOCs are more complex than in English, which are mainly embodied by the argument realization; it is natural to infer that the different argument realizations of English and Chinese DOCs will bring Chinese learners difficulties when they study the constructions in English, and furthermore, the existence of get-type DOCs in Chinese, and their superficial appearance will mislead many students in English study as well.

Learnability

Grimshaw (1989) argues that it is the semantic representation that is at issue in defining the alternating class, and proposes that the dative alternation should be accounted for in terms of lexico-semantic representation. She assumes that the learner is establishing how arguments are realized in a language, and is therefore, engaged in formulating generalization based on the lexical representation of predicates, i.e. their lexical semantic structure and/or argument structure. These representations reflect distinctions of various kinds among argument types. Hence, generalizations formulated in terms of the predicates made available by the theory of lexical representation must inevitably be couched in terms of argument types and semantic predicates, since these are the categories of description made by the theory.

According to the study on DOCs, the arguments lexicalized by the verb are different between English and Chinese, which certainly affects the English study, as shown in the examples (14):

(14) a. Wo zhi-le Zhang San yi-jian maoyi.
    knit-PERF Zhang San one-CL sweater
    ‘Intended: I knitted Zhang San a sweater.’

b. Wo zhi-le yi-jian maoyi gei Zhang San.
    knit-PERF one-CL sweater for Zhang San
    ‘I knit a sweater for Zhang San.’

c. I knit Zhang San a sweater.

Since there is no benefactive argument in Chinese, (14a) is ungrammatical, and (14c), which is common in English is seldom thought of by Chinese students.

The apparent DOCs formed by the get-type verbs in Chinese also have special properties from their English counterparts. There is the difference in semantic representation between Chinese and English for the same construction as shown in (15a) and (15b), and the difference may bring difficulties to the Chinese learners.

(15) a. Wo maile Zhang San yi-ben shu.
    buy-PERF Zhang San one-CL book
    ‘I bought a book from Zhang San.’

A brief experiment was carried out on the mutual translation of DOCs between Chinese and English. Forty-five (45) sophomores who majored in Gardening or Food Science in their second semester attended the experiment, and 42 subjects were available.

The aim of the experiment was to figure out:

1. Whether Chinese students have difficulties in understanding and producing get-type DOCs in English;
2. Whether they rely on their mother tongue in comprehension and production of English DOCs.

And the results showed that for the typical DOCs, the arguments that the verb specifies are the same; they both include Agent, Theme and Goal. All the students got the answers right, since word-for-word translation is available, and it is easy to the students, which indicates that there is no problem for the students to translate on the typical ones.

However, the students showed some troubles when dealing with the constructions that have different arguments between English and Chinese; the problems are more obvious when the get-type DOCs in Chinese are translated. Since the get-type constructions have a lot of difference from the typical ones, the indirect object is a source in Chinese, but a beneficiary in English.

Since there are difficulties on English DOCs study for the Chinese students, the following suggestions may be presented for the improvement of the instruction:

Firstly, the difference in argument realization should be pointed out to the students, to make sure that the students know the Chinese DOCs do not specify benefactive/beneficiary. Secondly, the meaning of the get-type constructions should be explained, in particular, the status of the indirect object, whether it is a provider or a beneficiary should be pointed out. Third, practice should be offered with more examples after the study of the main reading, to make sure that the students really know how to use the verbs involved. Fourth, authentic reading materials which contain the DOCs in English should be provided, such as magazines or newspapers.

**Conclusion**

Semantic roles (or information like Pinker’s Broad-range Rules) may be universal whereas syntactic differences result from parameters among languages. The Chinese DOCs do not have the benefactive or beneficiary argument as in English, and they have no corresponding English counterparts, which bring difficulties to the learners in English study. Of course, other factors like real world knowledge, the cognition of the verbs and the related constructions, and the structural priming of the mother tongue can also be involved to lead to the pursuit of similar images of the sentence.

The findings of the experiment offer evidence of the researcher’s argument that the differences in the Double Object Constructions between English and Chinese brings difficulties to the Chinese learners, and the suggestions on getting rid of the difficulties of the students are expected to be useful in a way.

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An Analysis on the Translation of Public Signs from Intercultural Perspectives

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[Abstract] The translation of public signs is not a simple transformation between two languages, but instead mutual communications between two cultures, so in the process of public sign translation, we pursue not only the equivalence of languages, but also the equivalence of culture from the view of intercultural perspectives. This paper gives cultural analyses on the problems of the current translation of English public signs and provides some measures toward these problems so that people from China and western countries can realize the destination of intercultural communication.

[Keywords] public signs; translations; intercultural perspective

Introduction
Public signs refer to words demonstrated in public places which have a special function of communication, provide information and accomplish instructions (Yang, 2010, p. 35). Specifically, road signs, advertisements, instructions, travel guides, social propaganda, and official notices, etc. are all called public signs. In recent years, with the deepening of the opening up policy in our country, more and more foreigners have been doing business with and traveling in China. To meet the needs of the international cities, many places, especially some public places, have their own public signs which are mainly in English that has been translated from Chinese. This is really important to promote the progress of international cities and show the degree of the cities’ civilizations. However, there are still some public signs with low translation qualities in some certain places in our country that have been scolded by some foreign language lovers and some linguistic experts. Thus, public sign translation has been a new research field in foreign language circles and many experts have written articles to point out the translation problems of public signs, analyzing the causes and coming up with suggestions continuously. Generally speaking, English public signs that are translated from Chinese are a kind of communication behavior preceding foreigners, especially westerners having communicated with Chinese people. This means it is a kind of intercultural communication without the third side in the presence. In addition, people from different countries have different cultural backgrounds, thinking styles, religious beliefs, and views of values, etc. It is inevitable that there will be misunderstandings and conflicts in the course of intercultural communication. Therefore, it is very necessary to have precise research on the translation of public signs.

At present, public sign translation in our country is not standardized because of mistranslation and abusive translation. To blindly achieve the equivalence in words, phrases and sentences, some translators will not even take cultural differences between China and western countries into consideration, which results in a stiff and awkward translation, which creates a bad impression on western friends. Therefore, to standardize language environment, many experts and scholars have conducted many researches on public sign translation. Beijing University established the Research Center for Translation of Public Signs and successfully gave its meeting at “The First National Symposium on Translation of Public Signs” in 2005. Based on the language type of public signs, He Xueyun put up translation strategies of public signs and believed that when translating public signs, translators should be familiar with the language features
and functional meanings of public signs and have a good understanding of the cultural differences of public signs and put the readers’ cultures in the first place (He, 2006, p. 57). Meanwhile, Huang Youyi proposed that C-E translators should possess the “Three Close to” principles. In his opinion, when doing translation between Chinese and English, one should fully take cultural differences into consideration, try to escape the cultural gaps, and be knowledgeable in foreign language customs for fear of dropping into the trap of the text (2004, p. 27). All of these indicate that translation of public signs is closely related to culture, which requires translators to have intercultural consciousness and make sure the translation of public signs is coincident with cultural traditions and the expressive habits of different languages.

Features of Public Signs
The text of English public signs are mainly reflected in the information function and imperative function, in which the former puts emphasis on the description, narration and explanation of the situation of concerning things, while the latter pays attention to arouse people’s emotional echoes and promote them to take actions by means of the language (Newmark, 2001, pp. 15-16). From the perspective of linguistics, a public sign is one special form of conversational intercourse, whose aim is to express a certain requirement of the public or attract the public’s certain attention (Luo, & Li, 2006, pp. 68-71). Conversational intercourse is a process of information communication as well as an activity of social communication. The process of conventional intercourse of public signs refers to the speaker’s (people or institutions) use of expressive approaches of correspondent action and language or non-language to convey conversational information to the receiver, realizing communication objectives on the basis of social norms and situational context. According to the corpus collection of many English public signs, we find they mainly have the following characteristics.

Concise Languages and Accurate Words
The text traits of public signs have dictated that languages and words of public signs have to be concise and accurate so the public can understand their intentions. Countless nouns, verbs, and phrases are used in public signs to display special information directly and clearly. For example, there are many letters used to replace words to indicate public signs such as “I” (Information), “P” (Parking), or “YHA” (Youth Hotel Association). In addition, there are many situations where a single word or verb is used in public signs such as “Roadwork”, “Closed”, “Smoke-free”, and “Arrived”. Generally speaking, clauses are not allowed in English public signs for fear of ambiguous meanings, while simple sentences and imperatives are universally used in public signs. Last, but not least, articles, pronouns, conjunctions, and auxiliaries, etc. are usually left out in public signs.

Manifest Contents and Clear Destinations
The text of public signs is commonly used for information transfer in people’s daily lives, and are not just aimed to serve a certain public. On the contrary, their service objects are universal, including people with specialized educations or people with low educations. Therefore, language expressions of public signs should be as manifest and clear as possible and avoid additional modification or decoration such as strange words, idioms, or dialects and any other complicated terminologies. Also, the content of public signs must be reliable and the languages shouldn’t be equivocating.
**Stressing Politeness and Highlighting Culture**

Leech, an English linguist, once put forward the politeness principle on the basis of the speech act theory and cooperation principle. Therefore, to build a smoother communication bridge between the speaker and receiver, polite words are often necessary for the success of conversational intercourse. In English public signs, if the receivers are required to do something or are compelled to take any action, polite words such as “please”, “thank you” and “sorry” are widely used, which not only reflects the Anglo-American moral civilization, but also achieves perfect communicational effects. However, one thing we should know is that not all politeness principles are used as the preferential principle in public signs. The use of different words embody different levels of politeness. At the same time, they also provide different levels of requirement and restriction to service objectives.

**Problems in the Translation of Public Signs**

**Cultural Mistranslations**

Language is one of the essential components of culture (Reiss, 2004). So, when translating source languages into target languages, one may use his/her cultural perspective to measure the alien cultures, and thus, mistranslations may occur. In fact, though both Chinese and English share most commonalities listed in the previous section, they also have differences in many aspects when public signs are translated from English to Chinese or from Chinese into English. This is tightly associated with each of their own central cultures. For example, in China, we often see “小心碰头” on the walls of some low corners or on corridors. Most Chinese translators may translate it into “Mind Your Head”. However, in westerners’ perspectives, they may prefer to translate it as “low ceiling.” Another example is “油漆未干”. Chinese people will write “Paint is not dry” in public to warn people nearby not to touch the area, while people in western countries tend to use “Wet Paint” more often.

**Pragmatic Mistranslations**

Translation is a kind of cross-cultural communication activity (Nida, 1993). Therefore, it is inevitable that such cross-cultural communication will give rise to pragmatic differences in translation. These differences will result in misleading information, factual errors and barriers of information communication, which are known as pragmatic translation errors (Luo, 2005, p. 197). Pragmatic mistranslation is pragmatic inappropriateness led by social-cultural factors rather than grammatical or syntactical errors. What is worth mentioning is that this kind of mistranslation is hard to cover because it is connotative and often related to culture.

**Cultural Analyses on the Mistranslation of Public Signs**

Language is the carrier of culture; different cultures have huge differences in pronunciation, word form, semantics, and grammar, etc. Therefore, in the process of public signs translation, cultural differences should be taken into consideration, and they are also the reasons leading to the mistranslation of public signs in the stage of intercultural communication. Accordingly, this part will cause mistranslation in public signs from the intercultural perspective.

**Cultural differences of vocabulary.** It is known that the basic unit of public signs is vocabulary, and vocabulary is the fundamental element of language. Due to cultural differences between China and western countries, there are many distinctions in vocabulary connotations between Chinese and English. As we know, in Chinese, the word “dragon” is the symbol of right, auspice, power, and success, etc., so
there are idioms such as “望子成龙” (hoping one’s son to be success), and “生龙活虎” (to metaphor somebody is energetic). In China, there is a resort hotel named “双龙大酒店” which indicates it has a booming business by the metaphor of the auspicious animal “dragon”. However, if translators translate it into “Double Dragon Hotel”, many western tourists may have a different image and dare not to enter it. On the contrary, in western countries, the dragon is a cruel and savage animal, and often regarded as the symbol of evil. There is a lot of literature in western countries describing the battles between heroes and dragons, among which the most famous one is Beowulf. Therefore, cultural differences in vocabulary between China and western countries are one of the causes giving rise to mistranslations in public signs.

**Cultural differences of syntax.** Chinese and English belong to different language systems, and have many differences in syntactic structures. In general, English is highly formalized with logicalization. It has a strict syntactic structure with the verb as the center, and stresses analysis instead of parataxis. In contrast, Chinese does not emphasize form and logicalization, and the function of the verb is less obvious than it is in English. Meanwhile, Chinese stresses parataxis rather than analysis. However, a public sign is a special language text, and both Chinese and English have the same characteristics of concision but different emphasis, and sometimes English seems to be more concise than Chinese. Substantives, key words, and core vocabularies can be used in English public signs only if they do not influence the special functions and meanings they reflect. On the contrary, articles, auxiliary words, and pronouns, etc. can be omitted and there is a high frequency of the use of contextual nouns and gerunds. However, though the language in Chinese public signs is also concise, they are usually used as the form of verb-nouns, which can express the target public signs clearly and directly. For example, the public signs in an airport in China are often written as “航班抵达,” while its corresponding translation in an English public sign means “Arrived”. Likewise, in restaurants, the correct translation of “预留席位” should be “Reserved”. What’s more? Due to the fact that Chinese emphasize form, there are some publicity slogans that have appeared based on the literature forms of antithesis and rhyme. For example, we can see some Chinese public signs as “山水美如画，防火责任大” in some mountain areas and “高高兴兴上班，平平安安回家” on the roads. For these public signs, if translators translate them literally, they may not only be long-winded but also confusing to westerners. Actually, it can be said that cultural differences of syntax are the most influential reason leading to the differences between Chinese and English public signs.

**Strategies Toward the Translation of Public Signs**

Due to the fact that there are different kinds of mistranslations in public signs from the perspective of cross-culture, this part will be very necessary for language lovers and some readers. Generally speaking, the following three different categories of translation strategies can be effectively applied in the translation of public signs. First, if there are ready-made, correspondent public signs in English, we can borrow or imitate them directly; second, if there are similar expressions in English, then we can retranslate them through some process according to mutual cultures; third, if the public signs have apparent native meanings in China, then we need not translate them. In order to help readers recognize the, this part will give a detailed explanation with some familiar cases.

**Borrowing or Imitating**

The formation of many expressions of English public signs is based on habits that cannot be translated literally according to Chinese. The most convenient and effective way to translate these public signs is to imitate and copy according to foreign conventional identifications because these conventionalized public
signs are the most authentic and understandable. Apart from some public signs with national characteristics, the correspondent English public signs can be found to match Chinese public signs, and translators need to possess sufficient English knowledge and not interpret without a real understanding. For instance, the English expression of “保持车距” is neither “Keep Space” nor “Keep Distance”, it is “Keep Your Space”; “在营业中” is “Open” instead of “In Business”; “打八折” is “20% off” rather than “80% Discount”. Moreover, “闲人莫入” or “游客止步” are not translated as “Strangers are forbidden” or “tourists please stop”. Instead, we should adopt the common marked word or words used in the working place in western countries, and thus, the above public signs are written as “Employees/staff only”. Therefore, when coming across such public signs, we just use their English versions instead of retranslation.

**Retranslating**

Readers of public signs should be the public, so translators should consider readers foremost when translating Chinese into English in public signs and make sure their translations are in accordance with English expressions and habits so that foreign friends can understand them at the first glance, achieving the goal of diplomacy and promotion. Besides, public signs are practical writings including street signs, shop signs, slogans, warnings, and tourism introductions, etc. in which the space should be limited without explanations. Therefore, translators should try their best to use the simplest and most concise words or phrases to convey the meanings and destinations of the public signs. For example, we often see the sign of “小草微微小，请你走便道” in the park. If we translate it literally as “Little grasses smiling slightly, please walk on the pavement”, it will be too tedious. But if we translate it into “Keep off the grass”, it is not only seemed simple, but also matches the English expressive habits. For one more example, if we translated the public sign of the bus system “老弱病残专座” into “special seats for the elderly and handicapped”, it will be against the principle of short space, but according to English expressive habits, it can be replaced by “handicapped”, which is clear and concise.

**Zero-translating**

Nevertheless, there are some universal Chinese expressions that have no correspondent English expressions in the Anglo-American countries. In such circumstances, translators should not think about how to translate them, but whether to translate or not. For example, there are usually some uncivilized phenomena like “随地吐痰” (splitting everywhere) in public place in China, thus, there are some translations of public signs on civilization such as “禁止在公园内大小便” and “禁止乱扔垃圾”. As a matter of fact, these public signs are written for some uncivilized behaviors in China, which have no effects of warning or instruction for westerners. If these Chinese public signs are translated into English, they can neither benefit the communication between Chinese people and westerners nor protect the reputations of our country. Therefore, we had better not translate such kinds of public signs. However, if translators have to translate them, the following steps are necessary. First, try to find a proper style according to the meaning or function of public signs, second, test them by exposing them to some overseas tourists in some areas, finally, widely put them into practice after making sure they will not bring about misunderstandings and conflicts.

**Conclusion**

A public sign is a special text tightly associated with our country’s culture, behavior habits, thinking style, etc. the translation of public signs is not simply the transformation between two languages, but the
communication of two different cultures. On the one hand, translators are the bridges in intercultural communication playing a crucial role in the process of information transmission. Therefore, to translate well public signs, they have to possess a solid language foundation, as well as profound recognition on cultural differences between the Chinese and western cultures, helping overseas friends overcome cultural barriers to recognize Chinese culture through translations of public signs. On the other hand, a public sign is an essential part of internationalized cities, international tourists and the human environment. Due to its importance in the public and tourists’ lives, any misunderstanding, ambiguity and abuse may have a bad effects on the international image. Therefore, translators and every producer of public signs should take a serious attitude to discuss their functional meanings and cultural essence comprehensively, and abide the restrictions of international, national, provincial and industrial standards, and then start from the perspective of target readers, to really and accurately develop the function of information services of English public signs in the process of the deepening reform, widening opening-up, and regional internationalization in our country, realizing the destination of intercultural communication between China and western countries.

References
An Analysis of Ad Translation from the Perspective of Translation Geography

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[Abstract] With the fast development of the Chinese economy and accelerating globalization process, the role of advertisements in international trade is becoming more and more important, so is that of advertisement translation. Traditional equivalence theory and rigid “faithful” translation turn out to be increasingly inadequate. Xu Jianzhong’s book Translation Geography was published in 2010, which presents a new perspective on the study of advertisement translation. This essay first analyzes advertisement translation under the guidance of Translation Geography, along with the introduction of several successful translation strategies.

[Keywords] advertisement translation; Translation Geography; translation strategies

Introduction
With the development of world economy, advertisements have become increasingly important in the international market. Nowadays, advertisements are one of the most important things in our society. They are in mailboxes, on TVs, or in the street. We find ourselves increasingly surrounded by them.

Accordingly, there is an increasing number of scholars devoted to the study of advertisement translation. Advertisements help to keep consumers informed about new products or services available in the market at their disposal (Wu, 2014). The main aim of advertising is to sell. So we need theories to match the aim and function of advertisement translation. Traditional theory can’t meet the demand, so Translation Geography is a choice.

Thanks to the policy of opening to the outside, China’s market economy has been developing rapidly and its international trade has been growing, as well. To gain larger international market share and establish international images, advertising has been playing a significant role in the international market. Thus, the importance of advertisement translation has been recognized, and the requirements on advertisement translation have become higher.

Though a great amount of research has been done in the field of advertisement translation, it still lacks a systematic and comprehensive theory and principle, especially when advertisements are transferred to different areas.

This thesis tries to explore the strategies of advertisement translation using the theoretical basis of Translation Geography, a new and important theory in guiding advertisement translation. Translation is a cultural phenomenon, and different geographical environments produce different cultures. This thesis tries to prove the influence of the application of the theory of Translation Geography by means of analyzing successful cases.

Literature Review
When doing a keyword search for advertising translation in www.cnki.net, there are many articles about it. Most of them are concerned with Equivalence theory and Skopos theory. “The role of the translator is to facilitate the transfer of message, meaning and cultural elements from one language into another and
create an equivalent response from the receivers” (Nida, 1964, p. 13). In other words, in order to achieve functional equivalence, translators should be faithful to the original and use natural language.

Skopos theory has three basic rules: the Skopos Rule, Coherence Rule and Fidelity Rule. The Skopos rule is defined as to “translate/interpret/speak/write” in a way that enables your text/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” (Nord, 1997/2001, p. 29). The Coherence rule refers to the target texts must be interpretable as cohering with the TT receivers’ situation (Reiss & Vermeer, 1984, p. 113). Vermeer stipulates that some relationships must remain between the two once the Skopos rule and the Coherence rules have been satisfied (Baker, 2011, p. 117).

According to Skopos theory, when people do advertisement translation, they should respect and consider the purpose of the target language. Advertisement translation should be a process of positive and creative interpretation. That is to say, translators can use liberal translation if necessary.

From the different translation theories stated above, we must admit that these theories have made a contribution to the translation activity, but we can also see that they have some weaknesses. The problem of equivalence is that there may be the situation of non-equivalence in translation because of the culture or something else. Skopos theories also have some weaknesses; for example, sometimes the purpose is obscure. Although it is reader-centered, readers have different cultural levels, and hobbies, and it is difficult to form a unified standard. Meanwhile, if we pay attention to the target readers too much, poor quality work will be done in order to meet the target reader.

There are also many essays about ad translation, for instance, “A Study of Advertisement Translation under Functionalist Theory” (Zhou, 2012), “On Translation Strategies of Advertisement from the Perspective of Relevance Theory” (Cao, 2012), and “Advertisement Translation: A Perspective of Functional Theories of Translation and Translation Norm” (Li, 2005). From what was discussed above, we can see that advertising translation is discussed in different approaches, covering many aspects. However, it articles on the study of ads translation from a geographical perspective are extremely rare. Whether it is linguistics, functional equivalence theory, or Skopos theory, they are just from a unique perspective, and did not put it into a big ecological background. Professor Xu, in his book, said, “Every translation theory bears some regional characteristics, so when it is imported to other regions or countries it is not acclimatized” (Xu, 2010, pp. 239-240). Translation geography is a relatively new field of study which opens up the prospects for the discipline internationally. This theory stresses the balance that must be struck between translation and its ecological systems, and it is suitable for advertisement translation. This paper will make some efforts in this area.

**Theoretical Framework**

*General Introduction to Translation Geography*

Translation Geography bridges natural science, humanities and social sciences. Taking translatology and geography as its theoretical basis, it overlaps and crisscrosses in content and approach with other sub-disciplines, supplementing and promoting each other. It is not simply the sum total of translatology and geography, but it has unique system with a set of theories, and has its study object and task. It might say that translation geography promotes the development of both translatology and geography (Xu, 2010, p. 234).

The saying goes, “Words do not have meanings; people have meanings for words.” However, people’s language and culture are always formed by specific geographical environments, like soil and
water, to create, nourish and enrich the language, culture, and even people’s personality. Thus, the influence of geographical factors on the language and culture is great. If people want to survive and develop, they must cooperate with each other and learn from each other. In this process, it is inevitable that people from different areas would communicate with each other, and translation appeared.

In the book of Xu, the theory of man-land relationship refers to the relationship between man and his various social activities and his geographical environment, which is the idea and theory connected with man-land relationship that appeared in the development of human geography. The man-land relationship possesses the following features: man is dependent on land, and man is active in the relationship. The two are interdependent and indivisible. Here, man does not refer to the individual person but the whole society.

As we all know, a particular relationship between people and places will create a special ecosystem. So when a particular ecosystem’s language and culture spread to another specific ecosystem, translators must do a good job in its coordination. Translation involves two or more regions, and each region’s language and culture formed by their man-land relationship are different. Therefore, as a cross-regional and cross-cultural language translator, one must have a good balance between the source language readers and the target language readers.

From the analysis above, the translation strategies can be made, that is: first, when in Rome, do as Romans do; second, take actions that suit local circumstances (Xu, 2010, p. 32).

The Application of Translation Geography to Advertisement Translation

The Definition of Advertisement
Before exploring the topic, we need to know what advertising is. The word “advertise” originated from the Latin word “advertere”, which means “to inform somebody of something” or “to make known to the public” (Mueller, 1996, p. 55). One definition of advertising is “Advertising is the non-personal communication of information usually paid for and usually persuasive in nature about products, services or ideas by identified sponsors through the various media” (Bovee & Arens, 1992, p. 7).

In selling things, there are two basic methods, one is personally and the other is impersonally. Personal selling needs face-to-face communication which requires both the seller and buyer to be present. However, advertising also has its good part.

First, instead of personal selling, impersonal selling can provide the sales message without the customer watching. There are many ways it can be created, all very colorful and useful. Second, personal selling one time only can deal with only one customer. Unlike personal selling, it can deal with hundreds or thousands of customers at a time. So impersonal selling saves time and money.

Thus, it is obvious that advertising really has a lot of benefits to sales. Although advertising is impersonal, it is very effective.

The Characteristics and Functions of Advertisement
Advertisements widely transmit information to the public. They also help the consumers learn of the commodity and its function, causing customers’ purchase desire. First, the essential feature of the advertisement is that it lets limited length expression can contain as much information as possible. The advertisement should be brief, and let people accurately understand the product or service. So, its first feature is to be brief and to the point, simple and easy to understand.

Second, the goal of advertising is promotion. It should attract attention and leave people with an impressive memory and most importantly, increase the language power. Therefore, the second
characteristic is its vivid image and profound implications. Last but not the least, advertising is not only beneficial to advertisers, but also to users and customers who can gain useful information.

**Strategies for Advertisement Translation Based on Translation Geography**
An advertisement has lots of functions. It not only offers information, but also is persuasive, maintaining demand and creating a mass market. Based on Translation Geography, we propose an important principle, that is: first, when in Rome, do as Romans do; second, take actions that suit local circumstances (Xu, 2010, p. 32).

This principle intends to highlight that translation must not only convey useful information in the source language, but it should also meet the target language’s ecological environment factors. Simply to say, the translation work should not only convey useful information under the ecological environment of source language, but also should be suitable to the reading habits and aesthetic values of the ecological environment of target language. In the next section there will be some examples of advertisement translation, and we will talk about the effectiveness and feasibility of advertisement translation principle.

Adverting translation is generally divided into two categories: translation based on original translation (includes direct translation and indirect translation) and created translation.

Literal translation, also called direct translation, uses the direct meaning of words or sentences to express the original meaning. Literal translation should not change the original sentence structure, pattern, or images, but sometimes will affect the accessibility of translation, to some extent. We can see from the following examples:

- *Air France: Winning the heart of the world* (法国航空公司: 贪取天下心);
- *Samsung: Challenge the limits.* (三星: 挑战极限);
- *Li Ning: Anything is possible.* (李宁: 一切皆有可能);
- *Nike: Just do it.* (耐克: 只管去做);
- *Nestle: The taste is great.* (雀巢: 味道好极了).

From the above examples we can see that literal translation is mainly used to deal with some of the original advertisement having clearer meanings, and relatively simple, complete syntactic structure. When translating these advertisements literally, the translator can both express the surface and deep meanings of the advertisement.

If direct translation cannot get a good effect, indirect translation strategy can be used. Indirect translation means, to some extent, that the translator can abandon its original form when translating. In other words, indirect translation will include not only the original meaning, but also the sentence patterns and structures. Thus, the translated works will be highly readable but a little inferior to the faithfulness to the original text. For example:

- *Pepsi cola: Ask for more!* (百事可乐: 渴望无限).

This translation adopts the Chinese four-character phrase, which fully expresses the center meaning of the original and gives us a vivid image. In addition, it is easy to remember.

- *Motorola: Intelligence, everywhere.* (摩托罗拉: 智慧演绎, 无处不在).

To some extent, indirect translation will lose the original sentence structure and the meaning of some words, but as long as you read carefully, the essence of the original advertisement and its deeper meaning are still preserved.
Created translation, just as its name implies, will not be restricted by the form and structure of the original. It will consider the specific conditions and the local language or customs. It’s totally new and creative. For example:

*Nokia: Connecting people.* (诺基亚: 科技以人为本).

“以人为本” is its Chinese version, which fits the psychology of the Chinese people. Although it changed the original, it is successful. It respects the ecological environment of target language.


If we translate this advertisement literally, it will be “从头开始”. In Chinese, it is not a beautiful sentence and will make people think this sentence is not complete. “成功之路, 从头开始” not only enriches the connotation of the original, without departing from the Chinese language and customs, but also enhances the favor of consumers, stimulating their desire to buy the product. From the above, we can see the importance of the created translation.

It is acknowledged that the producer and the consumer are assumed to share common background knowledge and pragmatic presupposition in order to achieve expected and effective communication (Wu, 2014). This kind of translation does not involve major differences between Chinese and Western countries, but seeks the common background of human geography.

However, translation is a cultural phenomenon. For example, “衣食住行, 有龙则灵” (中国建设银行龙卡). The word “Dragon” has different meanings in the two countries. In China, the dragon is the symbol of power and all Chinese people are descendants of the dragon. On the contrary, in Western countries, the dragon is a huge monster and regarded as a symbol of evil. So with the guide of Translation and Cultural Geography, “龙卡” cannot be translated into “Dragon Card”. Instead, “Long Card” is a good choice. “Long Card” also is conducive to the spread of Chinese culture to the world.

The most important thing in the descriptions of commodities in advertisements is to transmit information. The original readers and target readers will see the descriptions of the goods, and a good translation should affect them equally, which means both of them should extract the correct and same information. This requires that the translator find the essence of the product and ensure an accurate product image. For example, Chinese “金丝小枣” should not be translated into “Golden Silk Small Dates”. International guests will have an impression of a little date with golden silk on it. It completely covers up the good quality of the product and is misleading to the consumer. To avoid cultural misleading, a good translation would be “Honey-Sweet Dates”. In Chinese advertisements, “本品可即购即食, 实用方便” can be found. It cannot be translated into “Opening and Eating immediately”. Because of different behavioral geography, western people may understand it like this: “the food should be eaten at once or it will get bad”. “Always Ready to Serve.” is a better choice because it does not damage the image of the product. A good translation will help the sales of a good product.

**Conclusion**

**Summary of the Study**

In the previous sections, the significance of the advertisement and advertisement translation have been demonstrated, and Translation Geography is highly advocated in the process of advertisement translation.

Based on Translation Geography, this thesis analyzed the tragedies of advertisement translation through real cases. These cases are successful commercial advertisements, and their main aims are to win consumers and sell products. For a company, a successful advertisement translation is essential. A good
advertisement translation not only gives consumers adequate information, accurate ideas, and its geographical features, but also attracts the customers’ attention. A good advertisement will be memorized by most people, and at the same time, spread the spirit of a different culture.

Due to the differences in language and culture, a good advertisement is not enough for national consumers. If the translator places more emphasis on literal equivalence, the translation will not have the intended effect, and won’t express the purpose of the advertisement. Translation Geography solves the problem between the source language culture and the target language culture by analyzing their eco-geographical environments. The special function and purpose of commercial advertisements determines the specificity of its translation. Thus, the geographical features of an advertisement must be considered seriously by translators.

**Limitations and Suggestions for Further Research**

Translation Geography is a relatively new theory, which leaves much to be desired. This thesis analyzes commercial advertisements only. Many factors should also be considered, for example, national beliefs, religion or customs. At the same time, customers’ aesthetic values should also be discussed in advertisement translation.

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A Comparative Study of the Translation Strategies in the Analects: Foreignization vs. Domestication – Take James Legge’s and Ku Hungming’s Versions as an Example

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Abstract] The Foreignization and Domestication strategies have been disputed by scholars for many years. Foreignization strategy holds that translation should focus on the source language and it should reserve the language form and cultural information. Domestication strategy holds that the translation should focus on the target language and it should accord with the expression and convention of the target language. This paper aims to discuss the advantages and disadvantages through the application of the two strategies in the translated version of the Analects.

Keywords] foreignization strategy; domestication strategy; Analects; Ku Hongming; James Legge

Introduction
One of the classics of Confucianism, The Analects of Confucius records the words and deeds of Confucius and his disciples. It embodies the politics, ethics, moral concepts and principles of the education of Confucius. The Analects embraces a lot of philosophical thoughts and it is full of wisdom. These thoughts have become a kind of landmark for China and also have become the teachings of society. These key concepts are embodied in many keywords such as “ren, li, jun zi, and xiao, etc.” All of these words have abundant connotations which cause different kinds of translations by various scholars. Undoubtedly, many difficulties arise in the translating process.

The Song Dynasty's founding minister Zhao Pu, the first chancellor of the Song Dynasty, once said that “half of the Analects rule the world” (Dai, 2011). Since the emperor Wu of Han deposed a hundred schools and kept only Confucianism, so Confucianism has had great popularity all over China. At that time, Analects has dominated the whole society. Confucianism experiencing years of wind and rain has never changed its core position in the national culture. These teachings have become a certain kind of moral standards among people. Even nowadays we have learned it during our school years.

Confucianism not only plays an increasingly important role in our national culture, but it also plays a decisive role in world culture. The flourishing of the Confucius Institute and the worship ceremony are powerful demonstrations of these trends. More and more foreigners are beginning to learn about the Chinese culture. Therefore, our country strongly supports the publication and translation of Chinese classics and the extension of the Chinese culture and literature, aiming to show our traditional culture to the world and promote inter-cultural communication all over the world. In recent years, the translation of the Chinese classics has sprung up, and this situation is absolutely good for the spread of the Chinese values. However, everything has advantages and disadvantages, so we should be careful in the process of translation in order to protect our culture.

Until now, dozens of translated versions by Chinese and western scholars have appeared. Most of the translators have only translated one or two chapters of the Analects, so they cannot understand the full meaning of this book. It is universally acknowledged that the purpose of translation is to promote the
process of cultural exchange. In the learning process, the readers can select the essence and discard the dross so as to improve the quality of the global culture. The Analects is the most representative of our culture and a pearl of our values. So the translated version is of great importance to spread Chinese values all over the world.

The situation changed when James Legge translated the entire Analects. Also, he was one of the missionaries who came to China to preach the Christian doctrine. In the process of preaching, his thoughts changed because he was impressed by Confucianism. At that time, he decided to translate the Analects for the citizens of his country. Because of the translation strategies he employed, his is the foreignization strategy, and his version maintained a lot of features of the original work, such as the original form. His translated version gained great popularity in the study of his version of The Analects. Also, his version had a great reputation in China. He made great contributions to the transmission of Chinese thoughts.

In contrast with James Legge’s version, Ku Hungming translated The Analects in a different style – the western style. He used a lot of phrases and proverbs that come from the Bible or western stories to facilitate the understanding of the target readers. Though his primary aim was to convince foreigners and show his deep understanding of the Chinese culture, he loses some primary aims. However, in the process of translation, his subjectivity influenced attitudes towards his translation to a certain extent. In order to provide readers with a fluent translation, he changed some original features of the work. In this way, his version is easy to understand by foreigners and it is especially popular in the west.

Faced with different translation strategies, different scholars have their own opinions. Also, the translators’ subjectivity influences their opinions. For example, “仁” is translated into “humaneness, authoritative, perfect virtue and moral” and so on. Different keywords can be translated into various forms, just like the sentence “there are a thousand Hamlets in a thousand people’s eyes”. Everyone has their own ideas. Nowadays, many papers have concentrated on the study of the single version study. What is more important, these two versions employ totally different translating strategies. As a result, these two versions have become the most popular and typical in the study of the translated versions of The Analects both in the Chinese and western fields.

**Analysis of the Translation Strategies in the Two Versions**

Among translators, two pairs of translation strategies are used: free translation and literal translation; foreignization strategy and domestication strategy. There is heated debate across the translation field by many scholars. This paper mainly discusses the advantages and disadvantages of foreignization and domestication strategies. In this chapter, it mainly focuses on specific examples to illustrate and give definition to these two strategies.

Foreignization strategy holds that the translation should keep the features of the source language such as language forms, cultural information and so on. This strategy intends to bring originality to the readers and give them more space to learn the Chinese culture. For example, the translation of “福娃” into “fuwa” is the best illustration of this. It is universally acknowledged that this phrase is of clear Chinese features and it cannot be used in other circumstances. In this way, it is unnecessary to translate it in the domestication strategy because this phrase can not be used by foreigners in their countries.

This paper explores the advantages and disadvantages of the foreignization strategy, based on James Legge’s translated version of The Analects. For example:

   
   The written form of Chinese: 孔子说: “花言巧语，伪颜假色，这类人就缺少仁爱”
之心了。”

Legge’s translation: The Master said, “Fine words and an insinuating appearance are seldom associated with true virtue” (Kong, 2006).

2. 子曰:“里仁为美。择不处仁，焉得知?”

Legge’s translation: The Master said, “it is virtuous manners which constitute the excellence of a neighborhood. If a man in selecting a residence do not fix on one where such prevail, how can he be wise?”

James Legge translated “仁” into “virtue” which included a lot of meanings. But here, virtue puts more emphasis on the good characteristics but ignore the real meaning of “仁”. In the translation process, from source language to target language, Legge keeps the original form and gives readers more space to imagine and think. So the foreignization strategy adds a few personal emotions into the translation and “orientalism” is less embodied in this way. However, this strategy makes it difficult to understand the classical style of writing and it is harder for a foreigner who has little Chinese knowledge to understand it. The result of this strategy is that the target language is dull and hard to understand for the target readers without the explanations below.

Domestication strategy holds that the translation should hold with the communicative style and culture or literature of the target language. Thus, readers will be provided with a fluent translation without a trace of translating. For example: “High buildings and large mansions are springing up like mushrooms in Beijing” can be translated into Chinese “雨后春笋” rather than “雨后蘑菇”. This translation is similar to the Chinese expression so it is easily accepted by Chinese readers. “雨后蘑菇” is a kind of Chinese translation and some jokes are made by people whose knowledge is not so systematic. Below are some examples in the translated version of Ku Hongming about his strategy.

1. Classical Chinese: 子曰:“巧言令色，鲜矣仁!”
   
   The written form of Chinese: 孔子说: 花言巧语，伪装和善，这种人很少有仁德.
   
   Ku’s translation: Confucius remarked, ”With plausible speech and fine manners will seldom be found moral character” (Gu, 2011).

2. 子曰:“里仁为美。择不处仁，焉得知?”

   Ku’s translation: Confucius remarked, “It is the moral life of a neighborhood which constitutes its excellence. He is not an intelligent man, who, in choosing his residence, does not select a place with a moral surrounding.”

Ku Hungming translates “仁德” into a moral character, which cares more about the foreigners’ understanding. Here, the translation regards the moral character as the whole of the Chinese moral life but it ignores the differences between the Chinese and Western values. However, the Chinese culture is extensive and profound, “moral” can not summarize the core thinking of Confucianism. So, “ren” is a better translation of it because this key word has extensive meanings. It must be translated into various definitions according to different situations. In Ku’s opinion, foreigners cannot understand the subtle differences between the different meanings of “仁” in different situations, so his translation chooses to ignore the differences. Also, there is no use to show the subtle differences to others. In this way, domestication strategy causes the translated version to lose its originality.
Comparison of the Translations Between Ku Hungming and James Legge

During the late 19th century, after the opium war, imperialism intruded China and even wanted to occupy China. China gradually became a semi-feudal and semi-colonial society. At that time, western countries intruded China in many aspects, such as political, military, economic and cultural aspects, especially in ideology. Therefore, Chinese intellectuals, including Ku Hongming, began to translate a number of Chinese books to spread the Chinese culture and spirit. He tried his best to save the Chinese culture.

Faced with the behavior in that many translators beautify the American culture, Mr. Ku was indignant. He hoped to transmit the traditional Chinese culture to the world stage and let the world understand the civilization of the great nation. However, in order to for foreigners to accept the Chinese culture, he used the foreignization strategy, from the foreigner’s visual angle, to translate The Analects. The result was that he saw a lot of similarities but ignored the differences between the Chinese and Western values.

Ku’s translated version is in a western style rather than a Chinese style because he used western materials to explain the traditional Chinese culture in order to make it more clear to western readers. Just as the key words we have mentioned above, we will take the character “Li” as an example to explain the domesticating strategy.

1. 有子曰: “礼之用，和为贵”.
   Translation: A disciple of the Confucius remarked “In the practice of art, what is valuable is natural spontaneity.”

2. 子曰: “生, 事之以礼; 死, 葬之以礼, 祭之以礼。”
   Translation: Confucius replied: “when his parents are living, a good son should do his duties to them according to the usage prescribed by propriety; when they are dead, be should bury them and honor their memory according to the rites prescribed by propriety”.

3. 子曰: “人而不仁, 如礼何? 人而不仁, 如乐何?”
   Translation: Confucius remarked, “If a man is without moral character, what good can the use of the fine arts do him? If a man is without moral character, what good can the use of music do him?”

In these three examples, Mr. Ku translated the word “Li (礼)” into “the practice of art, propriety, fine arts”. That means Ku used arts to explain the Li, however, in a certain aspect, Li embraces the meaning of arts. Arts can just explain the external thing such as the way to behave when dealing with others. Arts embodied few connotations of the word ”Li”, so it is not enough to just translate the word into arts for western readers’ sake. If domestication strategy is overused, The Analects will lose its original meanings.

As a western scholar, James Legge had a strong passion for traditional Chinese culture. In the process of translation, he tried his best to convey the original meaning of the Chinese classics. However, as a foreigner, he could not understand the full meaning of the broad and profound culture. In this way, problems appeared such as dull words in the writing and the lack of cohesion in the paper. But he really retained a lot of the Chinese features and provided imaginative space to foreign readers.

Foreignization can be defined as a term used to designate the type of translation in which a TT is produced, which deliberately breaks target conventions by retaining something of the foreignness of the original” (Schuttleworth & Cowie, 1997). In other words, foreignization retains the characteristics of the original work. Since the differences between the two languages are inevitable, what foreignization
strategy should do is to give target readers a chance to learn foreign characteristics. Just as the key words we have mentioned above, we will take the character “Li” as an example to explain the foreignization strategy.

1. 有子曰: “礼之用，和为贵”。
   The philosopher You said, “In practicing the rules of propriety, a natural ease is to be prized”.

2. 子曰: “生, 事之以礼; 死, 葬之以礼, 祭之以礼”。
   The master replied, “that parents, when alive, be served according to propriety; that, when dead, they should be buried according to propriety; and that they should be sacrificed to according to propriety”.

3. 子曰: “人而不仁, 如礼何? 人而不仁, 如乐何?”
   The master said, “if a man be without the virtues proper to humanity, what has to do with the rites of propriety? If a man be without the virtues proper to humanity, what has he to do with music”.

In these three examples, James Legge translated “li” as “propriety”. Legge’s propriety, meaning “a state of being correct in one’s social or moral behavior” (Oxford Advanced Learner’s English-Chinese Dictionary, 1997), and is very close to the original meaning in The Analects. As we can see, the target readers may not know the meaning of it, but their curiosity gives them initiative to learn it. This kind of translating strategy provides more space to the target readers and gives them a chances to learn the Chinese culture.

For many years, there has been a hot debate on translation strategies, that is, whether the foreignization strategy is better than domestication. Foreignization strategy holds that the translation should retain the features of the original, whether in linguistic or cultural aspects, and domestication advocates the target culture in order to make it more clear to the target readers. However, nothing is totally correct in the world, so both over-foreignization or over-domestication are not appropriate at all.

As we can summarize from these two examples, Mr. Ku translated “仁” into” moral” and he paid more attention to the understanding for target readers. He rendered “仁” as the whole moral life of the Chinese culture or society, thus ignoring the differences “into virtue”. Virtue embraces many meanings, but here, “virtue” can just embody the meaning of good behaviors and the connotations of the “仁” can not be expressed. Also, there are many other translated versions such as “humanity, good and benevolence” and so on. Each translation uses one translation strategy for their own reasons. From source language to target language, using literal translation or free translation, foreignization or domestication, all of these strategies can not make the translations perfect. This paper explores the advantages and disadvantages of both strategies in order to provide reference for the scholars.

Since all the translations may not be perfect, we can try our best to make it close to its original meaning. In this way, the translation can be clear to the readers. Then, in translating a key word “仁”, it may be better to translate it into “ren” and add some explanation or situations. In this way, the target readers can gain a deeper understanding through the exploration of the meaning of “ren” in reading more Chinese books.
Conclusion

Just like literal translation and free translation, foreignization and domestication strategies are the two main strategies in translating classical works, and have been debated for a long time regarding which one is a better strategy. The foreignization strategy tends to retain the original features of the classical works, just as James Legge did in his translation version. He was faithful to the original work. However, domestication strategy tends to use the target culture to replace the original features of the source language to ensure that the target readers gain a better understanding of the Chinese culture.

As we know, nothing is definitely correct or incorrect in evaluation. The scholars who employed different strategies had their own reasons. These two versions are the best illustration of the applicability of the two strategies because both are popular in China and the west. As we mentioned above, both strategies have their advantages and disadvantages. The purpose of translation is to accelerate the cultural exchanges all over the world. Different strategies have their own uses in promoting the development of inter-cultural communication. However, there are still many problems that need to be corrected in the translation process. The translations can not be perfect and meet the needs of everyone, so we can just correct it to be better and better.

References


Chinese-English Translation Strategy of TV Soft News

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[Abstract] This paper analyzes features of TV soft news and applies the functionalist approach in the C-E translation of TV soft news. The author puts forward three translation methods, namely, abridgment, adaptation, and interpretation. Translators should base the TT on the actual situations and choose the proper strategy.

[Keywords] TV soft news; translation strategy; abridgment; adaptation; interpretation

Introduction
As the world is well into the information era, international communication demonstrates a growing intensification among global villagers. News has proved an increasingly important medium in intercultural communication. According to the nature of events, news can be divided into hard news and soft news (Wang, 2003). Hard news is also called spot news and straight news, which is more earnest with objective reality reports of a certain freshness, such as killings, city council meetings, and speeches by leading government officials. Soft news is the social news with deep human touches and easy writing, among which the subjects may be out-of-date or of no importance but not dry, such as a lunch to honor a retiring school custodian or a car wash by fourth-graders to raise money for a classmate with cancer (Cheng, 2006). TV news reports the facts of an event which has happened or is happening with image and sound by means of modern electronic technology (Gao, 2002). This paper focuses on the C-E translation of TV soft news. News materials mainly come from the English news program “Culture Express” in CCTV-English Channel.

Features of TV Soft News

Social Features
News is the prompt reporting of the facts of an event that has happened or is happening or will soon happen (Xu, 2003). Since soft news is the social news with deep human touches and easy writing, it has a close relationship with social life. In addition, TV news can provide vivid pictures about what is happening in China. Thus, TV soft news language has strong social features. The following passage is a good example:

这几天，股市里的新纪录也不少，不但沪深指数连创新高，而且一季度A股市场新开户的股民也超过了500万户，比去年全年开户的数量还多，这批新股民把4500亿元的资金投进了股市。在浙江宁波一家证券营业厅里，记者对一些刚入市的股民进行了调查，发现他们中的很多人对股市操作都了解得不多。
Meanwhile, figures show that in the first quarter of this year, the number of newly-opened A-shares investing accounts reached 5 million, topping the number for the entire year of 2006. These investors have poured around 450 billion yuan into the market. However, lots of investors say they don’t understand the market very well.

With the development of the socialist economy, stock has come to people’s lives, and more people have begun to invest in stocks and funds. This passage introduces China’s booming stock market. When we read through the passage, we easily know that the flavor of our times greets us. As translators, we need to give the exact meanings to the new-born words, expressions, and sentences, such as “基金调拨” (fund appropriation), “股份认购” (stock subscription), and “股份信托公司” (trust stock company). Economic news is an important part of soft news. It possesses a large audience, as it is closely connected with people’s lives. Its contents cover from the bankruptcy of a small farm in a remote area to the increasing or decreasing of the economy throughout the world.

Cultural Features
No language can exist unless it is steeped in the context of culture, and no culture can exist that does not have at its center the structure of natural language (Bassnett, 1980). By translation, people give the meaning of something said or written in another language. Since translation deals with language, it is also a reflection of culture. People should study translation in a cultural context. Having known the close relationship between translation and culture, we should pay much attention to the cultural features in the C-E translation of TV soft news. For example:

位于陕西西安乾县附近的乾陵，是我国历史上唯一的女皇武则天与丈夫唐高宗李治合葬的陵园。考古学家近日发现，乾陵名义上是一个陵园，实际上却有两个陵园。实际上，乾陵原为李治而建，武则天称帝后顺势为自己修起了陵园。这就揭开了乾陵应是唐高宗李治和武则天皇帝的两个陵园的谜团。

China’s first empress rests in the Qianling Tomb and there, in Northwest China’s Shaanxi province, archaeologists have made a fascinating discovery. There is not just one tomb but two. The Qianling Tomb is the tomb of Empress Wu Zetian and her consort, Emperor Li Zhi. In fact, the Qianling Tomb was originally built for Emperor Li Zhi. Wu Zetian became ruler of the Tang Dynasty in 690 AD after the death of Li Zhi, and then she began to build her own tomb there conveniently. Her rise to power came amid strong opposition from most of her ministers. The period, often called the usurpation, forms part of the Late Zhou Dynasty in Chinese history.

Such kinds of archaeological news are usually closely connected with Chinese history and religion. In the source text, we cannot find the information about Empress Wu Zetian, which is added as important background knowledge in the target text. We Chinese people have an intimate knowledge of Empress Wu Zetian and the period of history. However, foreigners who lack understanding of Chinese history cannot know what the news is about. Due to its cultural features, during the translating process, translators may encounter cultural problems, such as historical and literary allusions, religious concepts, national customs, and food culture, etc.

Linguistic Features
Although journalistic language is based on standard written language, like literary language, diplomatic language, and computer language, TV soft news has some special features in wording, phrasing, and expression due to the particular nature of news reporting. Like newspaper titles, TV soft news titles prefer
short and simple words. Acronyms are largely used to make the news titles shorter. In this way, news editors can save the space for subtitles. Noticeably, the acronyms, familiar or not to viewers, can be found in full in the news lead. For example:

中东和平：成也巴解，毁也巴解
(Title) PLO: Maker or Breaker of Peace in Mideast

第七届亚欧财长会议在天津开幕
(Title) 6th ASEM Finance Ministers’ Meeting Opens in Tianjin

Quite often, the precise amount or number of something is unimportant in TV news. Round numbers or approximations mean as much as specific figures. It is better to say a budget of nearly two million dollars than to say a budget of one million, 923 thousand dollars. “Almost a mile” rather than “5,167 feet,” “about half” rather than “47.8 percent,” “just under two percent” rather than “1.83 percent.” In addition, filling a piece of TV news with too many figures and statistics brings the flow of the story to a halt and sends the viewers scrambling for their remotes. So, most of the time, round off numbers. These words may help us in this regard: roughly, about, almost, some, average, nearly, just over, just below, etc.

**C-E Translation Methods of TV Soft News**

Each culture has its own habits, norms and conventions. Cultural problems are a result of the differences in the norms and conventions guiding verbal and non-verbal behaviors in the two cultures involved (Nord, 2001). According to functionalist approaches, although some information of source texts is unavoidably lost in translating practice, translators can make their choices by considering the purpose of target text, weighing the advantages and disadvantages. This is because translators must take into account the reading psychology and acceptability of target readers. There are three translation methods: abridgment, adaptation and interpretation. Translators should base the TT on the actual situations and choose the proper strategy.

**Abridgment**

Abridgment refers to making shorter, especially using fewer words, in translating. The different writing styles of Chinese and English news require some necessary abridgment. This method focuses on social news and economic news. Stereotyped expressions mean the fixed patterns of vocabulary and idioms used in some text types. Every field of society has its own stereotyped expressions, and even the most experienced translators find it difficult to transmit. A piece of TV soft news full of stereotyped expressions may be abstruse.

伴随着改革开放的脚步，21幼儿园走过了13年的发展历程，经过全体职工的努力，他们连续7年被评为区级教育工作和全面工作管理优秀单位；1997-1999获市卫生先进单位；1997-1999有多名青年教师在教育活动评比和优秀论文评比中获奖。

The 21st Kindergarten has been a success since it was set up 13 years ago. For 7 consecutive years, it has been given various honorary titles by the Hedong District. From 1997 to 1999, it was commended by the municipal government for its hygienic conditions. The young teachers, doing well in various contests, have won many awards (Fang, 2003).

The Chinese expressions “区级教育工作和全面工作管理优秀单位” and “市卫生先进单位” are typical Chinese stereotyped expressions. We Chinese can easily understand the meanings of these honors and awards. However, foreign viewers without background knowledge of Chinese society cannot
understand them at all. Thus, it is unnecessary to translate the detailed honors and awards. The news editor just uses the expression of “various honorary titles,” which is brief and clear.

This method focuses on cultural news and tourist news. Chinese people like to quote ancient poems and verses in their writing. Especially in the articles concerning the introduction to Chinese cities, provinces or scenic spots, the author usually quotes an ancient Chinese poem or lines of verse at the beginning of the article as introductory remarks.

“烟水苍茫月色迷，渔州晚泊栈桥西。乘凉每至黄昏后，人依栏杆水拍堤。”这是古人赞美青岛海滨的诗句。青岛是一座风景秀丽的海滨城市，夏无酷暑，冬无严寒。西起胶州湾入海处的团岛，东至崂山风景区的下清宫，绵延 80 多华里的海滨组成了一幅绚烂多彩的长轴画卷。

Qingdao is a beautiful coastal city. It is not hot in summer and not cold in winter. The 40-km-long scenic line begins from Tuan Island at the west end to Xiaqing Gong of Mount Lao at the east end. This is a piece of TV soft news in “Culture Express.” Compared with the ST, the TT is brief and easy to understand. The translator does not mention the poem at all. It seems that he deletes some important information; however, the deletion does not affect the right understanding of the ST. The first sentence of the TT is just the brief summary of the poem, so it is unnecessary to translate the poem, which is quite difficult for foreigners to understand.

Translation methods of abridgment are as follows:

- Abridgment of flowery expressions
- Abridgment of stereotyped expressions
- Abridgment of quotations

Adaptation

Adaptation is important in the C-E translation of TV soft news. The source news of TV soft news in CCTV-English is mainly from the news on newspaper or on the Internet, and the Chinese news on the other channels or in the local TV stations. Adaptation can be employed to help the TT reach its audience and produce the intended publicity effect among them. Adaptation or recreation means grasping the essence of the original and rewriting it by deleting or adding or reorganizing the information of the original in order to make the translation idiomatic and acceptable. Adaptation can be carried out in the following circumstances.

Language in the news is concise, and the title of news is highly concise. English news titles are extremely concise and highly information-condensed compared with Chinese ones. When we translate news titles from Chinese to English, some information should be omitted. Generally speaking, the writers observe the so-called “ABC” principle in English news titles. They are accuracy in content, brevity in language, and clarity in structure (Chen & Lu, 2006).

- 北京奥运中国代表团服装引发热议 设计方案 4 月底面向全球征集
- Athlete’s Uniforms for 2008 Olympics
- 山西关公像现身高雄 台湾 “关公文化季”就此展开
- Guan Yu Image Roadshow in Taiwan
- 实地勘察和测绘工作 拉卜楞寺保护维修启动
- Ancient Buddhist Temple Restoration
From these examples, we can easily find that English news titles are shorter than Chinese ones. They are quite different. Although it seems that TT is not loyal to ST, the functional concept of translation does not emphasize whether the source and the target texts are equivalent to each other. It highlights the realization of the intended function of the target text. So, it is practical for the translator to use adaptation to deal with the news titles.

Due to the different characteristics of Chinese and English, the contents of Chinese news must be dealt with very carefully in translation to avoid Chinglish or confusion. We must pay much attention to adaptability and flexibility in the C-E translation of TV news. Sometimes, ST and TT should be neither close nor distant. If we cannot surmount the obstacle of language and culture, we will not have the proper effect of publicity (Zhang, 2001).

As for some tourist news and cultural news, the adaptation of quoted poems is an important part of adaptation of contents. It is based on the foreign viewer’s acceptability and needs. Most of the foreign viewers of the Chinese soft news are average viewers but not experts who are familiar with Chinese poetry. In the translation of this kind of TV soft news, great efforts should be taken to reproduce the original flavor of the poems. For example, a piece of Chinese tourist news about Heilongjiang Province begins with a line of verse written by Chairman Mao “北国风光，千里冰封，万里雪飘...”. The news editor does not translate the poem literally because the poem will not help foreigners understand the beauty of the scenery. He just translates it into “located in the utmost northeast of China, Heilongjiang Province is best as a world of ice and snow.” In this sentence, the basic information of Heilongjiang Province is introduced and the main idea contained in the quoted poem is expressed in plain language.

Translation methods of adaptation are:

- Adaptation of title
- Adaptation of structure
- Adaptation of contents

**Interpretation**

News is that the public must have because it is important. News is information about a break from the normal flow of events, an interruption in the expected, a deviation from the norm; news is information people need to make sound decisions about their lives (Mencher, 2003). Interpretation means to make the meaning clear in translation by explaining. Different nations in the world have different cultural traditions, history, conventions, and developmental standards. Difficulties do exist in their exchanging and communicating of thought and information. The translation of TV soft news is also one kind of communication, as translation itself has the communicative features. When there are cultural and language barriers between the target viewers and the ST, translators make use of this strategy.

Some special terms that are particular in China also need interpretation in order to be understood by foreign viewers. Take the political term “三通,” for example; the proper translation is “the Three Direct Links (of trade, mails, and air and shipping service across Taiwan Straits).” The words in the brackets help foreign viewers understand the meaning of the concise political term.

必须清醒看到,“一手比较硬，一手比较软”的问题还没有解决。

We must see with a sober mind that the problem of “attaching importance to material progress while neglecting ethical and cultural progress” has not been solved. Special terms appear frequently in social news. We need to seize the essence of the literal meaning and translate them with proper interpretation.
Most of the political terms have their standard translations. As translators, we should accumulate these useful expressions and learn to use them flexibly.

Names refer to names of persons and places. We Chinese people are familiar with some persons and places, while foreign viewers may know nothing about them. It is essential to give enough interpretations to background information. When a particular person’s name appears in the news, translators had better use the interpretative strategy than merely Chinese spelling. For example, “鲁迅” is usually in the version as “famous Chinese writer Lu Xun.”

As for place names, “青岛” is translated as “the eastern coastal city of Qingdao.” The words like “北京”, “上海” are often translated as “the capital city of Beijing,” “the largest industrial city of Shanghai.” These are typical interpretative translations that make TT clear and easy to understand.

Translation methods of interpretation are:

- Interpretation of historical elements
- Interpretation of special terms
- Interpretation of names

**Conclusion**

TV soft news gives information in English on China’s development and investment environment, local history, culture, and tourist attractions. Such kinds of news can be seen as windows for the whole world to learn about the Chinese culture and Chinese life. According to the analysis by the authors, we find that TV soft news has its special features: social features, cultural features, and linguistic features. The authors put forward three translation strategies in the C-E translation of TV soft news: abridgment, adaptation, and interpretation. Difficulties do exist in their exchanging and communicating thought and information. There are really a lot of difficulties in the C-E translation of TV soft news, and some translators make mistakes because they do not know how the translation purpose and principle. These mistakes may bring misunderstandings and prevent the development of China’s communication to the outside world.

In further study, we shall collect more materials of English TV soft news and their Chinese source texts. The translation itself should be analyzed in detail and the problems in the translation should be found out. In this paper, the author just makes a preliminary research on the C-E translation of TV soft news. However, the overall translation strategy of TV soft news has not been developed and the proposal needs to be tested in practice. Besides, we encourage translators to study further the TV news from different perspectives of theories and methods.

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Indeterminacy of Translation: From the Perspective of Cognitive Construal

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Abstract “Construal” is defined as our ability to conceive and portray the same situation in many different ways. The theory serves as a powerful tool for describing and interpreting translation phenomena. This paper intends to adopt construal theory and its related theories in Cognitive Linguistics to analyze the cognitive motivations for indeterminacy of translation (henceforth IT). It provides a novel perspective and approach to understanding and studying the nature of IT. Because of multiple dimensions of cognitive construal and limited space, two typical aspects are selected to be analyzed in detail with specific and typical translation examples.

Keywords indeterminacy of translation; cognitive construal; dimension

Introduction

IT serves as one of the most disputed topics among contemporary translation studies and has aroused heated discussions. For the causes of IT, many scholars have given various accounts. After searching the relevant articles in China National Knowledge Infrastructure (CNKI) in the past 20 years, the author found that no one had ever made a complete and effective explanation from the perspective of cognitive linguistics. In view of this situation, this paper intends to adopt construal theory and its related theories of cognitive linguistics to analyze the cognitive motivations for IT. The origin and definition of construal are to be introduced because these notions are bound to help us get a better and deeper understanding of the theory. Due to the various dimensions of construal, some fundamental points, which are remarkable in the cognitive process of translation, will be described in detail. Their applicability to IT and explanatory power for IT will be explicated with typical examples.

Origin and Definition of Construal

“Construal” had once been called “imagery,” which is a cognitive psychology term. It refers to the mental representation of perception upon things, such as the people, things, and situations you have ever seen, or the sound you have ever heard, etc. According to Langacker (1987, p. 110), imagery describes the occurrence of a perceptual sensation in the absence of the corresponding perceptual input. If I close my eyes, I can, nevertheless, evoke a kind of visual sensation by imagining or visualizing a scene. Similarly, I can evoke a kind of auditory sensation even when surrounded by total silence, such as by imaging the sound of a barking dog or recalling a certain passage from the performance of a symphony.

With the continuous improvement of cognitive grammar, Langacker (2000) abandons the index of “imagery” and replaces it with “construal” in his later writings. In fact, “imagery” makes people easily associate it with “image” in psychology or “image schema” in this discipline. In order to avoid the confusions of terms and misunderstanding, Langacker no longer uses “imagery” and adopts “construal.”

Langacker (2007, p. 41) defines “construal” as “our ability to conceive and portray the same situation in alternative ways.” According to Taylor (2002, p. 589), “construal” is the process by which a given state is structured by a language user for purposes of its linguistic expression. Thus, one and the
same real entity (person, thing or event) can be construed in different ways depending on how the speaker construes or views the entity. Construal is a basic fact of human cognition:

“A speaker who accurately observes the spatial distribution of certain stars can describe them in many distinct fashions: as a constellation, as a cluster of stars, as specks of light in the sky, etc. Such expressions are semantically distinct; they reflect the speaker’s alternate construals of the scene, each compatible with it’s objectively given properties (Langacker, 1991, p. 61).”

Therefore, it is essential to take construal into the semantic analysis of both the lexicon and grammar because “it implies the meaning of an expression is not determined in any unique or mechanical way from the nature of the objective situation it describes” (Langacker, 1987, p. 107). “The same situation can be described by a variety of semantically distinct expressions that embody different ways of construing or structuring it. Our ability to impose alternate structurings on a conceived phenomenon is fundamental to lexical and grammatical variability” (Langacker, 1987, p. 107). Thus, it is quite clear that the notion of construal emphasizes the human subject’s dynamic modulation of conceptual substance, in contrast to the classical assumption that a concept represents an invariant essence or an objective state of the world.

**Applicability of Cognitive Construal to IT**

Much research in cognitive semantics and cognitive grammar has been devoted to the analysis and classification of various kinds of construal operations. Thus, there are many dimensions which construals may vary. Langacker and Talmy, two notable cognitive linguists, have proposed a number of different types of construal. Langacker (1987, pp. 116-137) puts forward three categories of construal operations: selection, perspective and abstraction. Later, he has revised his classification as (as cited in Verhagen, 2007, p. 5): specificity, prominence, perspective, dynamicity. He also arranges construal into five general dimensions for expository purposes: specificity, scope, prominence, background, and perspective.

Talmy (1988) describes construal as belonging to the following several “imaging systems”: schematization, perspective, attention, and force dynamics. He (2000, pp. 40-48) later revised his classification as configurational structure, perspective, distribution of attention, and force dynamics. It is self-evident that the classifications proposed by Langacker and Talmy share a number of common features. However, Croft and Cruse (2004, pp. 43-46) point out that it is not obvious how the differences can be reconciled, and some dimensions are still not mentioned; therefore, they put forward a more comprehensive classification as attention/salience, judgment/comparison, perspective/situatedness, and constitution/gestalt.

The main categories in such classification together with Langacker’s and Talmy’s all correspond to psychological processes and capacities; thus, it is natural that the classification proposed by Croft and Cruse overlaps with those by Langacker and Talmy. For instance, according to Verhagen (2007, p. 7) attention/salience, in general, comprises the same type of construal as the ones subsumed under Talmy’s attention category and Langacker’s prominence, but it also contains as subcategories certain construal that had the status of major categories in Langacker’s and Talmy’s work; specifically, it includes Langacker’s abstraction and Talmy’s schematization, and Langacker’s dynamicity. Judgment/comparison consists of categorization, metaphor and figure/ground. All the classifications have the most similar category perspective. At last, constitution/gestalt overlaps with Talmy’s “Configurational structure” and also involves force dynamics. It is true that one should not expect that all the classifications of construal can be described exhaustively and completely. In this respect, it is necessary that the most essential and well-studied types of construal should be sorted out for expository purpose. In fact, Langacker states that
his classification of construal phenomena is...mostly for expository convenience (as cited in Verhagen, 2007, p. 7). Given the fact that not every type of construal can be used to account for IT, dimensions of construal therefore should be selected appropriately. Taking Wang Yin’s (2008, p. 217) discussions with Langacker about the classifications of construal into consideration, as well as in accordance with the general cognitive rules of human beings – “from macroscopic to microcosmic” and “from bigness to smallness”; this thesis will adopt two typical dimensions of construal, in general, scope and background perspective, which are most remarkably manifested in IT.

Scope and Background
In fact, scope and background are two separate dimensions of construal described by Langacker (2000, p. 5). Wang Yin (2008, p. 213) has discussed with Langacker about some overlaps of the five dimensions of construal, and Langacker also recognizes this. For the expository purpose, Wang Yin’s strategy of incorporating scope and background into one dimension will be adopted in this thesis.

Langacker (1987, pp. 118-119) initially regards the scope of predication as the third aspect of selection and defines it as those portions of a scene that it specifically includes. He (2000, p. 49) renamed scope of predication as scope, which refers to the array of conceptual content that it specifically evokes and relies upon for its characterization. It comprises a set of cognitive domains, or those portions of active domains that are actually called upon and exploited for the purpose at hand (Langacker, 2000, p. 6). It thus pertains to the extensiveness of the content directly invoked: which conceptions are activated, and which portions of them actually come into play. Any aspect of our mental experience can be called upon as the basis for an expression’s meaning. Every linguistic expression corresponds to one scope, which varies a lot. In other words, scope in people’s understandings of one event are different, which forms the scale of scope. Scope can be divided into maximal scope (MS) and immediate scope (IS), the former refers to the full array of content it evokes, and the latter comprises those facets of the maximal scope that figure most directly in characterization of the profiled entity (Langacker, 2000, p. 49). Metaphorically, we can describe immediate scope as the onstage region, the general region of viewing attention. Consider the body part terms with respect the sequence, such as [1] arm>hand>finger>knuckle

The conception of arm provides the spatial scope for hand; likewise, hand provides the spatial scope for finger, etc. Thus, the conception of a finger provides the immediate scope for knuckle, since the word knuckle is identified in large measure by its position within a finger; the conception of a finger, in turn, evokes that of a hand (as its own immediate scope), which evokes that of an arm, and so on. When it comes to the meaning of knuckle, it is quite clear that the conception of finger comes into play more directly and prominently than the conception of hand, arm, or the body.

Thus, possessive constructions like compounds referring to wholes within the scope are acceptable (Croft & Cruse, 2004, p. 23), such as fingertip, fingernail, ear lobe, eyeball, eyelash, eyelid, toenail, bellybutton, knee cap, and so on. The entity designated by the first element of the noun compound functions as immediate scope for the second element. However, these noun compounds seem to be nonexistent and odd, like bodytip, armnail, footnail, facelash, and headlid, etc. A similar restriction can be found in have-sentence (Langacker, 1987, p. 119):

[2] (a) A body has two arms.
(b) An arm has an elbow and a hand.
(c) A hand has five fingers.
(d) A finger has three knuckles and a fingernail
In normal conditions, examples in [2] are acceptable, but those in [3] seem odd and unacceptable. In fact, every expression has a scope, however vaguely it might be delimited. At the very least, the conception evoked must be extensive enough to encompass the profile together with any unprofiled entities crucial to its characterization (Langacker, 2000, p. 49).

Another aspect pertaining to this incorporated dimension is background, which refers to the understanding of one linguistic expression or structure based upon another or numerous linguistic expressions or structures. Take categorization, for example; the categorizing of one or numerous structures may serve as background for understanding another one. In metaphor, the source domain provides the background for construing the target domain (Langacker, 2000, p. 5). Another type of background is context, which is about the indispensable reference information of language understanding. In frame semantic terms, the background assumptions are the frame(s) for understanding the literal meaning of a linguistic expression. Searle (as cited in Croft and Cruse, 2004, p. 29) argues that the sort of background knowledge that is relevant to a linguistic expression’s meaning can be predicted. One example given by Searle (2004, p. 29) is [4] Give me a hamburger, medium rare, with ketchup and mustard, but easy on the relish.

Suppose we understand what the meaning of this request is. We invoke background knowledge of fast food restaurants, the ordering and serving of food, how a hamburger is cooked, and so on. That is to say, we have to call on our encyclopedic knowledge so as to properly understand the precise meaning of an expression.

Thus, the speaker is supposed to fix a scope to demonstrate which aspect the argument he/she is concerned about first. The scope of the activated conceptual content involves relevant experience and the activated configuration of conceptual domain. Clearly, understanding the meaning or structure of one expression requires relevant experience and another or numerous linguistic expressions or structures as background. In this connection, scope and background actually is concerned with the range of utterance and the encyclopedic knowledge.

This dimension is well reflected when it comes to the translation of some typical proper nouns like “烟花三月” (yā huā sān yuè ) in Li Bai’s poem 《Huang He Lou Song Men Hao Rang Zhi Guang Ling 》. Versions are selected as the following (as cited in Huang Guowen, 2006, pp. 197-200):

TLT1: In this flowery April clime
TLT2: In the mist and flowers of spring
TLT3: in the month of glowing blooms and dimming willows

The understanding and translation of “烟花三月” involve many conceptual domains and much history background. In TLT1, “flower” is associated with the meaning of “full of flowers”; “April” activates the conceptual domain of the fourth season of a year, and “clime” refers to the weather. In TLT2, “mist” refers to the concept of water in the air close to the ground, and “spring” is associated with the encyclopedic knowledge of beautiful seasons, time full of energy and hopes, etc. In TLT3, “glowing blooms” calls on the concept of being burning, shining, and attractive time, while “dimming willows” presents a sharp contrast with the first part. Therefore, it is obvious that translators’ activated conceptual
domains, background encyclopedic knowledge, and relevant experience vary when they are translating
the same original text, which cause IT.

**Perspective**

After examining the *scope* and *background* dimension and its connection with IT, from which *perspective*
to observe an event should be considered next. Since the concept of “construal” serves as a major aspect
of conceptualization, analyzing the object of conceptualization is not adequate, but it requires that the
subject’s perception, choice, or point of view be considered. Accordingly, *perspective* is perhaps the most
central part of the entire construal operations. It refers to the angle of people describing a thing, which
involves the relative relationship between an observer and an event. The observation angle may well
directly influence the understanding of thing and linguistic expression. Different angles possibly lead to
different cognitive reference points, which serve as the starting points of cognizing other events.
*Perspective* comprises linguistic manifestations of the position from which a situation is viewed and is
divided into a various specific subtypes: *viewpoint* (including *vantage point* and *orientation*), *deixis,*
directionality, empathy, mental scanning, and subjectivity/objectivity. Still, for the expository purposes,
only one of them, which can explain a number of language phenomena, will be discussed in the analysis
of IT.

**Vantage Point**

According to Langacker (1987, p. 123), a *vantage point* is the position from which a scene is viewed: as I
walk along the sidewalk looking at a house, my *vantage point* with respect to the house gradually shifts.
Thus, the *vantage point* is the actual location of the speaker and hearer. They can observe and describe the
same objective situation from any number of different *vantage points*, which results in different
construals. From Langacker’s (2008, p. 75) points of view, many expressions undeniably invoke a
*vantage point* as part of their meaning (arguably, all expressions do). For instance, there is a reality that a
big rock and a tree in a spatial scene, as the following picture shows:

![Diagram of vantage points](image.png)

*Figure 1. (Langacker, 2007, p. 44)*

There are two possible vantage points: VP1, VP2. The dashed arrow indicates the view’s line of
sight. Suppose that the rock, tree, and vantage point are roughly in alignment. If the viewer is standing at
VP1, we can happily use either sentences such as the following:

[5] The rock is in front of the tree. The tree is behind the rock.

If the viewer is standing at VP2, these sentences are appropriate instead:

[6] The tree is in front of the rock. The rock is behind the tree.
Clearly, the *vantage point* consists of an ingredient of meanings of expressions. Of course, the vantage point doesn’t have to be the speaker’s actual location. As Langacker (2007, p. 28) puts it, we can describe things as they appear from someone else’s *vantage point*. It could be a speaker’s *vantage point* or the listener’s or someone else’s, or it can be a totally imaged *vantage point*. For example, the following would be proper and well understood when uttered at VP1 (Langacker, 2007, p. 44):

[7] *If you were standing over there [at VP2], the tree would be in front of the back.*

This capacity to adopt or at least accommodate a non actual vantage point enables us to describe a situation from the perspective of the hearer or some other individual (Langacker, 2008, p. 76).

Besides space and vision, time is still an important aspect of vantage point, as shown in the following sentences:

[8] *Next year will be full of surprises.*

[9] *Joe believed that next year would be full of surprises.*

Next year:

![Diagram showing vantage point and time](image)

*Figure 2. (Langacker, 2008, p. 76)*

The phrase *next year* involves the basic domain of time and a sequence of years. We are in some year, and we are looking forwards the future as the orientation. Thus, *next year* evokes the conception of a series of years and profiles the immediately following the one that contains the vantage point. Therefore, phrases like *next year, last year,* and *the year after next,* involve a *vantage point* in time.

After this description, the correlation between *vantage point* and IT can be established. Let us see an example as follows:

[10] **SLT:**  *I had to open the door and go in before everybody.*

**TLT1:**  *我 只得 在众目睽睽下 推门进去。*

\[ \text{wǒ zhīde zàizhòngmùkuíxià tuīménjìnqù} \]

*I had to with everybody staring at me push door enter*

**TLT2:**  *我 只好 在大家望着我的情况下 推门进去。*

\[ \text{wǒ zhīhǎo zàidàjiāwàngzhe wǒdeqíngkuàngxià tuīménjìnqù} \]

*I had to with everybody looking at me push door enter*

**TLT3:**  *我 没法， 只好 硬着头皮 推门进去。*

\[ \text{wǒ méifǎ zhīhǎo yìngzhèntóupí tuīménjìnqù} \]

*I had to with hard scalp push door enter (as cited in Tan Yesheng, 2009, p. 78)*

The original text describes the situation that a student entered the classroom before everybody with embarrassment, for he was late. In TLT1 and TLT2, the translators adopt a way of observation from the *vantage point* of classmates. While in TLT3, the translator takes the vantage point of the narrator. Thus, different translators are likely to assume different vantage point from which the situation will be presented in a TT, in other words, IT thereupon brings forth.
Conclusion

We have also sketched out a number of classifications of construal formulated by different cognitive linguists. However, it is impossible to give an account of every dimension because of its variety and inexhaustibility. In accordance with Langacker’s classifications and Wangyin’s suggestions, we have described two dimensions of construal in detail with typical examples, namely, “scope and background” and “perspective,” which is similar to what we actually see in viewing a scene depends on what we choose to look at and where we view it from. Obviously, there is a close connection between construal and IT. After comparing and analyzing different typical translations of the same original text relevant to each dimension, a logical conclusion is drawn that the theory holds an explanatory power for IT as well as remedies what are lacking in the previous explanations.

References

A Study on the Goldblatts’ Translation of *Qingyi* into *The Moon Opera* from the Eco-Translatological Perspective

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**Abstract**  
*Qingyi*, a milestone work of Bi Feiyu, is radiant with the glamour of linguistic art and numerous Peking Opera terms granting the novel with distinct Chinese flavor. The successful translation of *Qingyi* into *The Moon Opera*, by Howard Goldblatt and his wife Sylvia Li-Chunlin, ensured its acceptance by the mainstream Western media. This paper probes into the translators’ adaptive selection in multi-dimensions in the process of translation from the perspective of eco-translatology, hoping to provide insights for the translating of Chinese contemporary literature to the world.

**Keywords** *Qingyi; The Moon Opera; eco-translatology; adaptive selection; three dimensions*

**Introduction**

*Qingyi*, written in 2000 by the well-known Chinese contemporary novelist Bi Feiyu, tells the tragedy of Xiao Yanqiu, a peerless Qingyi singer in the Peking Opera, who is infatuated with her singing career and is crazy for her identification with the role of Chang’e in *The Moon Opera* (Bi, 2011). Deemed as a milestone in the writer’s career, it caused quite a stir when first published and won The Best Novella of 2000 (Sun & Zheng, 2011). Despite its concise and poetic nature in language, this novel provides polished accounts of the performance and prestige of the Chinese opera, conveying the unique traits of Chinese culture.

In 2007, Telegram Books launched the English version of *Qingyi*, titled as *The Moon Opera*, which received a favorable response in the West (Sun & Zheng, 2011). In 2009, the well-known publisher Houghton Mifflin Harcourt released its publication in America, which won equal populace affection there as well (Wang, 2013).

The success of this novella in the West is largely due to Howard Goldblatt, who is hailed as the “midwife” of contemporary Chinese literature by John Updike (Liu, 2011). Goldblatt’s great success in translating Chinese literary works makes him worth studying from different perspectives.

Since the “culture turn” (Bassnett & Lefevere, 1990), translation studies have shifted from the traditional prescriptive model to the concerns of translation process and translators. Scholars began to pay more attention to the social and intercultural factors in the translating process. Against this background, Chinese scholar Hu Gengshen constructed eco-translatology, providing a more comprehensive perspective for translation studies. According to this ecological approach, translation is defined as “a selective activity of the translator’s adaption to fit the translational eco-environment” (Hu, 2004, p. 97). The translator transforms the source text from multi-dimensions and, thus, can get a translation work with optimally holistic adaptation and selection.

This paper studies the Goldblatts’ translation of *Qingyi* in light of eco-translatology, focusing on its translational environment and their adaptive selection in the multi-dimensions, i.e. linguistic, cultural, and communicative dimensions.
**Key Concepts of Eco-Translatology**

Eco-translatology is an ecological approach to translation studies (Hu, 2008), of which the important theoretical foundation is the theory of “adaptation and selection,” which originated from Darwin’s theory of adaptation (Hu, 2013). Actually, it is also one of the core ideas of eco-translatology.

**Translation as Adaptation and Selection**

The idea of “translation as adaptation and selection” elaborates the translation process as the translator’s selective activity while adapting to the translational eco-environment (Hu, 2013). The definition indicates that the translator plays a considerably important role in the translation activity. On the one hand, when confronting some problems, the translator needs to make judgments and then selects corresponding methods to adapt to the specific translational eco-environment. On the other hand, the implementation of transformation also relies on the translator’s adaptive selection.

**Translational Eco-Environment**

Hu defined eco-environment as “the worlds of the source text and the source/target languages, the linguistic, communicative, cultural, and social aspects of translating, as well as the author, the client, and the readers” (2004, p. 220). This concept takes into account all the external conditions that affect the survival and development of the translating subject with all the beings involved in the translation activity. The external condition refers to the environment related to the translation, ranging from environments of nature to language, culture, and to economy, society, politics, and so forth. The translational eco-environment plays a highly vital role in the translation activity, as it is not only the cluster of factors that restrict the translators’ optimal adaptation and selection, but also the pre-condition and basis for their multi-dimensional transformation.

**Multi-Dimensional Transformation**

Within the framework of eco-translatology, multi-dimensional transformation emphasizes the linguistic, cultural and communicative dimensions. This approach is summarized as the translator’s adaptive selections that concentrate on the dimensions of language, culture, and communication under the principle of “multi-dimensional adaptation and adaptive selection” (Hu, 2013). In the translating process, transformations in different dimensions are interwoven with each other rather than being isolated. The translator’s adaptive selection and transformation in the linguistic dimension involve various aspects and levels, such as the linguistic form, figures of speech, etc.

The cultural dimension requires the translator to adapt to the whole cultural system to which the source text belongs and pay attention to the delivery of the cultural implication so that misinterpretations of the source text can be avoided (Hu, 2004). Therefore, the translator should be culturally conscious and strive to keep balance and harmony between the source and target cultures while translating to guarantee successful, smooth communication.

Besides the above, emphasis should also be laid on the communicative dimension. In other words, translators need to concern about the communicative intention in the target text. Eco-translatology concentrates on the three-dimensional transformation, but it doesn’t mean that the transformation excludes other dimensions. As a matter of fact, in translating, selection and transformation cover far more than the three.
Goldblatts’ Adaptive Selection in Translating Qingyi

Small in size, Qingyi is loaded with scintillating and inspiring words, making its translation by no means easy. However, as a competent and passionate translator, Goldblatt gladly took the challenge out of his love of “the tension between creativity and fidelity, even the inevitable compromises” (Liu, 2008) in dealing with the intricacies of cross-cultural communication. The popularity of Qingyi in the West is a proof that the Goldblatts did a great job in adaption and selection so that the translation could survive in the translational eco-environment. Due to the limitation of space, the author simply analyzes some typical cases of the Goldblatts’ adaptive selection in linguistic, cultural, and communicative dimensions to fit the translational eco-environment.

Adaptive Selection in Linguistic Dimension

Being totally different languages, Chinese is generally comprehensive and descriptive, while English is more analytical and logical.

**Hypotaxis and parataxis.** In *Translating Meaning*, Eugene Nida (1982) pointed out that the contrast between hypotaxis and parataxis is the most important linguistic difference between Chinese and English. When translating Chinese into English, one must bear in mind the linguistic features of these two languages, figure out the hidden logical and grammatical relations in the source text, and then reproduce the information in the target language with the necessary addition of connectives and clauses. Only in this way can the translated text be well-adapted and well-received.

Example One:

**Chinese:** 力不从心得活着，处处欲罢不能，处处又无能为力，真的是欲哭无泪。
(Bi, 2011)

**English:** She had neither lived up to her desires, nor carried out her wish to quit; and now there was nothing she could do – wanting to cry, she had no tears to shed (Goldblatt & Lin, 2009).

Fortune favored Xiao Yanqiu again by giving her another chance to act Chang’e; however, she was not a young girl any more. Hard as she tried, she couldn’t live up to the perfect figure of Chang’e. What is still worse, her student, Chunlai, proved to be a powerful competitor. She thought of giving up, but how could she possibly give up the dream of her whole life? Bi used four Chinese idioms to thoroughly describe the conflict and desperate mental state of Xiao Yanqiu. Yet, there is no possible way to achieve an equivalent effect in English. In consideration of the target language form, the Goldblatts first added “she” as the subject of the sentence. Then, they used a semicolon to divide this sentence into two parts according to its internal logic, with the first “neither... nor...” part to show her failures and regrets in the past and the second to show her feelings of desperation and hopelessness at present.

**Reproduction of Rhetoric.** Flexible application of rhetorical devices adds to the poetic feature of Bi Feiyu’s language. In literary translation, it is important to reproduce the beauty in rhetoric, especially for Qingyi, which is loaded with vivid figures of speech. Well aware of this, the Goldblatts tried in their translation to remain faithful to the original figurative language so as to help the Western readers get the original flavor of the Chinese.

Example Two:

**Chinese:** 炳章翘着二郎腿，五根手指像五个下了山的猴子，开心得一点板眼都没有
(Bi, 2011).
After all the hardships and trials, the troupe leader was extremely happy to see The Moon Opera staged again. While watching the performance, he was so excited that he couldn’t help tapping his fingers to the rhythm of the opera. Through the comparison of “five little monkeys scampering down off a mountain,” readers can vividly picture Bingzhang’s fingers dancing wildly on his laps as he got carried away by the successful performance.

Example Three:

Chinese: “吃油要吃色拉油，说话别找筱艳秋”。 (Bi, 2011)

English: “We chefs use salad oil whenever we cook, and we avoid Xiao Yanqiu by hook or by crook” (Goldblatt & Lin, 2009).

The original text contains two parallel sentences which form an antithesis. Xiao Yanqiu is notorious for her bad temper at the drama school, so everyone tries to stay away from her. The last character of each sentence, “油” and “秋”, share the same rhyme. In the English version, the two words “hook” and “crook” achieve the same effect of end rhyme. Also, the use of the phrase “by hook or by crook” makes the sentence catchy. There are plenty of examples for other rhetoric devices, like repetition, irony, parody, personification, pun, from which we can see that for the sake of adapting the linguistic charm and humorous tone of the rhetoric; the Goldblatts selected literal translation as their strategy of top priority when dealing with the rhetoric languages in Qingyi.

Adaptive Selection in Cultural Dimension

“For 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, 1993). Sun Zhili (2007) also pointed out that a translation should always seek the facsimile of culture even if it fails in that of language. In Qingyi, Bi has used a lot of culture-loaded words and idioms. Due to the huge disparity between Chinese and English cultures, it may be difficult for English readers to fully understand these cultural elements of the original work. But bearing the promotion of Chinese culture in mind, the Goldblatts adopted foreignization as the main strategy to maintain the exotic flavor of this novel.

Foreignization of culture-loaded terms. With great social and linguistic value, culture-loaded terms are a reflection of a nation’s custom and culture features. Throughout the whole novel, there are many culture-loaded phrases, with Peking Opera terms and religious terms as the most prominent cases. In translation, the Goldblatts employed foreignization as the main strategy.

Example Four:

Chinese: 春来最初学的并不是青衣，而是花旦，... (Bi, 2011)

English: When she started out, Chunlai had studied for the Huadan role—bold, seductive women—not Qingyi—chaste women and faithful wives (Goldblatt & Lin, 2009).

Qingyi and Huadan are two different female characters in the Peking Opera. However, the exact difference between these two roles is unknown to most Chinese people, let alone Western readers with little knowledge of this artistic form. In view of this, the Goldblatts applied literal translation plus explanatory words to introduce Qingyi and Huadan in order to help target readers better understand these two roles. Apart from Peking Opera terms, there are abundant religious expressions in Qingyi. With the
aim to introduce original Chinese culture, the Goldblatts maintained the Chinese religious flavor in their translation.

Example Five:

*Chinese:* 谁能想到《奔月》会遇上菩萨呢。 (Bi, 2011)

*English:* Who could have predicted that The Moon Opera would find a patron, its own bodhisattva? (Goldblatt & Lin, 2009)

In Buddhism, a Bodhisattva is a figure second to Buddha, travelling around to help people in trouble and need. Later, it is used to refer to a kind-hearted person. Buddhism has a long history in China, and has exerted great influences on its people’s way of thinking. In contrast, Westerners may find these Buddhist terms strange and exotic. To strike a balance between cultural foreignness and readability, the Goldblatts reserved the image “bodhisattva,” and added “a patron,” an equivalent expression familiar to Western readers. From the above analysis, we can see that the translators mainly applied literal translation and literal translation plus explanatory notes to transform Peking Opera terms and Chinese religious terms to maintain the exotic flavor of the novel.

**Foreignization of Chinese idioms.** Besides the culture-loaded words, Chinese idioms are also interspersed in Qingyi, undoubtedly elevating the artistry and literariness of the novel. In The Moon Opera, the Goldblatts applied literal translation for some simple idioms by which the culture images were easy to be understood by Western readers.

Example Six:

*Chinese:* 减肥真的像一场病。病去如抽丝，病来如山倒。 (Bi, 2011)

*English:* Dieting is a lot like illness. Getting well can be like extracting thread from a silkworm cocoon, whereas falling ill is like the toppling of a mountain (Goldblatt & Lin, 2009).

The idiom “病去如抽丝，病来如山倒” means disease usually breaks out like a sudden violent landslide, but it takes a long time to recover, like extracting a thread from a silkworm cocoon. In other words, disease is easier to get than to cure. Xiao Yanqiu launched “a long, cruel battle” to lose weight for the role of Chang’e. She kept on even suffering from malnutrition and depletion of energy. However, after the unpleasant incident with Chunlai, she promised to give up the role and give up dieting. As a result, her weight bounced back quite soon. For Yanqiu, losing weight is as slow and hard as “extracting thread from a silkworm cocoon,” and gaining it back is as fast as “the toppling of a mountain.” The Goldblatts are wise enough to maintain the vivid rhetoric with the original images, giving English readers some enlightenment on the charm of Chinese metaphors.

**Adaptive Selection in the Communicative Dimension**

Foreignization plays a crucial role in conveying cultural otherness and exotic flavor, but the translator should always bear in mind that readability is the top priority. Only when Chinese literary works are transformed into readable, accessible, and marketable English can the unique essence of Chinese culture be communicated.

Example Seven:

*Chinese:* 《青衣》

*Book Title:* The Moon Opera
The title was rendered into *The Moon Opera* instead of *Qingyi*. As known to many Chinese people, Qingyi, as an important female role in Peking Opera, features faithful wives or chaste women with a miserable life, like the heroine Xiao Yanqiu. Most Chinese readers can interpret the underlying meaning of this title, but not the English readers who have little knowledge of this. Therefore, the Goldblatts altered the title into *The Moon Opera* aiming to convey similar reflective connotations. Westerners are familiar with the traditional art form of opera, and the image of “the moon” reminds them of melancholy and depression, which coincides with the tragic keynote of the work.

**Conclusion**

This paper presents an analytical study on the Goldblatts’ translation of *Qingyi* from the perspective of eco-translatology. The Goldblatts’ bilingual and bicultural competence, their love for translation, and their personal favor for Bi Feiyu enabled them to be able to perfectly adapt to a translational eco-environment with the source text and source culture as its main component. In the translating process, to promote the Chinese culture, the Goldblatts applied foreignization as the main strategy. They remained faithful to the rhetoric devices of the novel, mainly using literal approaches to deal with terms and culture-loaded expressions. When the cultural gap could not be remedied by foreignization, they employed alteration to inspire the target readers’ interest. The numerous positive comments on *The Moon Opera* in the West prove that the translation is a great success. Readers can savor the distinct Chinese flavor and enjoy easy reading at the same time.

It is not at all easy for Chinese literary works to be well received. Moreover, the great disparity between Chinese and western cultures may lead to misunderstanding. In spite of this, we should not eliminate all the cultural characteristics of the Chinese works when doing translation just to please foreign readers; instead, we need to strike a balance between readability and cultural otherness. The Goldblatts’ translation of *Qingyi* has set a good example for promoting Chinese culture to the world. Its success can spark inspiration for the “going out” strategy of Chinese literature.

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Tentative Study on the Domestication and Foreignization in the Process of Tourism Translation

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[Abstract] With the development of tourism, tourism translation has gained attention, both in China and in the west. Domestication and foreignization are two strategies in the process of translation. The author tentatively discusses the development and relationship of these methods. At last, the author mainly discusses the examples and analyses the tourism translation from Chinese to English in Mt Lu Shan in the Jiang Xi province with pictures.

[Keywords] translation; domestication and foreignization; tourism translation

Introduction
With China’s economic and social development, intensifying globalization and the people’s improved living standards, and traveling is becoming the Chinese people’s dream more and more. Currently, more and more foreign visitors from all over the world come to China to enjoy the Chinese culture and history. However, the cultural differences between the east and west lead to difficulty in understanding. Therefore, nothing can be compared with the importance of how to translate scenic spots and tourism texts precisely and elegantly. Translation refers to an activity in which the information of a source language is expressed precisely by the target language so that the receptor of the target language can have the same response of the receptor of the source language. Here in this paper, the author discusses the translation from Chinese to English.

The Concept and Features of Tourism Translation

The Concept of Translation
The criteria for translation, ever since human beings first engaged themselves in the act of translation, is in dispute over what should be a factory approach to translation and what should be the standard for translation:

"Translating consists in reproducing in the receptor language the closest natural equivalent of the source language message, first in terms of meaning and secondly in terms of style."

– Eugene Nida (1993)

"Translation is a craft consisting in the attempt to replace a written message and/or statement in one language by the same message and/or statement in another language."

– Peter Newmark (1988)

Translation is the production of a functional target text maintaining a relationship with a given source text that is specified according to the intended or demanded function of the target text.

– Christiane Nord (2001)
The Concept of Tourism Translation

Generally speaking, tourism translation is a professional translation targeting tourist activities and the tourist industry, which can be divided into written translations and guide translations. It is a communicative activity across languages, societies, cultures and even time and place (Chen, 2004). Vermeer believes that “to translate means to produce a text in a target setting for a target purpose and target addressees in target circumstances” (Nord, 2001).

It indicates that “the major task of translation is to turn the cultural content in one language into another, so whether it is faithful or not largely depends on the degrees of the translator’s grasp of the two languages and the subtle difference of the cultural content expressed in the languages” (Guo, 2000, p. 27).

From the above mentioned, it shows that the translation of tourism materials is a kind of intercultural and cross language activity. The task of translation is to convey the source text culturally to the target reader. In the process of tourism translation, the study of the method and strategy is urgently needed.

Domestication and Foreignization in Tourism Translation

The Development of Domestication and Foreignization

Domestication and Foreignization are the appellations for two kinds of translation strategies. Domestication translation was a kind of translation that concentrated upon the target language, applying the expressive way and the linguistic form admitted by the target language, which could make the translation go smoothly and fluently, and more suitable for the target language readers. Foreignization translation was a kind of translation which was concentrated around the original culture, that was to keep the original styles as much as possible, and to preserve the alien style of the original culture, in order to make the readers feel the original style while the writer had to adopt the linguistic standard without complying with the target language.

Although Domestication Translation and Foreignization Translation were advanced by Lawrence Venuti, the terns were directly derived from the German linguist and translator, Schleiermacher, who declared a piece of essay in 1813. Schleiermacher advanced two kinds of translation accesses as referred to in On Translation Methods. “One was that translator could either leave the writer in peace as much as possible or bring the reader to him, or he could leave the reader in peace as much as possible and bring the writer to him” (Venuti, 1995).

In the 1970s, with the translation research culture turned, translation as a kind of exchange of culture has immensely aroused the researchers’ notice, and since then, the dispute between Domestication and Foreignization started to appear. In the current international translation forum, the one who aroused the dispute between Domestication and Foreignization should be Nida, and the one who described these translation strategies by way of the culture and history should be the Israel scholar Even-Zohar, while the one who brought these concepts into competing fields should be the American-Italian Scholar Venuti. From this moment, the dispute between Domestication and Foreignization formally took the place of the “word-for-word translation” and the “sense-for-sense translation”, which gradually became one of the hot issues in current translation study.

According to the above two translation conditions, Schleiermacher put forward the Translator-Oriented Translation Method and the Writer-Oriented Translation Method, whose method broke through the traditional limitation of the “word-for-word translation” and the “sense-for-sense translation”, which has greatly influenced later scholars. Lawrence Venuti’s perspectives on Domestication and original
Foreignization undoubtedly were inspired by Schleiermacher’s theory. However, Schleiermacher’s theory was based upon the German explanations, while Lawrence Venuti just innovated Schleiermacher’s perspective under the later postcolonial linguistic circumstances on Foreignization.

**The Relationship between Domestication and Foreignization**

Foreignizing translation signifies the difference of foreign text, yet only by disrupting the cultural codes that prevail in the target language. While domestication refers to "an ethnocentric reduction of the foreign text to target-language cultural values, bring the back home", (Venuti,1989, p.20)

As we mentioned before, there is no product of absolute domestication or foreignization. It is universally known that the translation plays a very important part in bridging the world of different cultures together and that translation is considered to be a across-cultural activity to the essence, as well as an important medium to promote cultural communication.

The relationship between domestication and foreignization is outrageous. Concerning the application of domestication and foreignization, there have always been fierce debates both at home and abroad in the history of translation studies. As a matter of fact, both domestication and foreignization strategies have their respective advantages and disadvantages. We cannot deny one, instead of favoring the other. We should compare them objectively. Everything should be balanced in the quantity, so it is the same as the use of the two strategies.

**The Analysis of the Translation of Mountain LuShan Representative Sights**

**The Translation of the Sights and Its Analysis from the Aspect of Domestication**

Domestication translation attaches great importance to the target language, avoiding showing a lot of the foreign features contained in the original language and try best to show a kind of translation version with a very fluent and accurate natural language of the target language so that the readers can understand the texts superficially without thinking about the implied meaning.

Here we can see the translation is just like Chinglish. “水深危险” this notice just wants to convey the meaning like this: Here it is very dangerous because the water is very deep. But the translation here is “dangerous deep water”. This translation just shows that the water is dangerous because dangerous is an adjective modifying the noun in relation to the genres. So it had better change this one into “dangerous because of the deep water”. For the second notice, the same Chinese characters have two different translation versions. It is very strange. “The water depth danger” is just very confusing. This can be like this: the water is deep; dangerous. If we translate this one in this way, it has a much clearer meaning. But if we want to analyze this from the perspective of domestication, the original translation version is perfect.
Here, this translation is not appropriate. Fashion refers to the business or study of making and selling clothes, and shoes, etc., in new and changing styles. Here, fashion market should only refer to the clothes. But the people here sell a lot of other things except the clothes. So my suggestion is market.

Here, the Chinese character “迎” has no need to translate to the equivalent word of English. We can omit this word during the process of translation. This Chinese character just shows the feeling of our Chinese people. It shows that we welcome all the visitors coming here to live in our hotel. It is a kind of feeling to tourists, so it is unnecessary to be translated. Translating it as Lu Shan Hotel is enough.

The Translation of the Sights and Their Analysis from the Aspect of Foreignization

Foreignization and domestication have a lot of differences. Many authors, scholars and translators have arguments on which one is better. From the beginning of the two methods’ dispute until now, no one can give us a definite answer. The above-mentioned scenic sights’ translation were analyzed from the perspective of domestication. The following ones are analyzed from foreignization.

This one is a representative example of foreignization. During translation, we should add some materials about the history of the Communist party and Kuomintang and their cooperation in the anti-fight of Japanese army. In order to solve the civil problem and the welfare of Chinese people, the leader of the Communist party took measures to invite the leader of Kuomintang to have a discussion about the problems existing between them. After the explanation is given, all of the people can understand what happened. They not only know the sight, but also have a further understanding about the history of China. We can find several mistakes. The first one is spelling of “September” and “negotiation”. The original text shows “Septembe” and “nego”ciation”. The second one is the title. “谈判台” is a place for people to talk about something. But here the translator just uses the word “plat”. Plat refers to a dish that a restaurant prepares specially on a particular day in addition to its usual food.
So the improved translation should be: THE NEGOTIATING PLACE. from July to September, in 1946, five-star, General G. C. Marshall, the special envoy of the President of the United States came to Lushun eight times to mediate the negotiation between the Communist party of China and Kuomintang. This is the place where General Marshall and Chiang Kai-shek met.

A “forest” can be explained like this: a large area of land that is covered with trees. This notice put up here can be abbreviated like entering the scenic spot having forest, smoking forbidden. In this way most foreigners know what to say about this. But foreigners cannot understand why they cannot smoke in the forest. According to findings about western cultures, western people are forbidden to smoke in public places. This kind of action is disciplined by law. In western countries, you can see “smoking not allowed” signs everywhere. If the police find you smoking in public places, you will be arrested and will be questioned by the police. So foreigners can’t understand why smoking in the forest is forbidden. So during the process of translation, the translator should explain clearly that smoking is forbidden here in case of causing fire.

According to the western culture, many foreigners have the spirit of climbing dangerous cliffs. They are not strangers to the cliff. Under the guidance of foreignization, here, “Caution cliff” just means that the cliff is very dangerous. Just ask the tourist to be more careful. So the suggestion should be “caution because of danger”. Although sometimes we can use very short words, we should be concise in meaning during the process of translation.

**Conclusion**

Domestication and foreignization, as two important translation strategies, supplies the theory supporting the translation of tourist information and makes a conversion in translation theories from traditional disputes on concepts (such as equivalence) by providing them with a new way of thinking. During the process of tourism translation, the purposes should be kept in mind and translate the scenic spots from the point view of the target language receivers. Their background knowledge, thinking patterns, and culture value systems should be considered. Every piece of translation should be guided under the principle of target language receivers’ needs, and the language of the target text should be acceptable.

In this paper, the author takes scenic spot information as materials to analyze how translation errors, misunderstandings, jokes and problems reduce the translation quality, which further obstructs the achievements of the original function. Based on the analysis of first-hand tourist information, the author found two main causes resulting in improper translations found in tourist information materials: On one hand, the translator should always bear in mind that “A translation is a text which is intended to function for the target receivers” (Nord, 2001). On the other hand, with the cultural turn of translation studies, the translator should take culture into account in translation and bear in mind the purpose of translation is to communicate and exchange information. Regarding to the paper, the materials used were mostly photos taken in scenic spots at Mountain Lu Shan. They can only be regarded as the “tip of the iceberg” and need
further expansion. This thesis does not cover all the aspects mentioned in the terms of domestication and foreignization.

References
Translation and “Passing” – The Blending of “the Self” and “the Other” in Translated Fictions in *Saturday*

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**Abstract**  *Saturday*, an important magazine of the School of Mandarin Duck and Butterfly, published one hundred issues between June 1914 and April 1916. In these one hundred issues, there were many “translated” fictions, which were only marked with the translator’s name without clarifying the original author. These so-called “translations”, like many “translated works” in the late Qing Dynasty, were difficult for the reader to discern whether they were a creation or translation. In fact, the elements of both creation and translation could be found in them. This paper puts these works back into their historical context, and analyzes the reasons for the emergence of such “translated fictions”. Combined with the notion of “passing”, which developed from African American study and Queer Theory, the paper analyzes the elements of passing as translation in these “translated fictions”, so as to reveal how the strangeness from other countries and the familiarity from locals, how “the other” and “the self” could exist in harmony in translation.

**Keywords** *Saturday*: passing; translation; free rendering; the self; the other

**Introduction**  
*Saturday*, an important magazine of the School of Mandarin Duck and Butterfly published 200 issues in total. The first hundred was published between June 1914 and April 1916, and the second hundred was between 1921 and 1923. There is an obvious distinction between the first hundred and the second hundred issues. That is, there were many translated fictions in the first hundred issues, while in the second hundred issues translated works could rarely be found. “Roughly estimated, there are over 250 (translated fictions) in the first hundred issues” (Zhao, 2003, p. 108). These translated fictions appeared in *Saturday* in three forms. The first form included the names of both the original author and the translator. In fact, most of the translated works in *Saturday* were published in this form. For example, the fiction translated from William Le Queux and Conan Doyle had both the author’s name and the translator’s name under the title of their translation. The second form included only the translator’s name. Therefore, there was no easy way for the reader to trace the original author and the original text. There were quite a number of translated fictions in *Saturday* that appeared in this form. According to the preliminary estimation, there were about 70 translated fictions in the first hundred issues that adopted this form. For example, in most of the translations by Zhou Shoujuan, the reader could only find “translated by Shoujuan” under the title. The third form was even more difficult for the reader to trace in the original works, for there was only the name of the person who did this “free rendering” or “free rendering of the meaning” under the title. Compared with the first two forms, the number of the works in the third form was not large. Apart from “free rendering”, the reader could find other forms which told how the “translated fiction” was “translated”. For example, in the 71st issue of *Saturday*, the humorous story *The Poet* was a fiction with its meaning freely rendered from the original work by Bo Xiong and its words polished by Xiu Tie.

Only when the author and the translator of a fiction are both known can the reader find out the relation between the original work and its translation. In other words, the “translated fictions” in *Saturday*...
could be considered as translations only when the author and the translator were listed under the title. As for the other two forms, without the authors clearly listed, the “translated fictions” could only be considered as translations. In fact, many “translated fictions” in the late Qing dynasty and the early days of Republic China belonged to these forms because the persons who produced them often used words like “render” and “freely render” instead of “translate” to define their actions. If the translated works could be categorized into types of “literal translation”, “rewriting”, and “making up”, then the latter two forms of the “translated fictions” on Saturday could not be called translations. Their “translators” did rewriting based on the original work, or they even wrote the fiction themselves and called their works “translations”. The reasons for these phenomena will not be illustrated here. From only one magazine, three different types of “translations” could be found. What are the reasons? Why did no one question the real identity of the “translator” for the latter two forms of “translated fictions”? This paper holds the view that to understand the reasons why the three forms of translation appeared, it is necessary for people to put them back in their historical context, and to understand why they were taken as translations, it is essential to analyze the elements that helped them pass as translations.

**Saturday: A Microcosm of Translated Fiction in the Late Qing and Early Republic China**

“There were three major translation climaxes in the history of China: The Translation of Buddhist Sutra from the late East Han Dynasty to the Tang and Song Dynasties, The Translation of Science and Technology from the late Ming Dynasty to the early Qing Dynasty, and The Translation of Western Learning from the late Qing Dynasty to the early years of Republic China. Some scholars divided the Chinese translation history into another three sections according to the different translation content and objects, being the translation from among the national minorities, the translation of Buddhist sutra, and the translation of Western Learning” (Zou, 1994, p. 1). According to any standard of periodization, the weekly magazine Saturday, which began its publication in 1914, was born during the climax of the Translation of Western Learning. In this period, the purpose of the translators was very clear – to save and invigorate the country. The fiasco the government of the late Qing Dynasty suffered during the First Sino-Japanese War completely refuted the translation proposition of the advocates of the westernization movement (the Yang Wu Movement), and also suddenly awakened the bourgeois reformists who realized that the westerners were stronger not only because they had advanced machines and guns, but fundamentally they had better social political systems. Therefore, in this phase, the materials which were chosen to be translated into Chinese were about various areas. Yan Fu, a representative of the reformers translated philosophical and political works of Western capitalism. Liang Qichao advocated the translation of fiction because he believed that the reading of translated political fiction could enlighten the wisdom of Chinese people. Liang’s efforts lifted the curtain on literary translation in the late Qing Dynasty, especially the prosperity of fiction translation.

In this background, it’s not surprising that such a large number of translated fiction was published in Saturday. As the representative magazine for the School of Mandarin Duck and butterfly, Saturday was published on time every Saturday. In the early years of Republic China, the literary magazines for leisure were deficient. As a result, the publication of Saturday aroused readers’ keen interests. Every Saturday morning at that time, at the front door of the sales department of Saturday, there was always a crowd of readers, queuing up to buy the latest issue. In Zhou Shoujuan’s memory: “When the door of the sales department opened, the readers would swarm in to buy the latest issue. The popularity of the magazine was like the essentiality of pancakes and deep-fried dough sticks for people’s breakfast” (Zheng, 1983, p.
Many readers would spend their weekend reading the inviting stories of the magazine with the fresh ink fragrance. This description objectively revealed how popular and how accepted the fiction and translated fiction were among the readers in the early Republic China. Whether some translated fiction had the original author marked out did not arouse the readers’ curiosity at all. Why didn’t they care about it? This paper will try to explain the following reasons in the historical context of the early Republic China.

First, the author of the original fiction could hardly by found or contributed to. For instance, on the 19th issue of *Saturday*, the translated humorous story *Yao Shi Shi Jie (The World of Keys)* had its translator signed as “Qian Fangding translated from *An Dong Xin Newspaper*”. From this unclear clue, it was impossible to trace the source text of the story. Was the story translated from one article in *An Dong Xin Newspaper* or from the blending of several articles? If it was one article, in which issue of *An Dong Xin Newspaper* did it appear? Here is another example. On the 31st issue of *Saturday*, there was a translated fictional story called *Liao Du (Healing Jealousy)*, which was categorized as a “True Story”, and was signed with “Ban Nong translated from *Da Lu Bao*”. It would be very difficult to find its source text. Many translators of the stories published in *Saturday* had translated the stories from stories they read in western magazines and periodicals and these stories actually originated from non-western countries and cultures. Some translators even made up their “translation” from an English Ying Xi (movie) they watched in the theatres. They only summarized the main ideas or the plots of the movies into words and published them in *Saturday* as “translated fiction”. The well-known translator and editor of *Saturday*, Zhou Shoujuan, often adapted famous movies he had watched into fictional stories after he went home from the theatre. For example, in the 24th issue, under the title of the fiction *A Xiong (My Brother)*, it was signed: “The story was adapted from a movie which was a renowned masterpiece by ALFHONSEDAUDET, a novelist as great as Alexandre Dumas” (Zhao, 2003, pp. 112-113). It could be inferred that in the early years of Republic China, when people could not easily gain information, the sources for translated fiction for *Saturday* were limited. Therefore, it was very difficult to find or define the source texts for some translations.

Second, with entertaining the readers as the purpose of translation, the translators were not faithful to the source texts and took conveying the meaning of the source texts as their primary task. As a result, their translations appeared in various forms. In the second half of the 19th century, translated fiction began to flow into China in great amounts. Translation was driven by different purposes. Some translators, like the famous translator Lin Shu, aimed to entertain readers, which were growing rapidly in number. Some intellectuals wanted to introduce the latest western reforms into the philosophical field. Others wished to introduce western science and technology to China (Dollerup, 2008, p. 37). In the the Inaugural Editorial of *Saturday*, how the magazine was named was explained. That’s because from Monday to Friday “people were busy with their jobs”, and only on “Saturday and Sunday could they have some leisure to read fictions”. Reading fiction could give people “peace and happiness” and help them “saving up”. “The happiness gained from the brothel, the bottle and the theatre would not last long”, while reading fiction “would help forget sorrows”. It is very obvious that the purpose for the publication of *Saturday* was to entertain the readers. For this purpose, the translated fiction in the magazine would have to cater to the readers’ tastes and interests. The stories with exotic flavor were certainly interesting and quality works were also easy for the readers to understand. Therefore, the translators’ strategies could easily be guessed – to convey the plot or the meaning of the story and to use a language and style which was easy for readers to understand. It was very difficult to define their actions. To translate or to freely
render? That remained a question. They translated some fiction, or some parts of the source fiction, or were inspired by the source fiction and created their own works.

Third, the “tacit understanding” between the translator and the reader helped with the acceptance of such “translated works”. If the readers of Saturday had not accepted the translated fiction with their source texts and original authors that were difficult to trace, there would not have been so many such kinds of translated fiction in the magazine. The readers of Saturday “were mostly not only intellectuals but also belonged to the middle class in the city with stable income. These readers were educated in the new school or influenced by Western learning. They worked in the city in the intellectual, cultural, political and commercial trades” (Zhao, 2003, p. 105). Therefore, on the one hand, these readers were “open-minded”, for they had been influenced by western culture and as a result welcomed the translated fiction. On the other hand, they were “conservative”, for they were still used to the traditional style and genre of Chinese fiction. For them, the ideal situation would be to read foreign stories in the familiar traditional Chinese style. From the translated fiction in Saturday, it could be easily seen that although the translator’s name would be marked under the title, the fiction had very strong Chinese flavors from their language and their style. The “tacit understanding” between the translator and the reader unfettered the translator. “The ‘conspiracy’ made by both the translator and the reader helped with the approval and acceptance of translations in various forms, from literal translation, to adaptation, to making up” (Liao, 2010, pp. 86-87).

The Elements of Passing in Translated Fiction in Saturday

Passing is a concept which developed from African American study and Queer Theory. Passing here means “to pretend to be something or someone else”. This meaning first came up in American English. At first, it was used to refer to a social phenomenon that black people used camouflage to pretend they were white people… In the broad sense, passing can be used to refer to the action of a person who successfully got rid of his own identity and began to live in the society as someone else… There are many types of passing, for example, the passing of gender, the passing of class, the passing of age and so on. The reasons why passing would appear might be for the consideration of safety, to have adventures and excitement, or all the above reasons combined (Huang, 2008). There is the concept of passing in gender study too. As Judith Butler (1990, pp. 137-138) pointed out many years ago, cross-dressing revealed the nature of gender and how gender roles were constructed. Cross-dressing is a kind of passing. The only difference between cross-dressing and other kinds of dressing is that cross-dressing often relies on the audience being able to discern the disguise. In other words, the audience sees through the disguise and knows the truth. Thus, the audience can freely observe how the cross-dresser disguises himself and understand how real the disguise can be. This actually matches the view that translation is a kind of performance. In the second paradigm of gender study, gender roles have already been considered as what could be constructed. The gender role of the translator could be flowing and changing.

The latter two forms of the translated fiction in Saturday were not questioned by the readers at that time as translations. At least those readers read them as translated works. Besides the tacit understanding between the translator and the readers in that social background, another reason was that these “translated fictions” had the characteristics of a translation. These characteristics could explain how the fiction was passed off as real translations.

These characteristics can be summarized as the following:
First, the stories were always set in other countries. The setting includes the place where a story takes place. Half of the latter two forms of translated fiction were “translated” by Zhou Shoujuan. In his works, the setting of the stories was mainly in England (e.g. the romantic fiction Fifty Years Before in the 7th issue), France (e.g. Napoleon’s Friends in the 1st issue), New York of the USA (e.g. Vaguely I Seem to Know the Swallows Come Again in the 21st issue), London (e.g. a sad story Heart Broken in the 10th issue), and Turkey (e.g. Terror in the 10th issue). Second, the stories always had foreign historical backgrounds. Among the “translated fictions”, some had historical backgrounds of The Franco Prussian War (e.g. The Burning and Plunder of a Reclusive Village in the 25th issue translated by Tian Hao), some the anecdotes (in 1809) of General Willington of England (e.g. The Red Camellia in the 72nd issue translated by Zhou Shoujuan), or some had the French Revolution (e.g. the ethics fiction Benevolent Mother in the 77th issue).

Third, the names of characters in the stories were transliterations from the typical foreigners’ names. Again take Zhou Shoujuan whose translated fiction was published the most in Saturday as the example. Some of Zhou Shoujuan’s translated fiction was signed with both the original author and his own name as the translator. In those stories which had only Zhou Shoujuan’s name signed as the translator, the names of the characters were typically foreign. In the ethics fiction Maid Taking Revenge in the 35th issue, the maid’s name was “You Li Ai” (probably from Julia), and her enemy, the scoundrel, was called “Ao Ge Si Tuo Bai Nai De” (August Benet). In the patriot fiction Lover or Motherland in the 50th issue, the protagonist’s name was “Ge Lan De” (Grande), and her lover’s name was “Kai Er” (Kyle). In the complaint fiction The Thorny Rose in the 41st issue, the old man who told the story called himself was named “Wu Ming Shi” (John Doe), yet “did have a name over twenty years ago” which was “Bo Ya Fu Luo”. “Bo Ya Fu Luo was the transliteration of poor fellow”, “meaning a pitiful person”. Some of these characters may have existed in the source texts, and some were created by the “translator” through the strategy of “rewriting” and “making up”. Although the Chinese words used for the transliteration of these English names are very different from those used by people at that time; the names could be easily identified as transliterations of foreign names.

Fourth, the behavior of the characters in the stories was rarely seen in China at that time. For example, in the romance fiction Love Letter in the 32nd issue translated by Dong Ye, a woman, who was very skillful at driving, was driving a car in a street in New York. Cars in the streets were not plentiful in Republic China and women drivers could rarely be found at that time, let alone “skillful” women drivers. Another example was in the 21st issue. In the romance fiction, Vaguely I Seem to Know the Swallows Come Again translated by Zhou Shoujuan, a Chinese student studying in New York was in love with an American girl.

Fifth, the detective story was a literary genre imported from other countries. Detective stories as light literature were very popular. In the history of ancient China, there was Gong An fiction, but no detective stories in the modern sense (Ren, 2011, p. 205). Detective stories originated in the Age of Enlightenment in the west and were translated and introduced into China in the first half of the 20th century. Detective stories began to attract many Chinese readers and soon there was a stirring of interest for the translation of detective stories.

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1Gong An fiction is a kind of crime fiction and a kind of classical fiction in ancient China. It was popular in the Ming and Qing Dynasties.
“Like other fiction magazines published in the late Qing dynasty and early years of Republic China, *Saturday* labeled each fiction it published with a type, like ‘detective fiction’, ‘god and monster fiction’, ‘science fiction’, ‘romance fiction’ and so on. Translated fiction was also categorized into these types” (Zhao, 2003, p.109). Detective stories were a large proportion of the translated fiction published in *Saturday*. The original author of Sherlock Holmes fiction was clarified as Conan Doyle. And the translators of Sherlock Holmes fiction were mainly Xiao Qing, Xiao Die, Tian Xu Wo Sheng, Zhou Shoujuan and Chang Jue. Except for these Sherlock Holmes stories, there were also many translated detective fiction of which the original authors were not clarified. Under their titles, there were only the names of the translator or the person who freely rendered the story into Chinese. For example, under the title of the fiction *The Strange Guest* in the 36th issue, there signed “translated by Zhou Shoujuan”; *Fifty Thousand Yuan* in the 41st issue, translated by Jing Ying; and *Doctor Wutian Investigates* in the 96th issue, translated by Shi Sheng, etc. Whenever seeing the label as a detective story, the readers would naturally take the fiction as a translation.

At that time, the readers of *Saturday* did not question the translated fiction in which the source texts and original authors could hardly be found as translations or creations. Besides the historical reasons, the five elements which helped to pass these fictions off as translations also helped with the acceptance. In the face of the passing elements, and the blurring boundary between “translation” and “creation”, how can “the self” and “the other” be distinguished? How could the nature of translation be understood through the phenomenon of passing?

**The “Self” and the “Other” – Distinction and Connection**

In the early 20th century, the minstrel shows or minstrelsy were very popular in America. In this traditional American show, white men would dress themselves up as African-Americans, blacken their faces, exaggerate certain features, (wide eyes, thick lips), and then perform on stage an exaggerated caricature. Along with the associated activities of burlesque and pastiche, minstrel shows again functioned as a delineation of boundaries by crossing those bounds…. Minstrelsy soothed white anxieties, however, at the cost of reinforcing black stereotypes. Perhaps white men didn’t know who they were. But at least they knew who they were not – not black, not slave (Andre, 2006, p. 255). By exploring the features of another race, one race could have a better understanding of themselves. The situation with language and culture is the same as the minstrel shows. At once people could have a clear understanding of themselves when they tried to understand the language and the culture of other peoples. In other words, to understand “the other” could help reveal “the self”.

The boundary between “the self” and “the other” could only be found by crossing bounds. In the minstrel shows, white men tried to understand the boundary between the white and the black by crossing it to act like black people. In cross-dressing, male people crossed the boundaries to pretend to be female. To pass oneself off as someone else, to make the passing convincing, one at least has to understand the features of oneself and that of someone else. In the “translated fiction” in *Saturday*, without the original author clarified, the translator used the elements of passing and attached the features of translated fiction onto their works. These features were foreign and belonged to “the other”. At the same time, in order to make their “translations” popular, these “translators” also kept the features of “the self”, thus keeping with the reading habits, the aesthetic taste of the Chinese readers and the writing norms of traditional Chinese fictions.
In the early 20th century, Russian formalist Shklovsky put forward the concept of “Defamiliarization” which was to make familiar things strange. In the process of translation, the strange would be made familiar so that the target readers could understand the translation. The translator had to make strange things seem familiar. The strange flavor in the process of translation is born with the source text. However, how to keep this strangeness and at the same time arouse their sense of deja-vu is a great challenge to the translator of literary works. How to make the strangeness and familiarity coexist in harmony in translation, in other words, is how to make “the other” and “the self” coexist in harmony. A translation, from this perspective, is an oxymoron of “a familiar stranger” which properly shows the contradictory nature of translation.

In Assumed Translation: A Methodological Concept and Its Implications, Gideon Toury (2002) put forward the notion of assumed translation to express that if a work is accepted as a translation in the target culture, then it is a translation. According to this view, the three forms of “translated fiction” should be considered as translations. People with foreign names put on exotic shows in strange places. All of this was described in familiar language and familiar style. This was the blending of strangeness and familiarity in the translated fiction published in Saturday.

Implications and Conclusion
The three forms of translated fictions published in Saturday should be understood in the historical context in the late Qing Dynasty and early Republic China. At that time, there were mainly two purposes for the translators: to entertain the readers and to enlighten people’s wisdom. The translators of the fiction in Saturday were led by the purpose of entertaining the readers, and therefore, adopted free translation strategies like rewriting, adapting or even making up stories. These translated fictions carried the feature of strangeness attached to foreign works. The settings, characters and plots revealed exotic flavors, while the traditional language and writing style of Chinese fiction helped the readers soak in the familiar atmosphere and enjoy the reading more easily.

According to Toury’s notion of assumed translation, the “translated fiction” in Saturday, which had only the translator’s name marked out or the person who freely rendered the fiction from another language into Chinese, could also be seen as translations (2002). This fiction can not be clearly categorized as translation or creation. They had the features of translation and the strangeness could be easily found in them. The state that the strangeness of “the other” and the familiarity of “the self” coexisted in harmony should be the ultimate standard of literary translation, and could reflect the contradictory nature of translation.

The analysis of the translated fiction without source texts in Saturday provides two directions for future study: first, more attention should be paid to the phenomenon of passing because it could explore the boundaries between “the other” and “the self”, and could help with the understanding between them. Second, when, and in what situation, can translation be understood as an action of passing also deserves further study. Is translation a kind of passing phenomenon in nature? Can translation be categorized into different types of passing? If translation is seen as a kind of performance, then the problem of passing will always potentially exist. To give it further study would certainly help people’s understanding of translation.
References


On the Translation of *The Trumpet of the Swan* and Zhou Zuoren’s Children-Orientation Translation Theory

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**Abstract** Children’s literature is about their lives and should arouse their interest. Mr. Zhou Zuoren is the forerunner of Children-Orientation Translation Theory. His theory is that the translation should sound like children’s language. *The Trumpet of the Swan* was written by E. B. White and its translation is by the great translator Mr. Ren Rongrong. Examples prove that with the Children-Orientation Translation Theory – seeing through the eyes of children, listening with the ears of children, and feeling with the heart of children – translations of children’s literature would be successful and full of children’s interests and fun.

**Keywords** children’s literature; *The Trumpet of the Swan*; children-orientation; translation

**Introduction**

“Children’s literature is about children’s life and caters for children’s requirements. The difference between children’s literature and adults’ literature is their target readers” (Jiang, 2013, p. 1). Children are different from adults in the following three perspectives: first, on a physical level, the characters in children’s literature are moving, which arouses children’s delight and pleasure in reading; second, on a psychological level, which includes the children’s psychological statement, their psychological features and their character’s orientation (motivation, interest, ambitions and so on). Translators should take the above elements into consideration and be familiar with the psychological features of children, and therefore, the translation of children’s literature will be popular to the target children readers. Third, on a cultural level, children’s literature is defined as specific literature only for children, in which there are lovely vivid and specific literal images and plots. Chen Bochui, the famous children literature writer says “a good children’s literature writer would like to be with children and to listen with children’s ears, to look with the children’s eyes and to feel the world from children’s perspective” (Chen, 1959, p. 1). No matter, children’s literature writers or children’s literature translators should stay with children and arouse their interest with children’s stories and children’s language. *The Trumpet of the Swan* is children-centered literature and it is translated by the famous children’s literature translator, Mr. Ren Rongrong.

**E. B. White and *The Trumpet of the Swan***

The writer of *The Trumpet of the Swan* is E. B. White, a famous American children’s literature translator. As a major writer for *The New Yorker*, he holds his attitude as “facing the complicated society and keeping happiness inside”. He wrote three children novels including *Charlotte’s Web*, *Stuart Little* and *The Trumpet of the Swan*, of which *The Trumpet of the Swan* is the best one, attracting many little readers and is one of the most popular fairy tales. An American writer said, “It is the most persuasive fable about childhood growth” (Jiang, 2012, p. 17).

*The Trumpet of the Swan* is the last novel written by White. In the fairy tale, there is a little trumpet swan who could not make a sound. He could not express his love to Miss Swan with a loud voice. But the
little swan asked his old friend Little Sam to do him a favor in the pasture. Sam carried the little swan to his school and begged Sam’s teacher to teach the little swan writing and reading. After several years, carrying a slate and a pen on his neck, the little swan flew back to his lake home. Unfortunately, his beloved Miss Swan could not read his words on the slate and flew away. An idea came into the father’s mind; he broke the window of a musical instruments store and stole a trumpet for his son, the little poor dumb swan. However, the trumpet was stolen, which depressed the little swan. Carrying the slate pen and the trumpet, the little swan went to a summer camp with his friend Sam. He planned to make enough money to pay for the trumpet taken by his father. He played his trumpet better and better and soon he became famous around the country. He was called the famous trumpet player Little Louis. He made a lot of money from the performances. One day a storm forced his beloved Miss Swan to land in the Philadelphia Lake. The trumpet swan was a precious bird and the park wanted to cut Miss Swan’s fly feather to make her stay in the park forever. Little Louis had a talk with the park manager and came up with an agreement that Miss Swan would be free on the condition that one of their offspring would stay in the park in the future. Little Louis won his Miss Swan’s heart by playing beautiful music and they went back to his parents’ lake home. He asked his father to send the money back to the musical instrument store. Louis and his bride went to the marsh in Canada where he was born. This is the story of The Trumpet of the Swan, from which we can learn from the dumb trumpet swan Louis who overcame many difficulties and succeeded in the end. This story presents little readers a most encouraging growth fable.

Children’s Literature Translation and Zhou Zuoren’s Children-Orientation Translation Theory

“Childhood is a complicated period in which children of different ages are different physically and mentally. They have different requirements for literature appreciation. Childhood is divided into four stages including infancy stage (from one to three), preschool period (from three to ten), juvenile period (from ten to fifteen), adolescent age (from fifteen to twenty)” (Zhou, 1932, p. 45). The target readers of The Trumpet of the Swan are in the juvenile period from ten to fifteen years old. What’s more the hero in the novel is a boy of eleven years old. The features of they juvenile period children are as follows: first, they are on their way to become adults; second, psychologically and physically they have some adult characteristics; third, they anticipate having adult strength, independent thinking, independent living, and becoming prepared to enter into society. But they are confused by the complicated social relations. Therefore, it is significantly essential to teach the juvenile well, which is closely related with their philosophy of life. In addition, their abstract thinking abilities grow very fast and they are able to think about problems critically. However, juveniles are not totally independent in choosing literature and having literature appreciation. Some works are beyond their reading ability, which they could be easily misled mentally. Thus, they need adults’ guidance. Although juvenile literature has some qualities of children’s literature, it is also similar to adults literature. Juveniles should choose books and analyze the contents in these books.

In view of the characteristics of target readers of children literature, translators should choose the languages fitting the children’s requirement. Because of children’s limited knowledge, and incomplete mental development, the languages in the translation should not be as mature as in adults literature. The language should sound like story telling with simple and short sentences instead of long and complicated ones. Languages should be chosen according to the children’s cognitive level linguistic competence and aesthetic requirements. Then, children can understand and accept the literature translations.
Children literature translators should be with children, as well as the children literature writers. Translators should be willing to feel the world from the children’s perspective. With children’s way of thinking and way of speaking, in their language, the children literature translations would be full of children’s innocence and interest. This is the Children-Orientation Translation Theory, which was proposed by Mr. Zhou Zuoren.

Mr. Zhou Zuoren (1885-1967), from Shao Xing City Zhe Jiang Province, a famous essayist and literature translator, he entered and studied in the Shui Shi School of South of the River in 1901 and five years later he went to Japan. Because of the influence of western learning, Mr. Zhou Zuoren put forward the Children-Orientation Translation Theory for children’s literature creation and children’s literature translation. He said that the children’s world was quite different from the adults’ world. There were no other criterions except Children–Orientation Translation Theory. He put great importance to the children-talking-like style, which was the Children-Orientation Translation Theory. Before Mr. Zhou Zuoren’s Children-Orientation Translation Theory, children’s literature translations were adult-oriented. Zhou Zuoren believed that literature was not sermon, but instead the features and functions of art. Literature translations reflected art features instead of utilitarianism features.

Zhou Zuoren said in his book Children’s Literature: “Previously we could not understand children. We regarded children as the reduced adults and infuse the Confucian Masterpieces into them or we regarded children as incomplete and innocent small persons rejecting to communicate with them. Recently we come to know that children are different from adults mentally and physically and they are complete people having their own lives. In the decades long childhood period, on one hand they are preparing themselves to be adults and on the other hand they have their own independent significance and value. Because life is the process of growing, we could not define any period as the real life. I believe that we are in conformance with every period – that is growing up, coming of age and die of old age, which all are real life. So we totally reject the idea regarding children as reduced adults. It is said that children do not have an independent life, with which I do not agree” (1932, p. 41).

“I am not sure until now that what I propose is favored by children or not. I am not happy with the condition that the original text is clearly meaningful and naturally structured while my translation is difficult to be understood by children. I am sorry that no matter how much effort I made I could not give them a beautiful translation, which I think is quite unforgivable. I hope I could get the favor given by more experienced teachers like knight-errant who could make corrections and improvements on the translations and make them easily understood by children. Secondly, I hope there are more and more excellent children dramas created by good writers” (Zhou, 1932, p. 56).

Translators should regard children as the target readers taking their psychological features linguistic features and accepting abilities into consideration. Translations of children novels are full of children simplicity and children’s interest and meet with children’s need as much as possible.

Examples of Children-Orientation Translation Theory
Ren Rongrong, the translator of The Trumpet of the Swan, is a famous children’s literature writer, translator, poet, fairy tale writer and children literary theorist. Ren Rongrong’s translations are very popular. There are some translation examples from The Trumpet of the Swan that illustrate the Children-Orientation Translation Theory, as follows:
Example 1:

“These were the pleasantest days of Sam’s life, these days in the woods, far, far from everywhere – no automobiles, no roads, no people, no noise, no school, no homework, no problems except the problem of getting lost and of course, the problem of what to be when he grew up. Every boy has that problem” (White, 2012, p. 195).

Translation:

“这些日子，这些在森林中的日子，是萨姆生活中最快乐的日子，它们远离一切——没有汽车，没有马路，没有人，没有喧闹声，没有学校，没有家庭作业，没有问题，除了一个问题，就是不要迷路。当然，还有一个问题，就是他长大了干什么。这个问题是每个孩子都有的。” (White, & Ren, (Trans.), 2012, p. 4)

In the novel, Sam is an eleven year-old boy who loves nature exploration. He goes to Canada with his father and camps every year observing animals’ lives. Camping days were the happiest time for him. The translation of this paragraph is made up by simple words and brief patterns with musical rhythms and short sentences really reflecting children’s simplicity and interests. The translation is faithful to the original work, expressive and elegant, which is totally in accordance with children’s literature translation principles. “No problems, except the problem of getting lost,” is translated as: “没有问题，除了一个问题，就是不要迷路。” “No problem” is put at the beginning of the translation and followed by “except the problem of...”. Obviously, the second part is emphasized. If this sentence is translated as “没有问题，除了迷路的问题”， it is clearly meaningful and is in accordance with the principles of Chinese language expression. However, as far as the children’s thinking and language features are concerned, the translation is absolutely perfect. The translator chooses the language in line with the children’s thinking habits and language features. With the simple words and brief sentences, the translator expresses the children’s way of thinking, which is an example of Children-Orientation Translation Theory.

Example 2:

“I don’t wish to be observed,” complained the cob. “I did not travel all this immense distance into the heart of Canada to be observed” (White, 2012, p. 208).

Translation:

“我不希望被人看”，雄天鹅抱怨道。“我飞了十万八千里来到加拿大的心脏，可不是给人看的。” (White, & Ren, (Trans.), 2012, p. 24).

When the swan couple found out that their hatching place was found out, the swan husband was very indignant. The expression “all this immense distance” refers to a remote distance and is translated as “十万八千里”， which is an abstract conception. But our Chinese children are very familiar with the term, which happens in the famous masterpiece Journey to the West, in which the Monkey King could somersault a distance of one hundred and eight thousand li. The translator uses the familiar term to express the abstract meaning and the children readers can understand it easily. From a children’s perspective, with their feeling, translators could make excellent translations based on the Children-Orientation Translation Theory.

Example 3:

“One, two, three, four, five.” Sam counted. “One, two, three, four, five, five cygnets, just as sure as am alive” (White, 2012, p. 222).
Translation:


Sam went to Canada with his father and he went to the lake to observe the swans alone. With continuous patient observation for days and his love for the little animals, when Sam saw that five cygnets had broken through their shells he was very excited. He was sure of the number of the cygnets and he said “just as sure as I am alive”, which reflects the child’s simple way of thinking. The translation is “跟我是活人一样错不了”， which is a good translation and would arouse the same reading response as in the original story. Children are sure of the things as certain as they are alive. If the expression “just as sure as I am alive” was translated as “如同我确信自己还活着,” the translation would be faithful in meaning but this expression would be for adults. So only from the children’s perspective, should the translator do the translation in the children’s language. The target readers of children literature are children whose knowledge is limited and whose minds are undeveloped. The language in the translation should not be too literary. Children are not minor adults or incomplete small persons. Although they are different from adults physically and mentally, they are complete people and they have independent lives. For the differences between adults and children and the for the target readers, the children literary translators should do their translations with the Children-Orientated Translation Theory looking at the stories through children’s eyes, listening with the children’s ears, and thinking from the children’s perspectives. This kind of translation would be popular in child readers.

Example 4:


Translation:

“多么好看啊!” 萨姆心里说, “真是好看的没命!” (White, & Ren, (Trans.), 2012, p. 27).

The swan father taught his children how to swim. Seven swans swam in a line, their father at the front and their mother at the end. The swan father bent his long neck to protect his children. Seeing this, Sam exclaimed “what a sight!” and “what a terrific sight!” In the latter sentence a word “terrific” is added to enhance the exclamation. If these sentences were translated as “多么好看啊” and “好看极了”, this would seem to translate the meaning of the two sentences, but it is actually worse than the translation of “真是好看得没命!”, which is typical children language and resonates quickly with the children readers. Children express the stuff in their eyes with simple and exaggerated language. Excellent children’s literature is full of expressive language with various sentence patterns. Translators should always put the children’s acceptance first, thinking from the children’s perspective and expressing in children’s language, which are the features of Children-Orientation Translation Theory.

Conclusion

Mr. Zhou Zuoren says, children are not reduced adults and they are independent from adults. Children’s literature should meet the target readers needs in the following aspects: content suitable for children’s growth, translation strategies acceptable to children and language styles being of children’s aesthetic requirements (Zhou, 1932). To do children’s literature translation, the translator should study children’s characteristics and do the children-centered translation from diction sentence and reproduce the children’s simplicity of the original work. The Children-Orientation Translation Theory provides successful
guidance principles. Children should enjoy themselves in the fairy tale translations with broadened views. Since children’s literature is the premier form of literature known by children, the excellent translations would not only bring up their good learning and living habits, but also add to the children’s interest in literature reading, which is good for their personality. Thus, it is good to introduce more and more excellent foreign literature and translate them with the Children-Orientation Translation Theory to reproduce children’s simplicity, enlarge their literary visions, and improve their literary accomplishments.

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Chinglish Analysis and Measures for Graduate Thesis Abstract Translation

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[Abstract] This paper empirically analyzes some forms of Chinglish in graduate abstract translation and presents some measures to uproot them. The method used in this research is corpus-based analysis, with abstracts collected from a graduate writing class of Jilin Agricultural University as the primary data. The results show that there are mainly lexical and syntactic levels of Chinese English in graduate abstract translation, and the corresponding measures proposed in this study are the training of vocabulary and syntactic structure, as well as cultivating graduates’ English thinking modes through reading authoritative literature and imitating abstract writings, followed by teacher feedback.

[Keywords] Chinglish; translation measures; graduate student’s abstract; corpus-based

Introduction
“Chinglish, of course, is that misshapen, hybrid language that is neither English nor Chinese but that might be described as English with Chinese characteristics” (Pinkham, 1998). Shen Meifang and Wang Shuozhong (2007) view Chinglish as a kind of English deformity with Chinese cultural habits interfering in vocabulary, sentence structure and discourse coherence in English communication. Therefore, Chinglish can be recognized as a kind of deformed language with Chinese characteristics of phonetics, grammar and vocabulary produced by English learners in second language acquisition environment. Having caused many inaccuracies in expressions for Chinese English learners, the use of Chinglish has a certain inevitability and it is a necessary stage for Chinese people to learn idiomatic English owing to the inherence and law of language acquisition.

In Chinese-English translation, Chinglish is mainly found in aspects of vocabulary, syntactic structure and discourse coherence. This paper aims to check on the phenomenon of Chinglish in graduate abstract translation and explore the corresponding measures to complete the transition from Chinglish to idiomatic English. It is hopeful that this study can help teachers guide graduates to translate Chinese abstracts with accuracy and effects and further strengthen graduates’ writing competency. The corpus-based research method applied in this paper is also inspirational for other translation researchers to use for reference and thus, contributes to the empirical translation study from Chinese to English.

Literature Review
From 2005 to 2015, a series of studies on the Chinglish phenomenon have been conducted in the field of Chinese-English abstract translation and some corresponding strategies for reducing the occurrence of the problem have been summarized; they are helpful to limit the misuse of Chinglish and can enhance the translators’ abstract translating competency.

Zeng Xiangmin (2007) focused on translating Chinese research paper abstracts in humanities and social sciences into English and analyzed the factors influencing the selection of translation strategies.
Qiu Daping and Liu Guangya (2012) investigated 100 papers in five categories of domestic Marine authority journals to analyze the present research situation and problems in translation of English academic thesis abstracts. Zhang Yu (2014) chose several domestic authoritative journals using sampling methods and conducted systematic analysis on the Chinglish phenomenon in the English abstract. Ruan Yamei and Zhang Pengrong (2015) discuss the typical errors in the course of scientific paper abstract translation and analyze their linguistic origins. Zhang Chao and Zou Yi (2014) analyzed the features and translation techniques of scientific papers from different angles, as well as summarizing some problems that need attention.

These researchers have reached a consensus in the significance of abstract translation from Chinese to English in that the quality of abstract is the key factor in determining whether the scientific paper can be included by an internal index systems or not. Results show that many Chinglish mistakes presented in lexical and syntactic levels exist in English abstracts; it is necessary to fully understand the linguistic and cultural differences between English and Chinese, and then apply adequate translation methods so as to reduce, and even avoid, these Chinglish mistakes and compose high-quality English abstracts.

This paper has an exceptional advantage in that all the corpus analyzed have been collected from a translation and writing class of graduate students, therefore Chinglish in their translations can be detected in time and the translation measures can be continuously optimized during the course of classroom teaching, which contributes to a dynamic researching process.

**Chinglish on the Lexical Level**

In the first place, graduate students tend to apply literal translation methods while ignoring morphological differences between Chinese and English in translation, which results in Chinglish of different word forms, commonly seen as the ignorance of the third person singular and various tenses of predicate verbs, as well as non-capitalization of initial words and the misuse of singular or plural forms of nouns, especially nouns with abstract meanings; the misuse of “the” and “a” is also commonly seen in abstract translation. The following examples are excerpted from students’ translation exercises: “Results shows that…; Hazard analysis are implemented…; The experiment investigate the cadmium content…”.

The correct expressions should be as follows: “Results show that…; Hazard analysis is implemented…; The experiment investigated the cadmium content…”.

In the second place, Chinglish often results from a lack of knowledge of English parts of speech in students’ translations. For example: “Shellfish food are harm to one’s health; Theory of biggest weekly intake of cadmium below food additive standard; The content in the investigation products…”.

The appropriate expressions should be as follows: “…shellfish foods are harmful to one’s health; Theory limit of weekly cadmium intake is below (or lower than) food additive standard; The content in the investigated products…”

A final point of Chinglish on word form originates from incomplete equivalence of Chinese and English meanings or sometimes the absence of certain words in Chinese or English context. For example: “稻秆还田” should not be translated as “rice straw were returned to the field”, which fails to illustrate the connotation of the field operation; the exact translation should be added with some explanation and should be: “return rice straw to the field as fertilizer.”
Chinglish on the Syntactic Level

English sentences are organized with hypotaxis while Chinese with parataxis, and these linguistic differences reflect people’s distinct ways of thinking in different nations. British and American people emphasize rationality and logical thinking, and thus transitional words become an indispensable linguistic tie in English sentences, while Chinese people, paying great attention to comprehension between the lines, focus on dialectical thinking. Restricted by such a thinking mode, Chinese graduate students are likely to translate a series of simple Chinese sentences into similar English counterparts without adding any collectors on the syntactic level. Therefore, Chinglish is a common occurrence in their translations while the relevant complex sentences with consistency or transitional words are relatively infrequent.

First, native English speakers usually form a complete sentence strictly with an evident subject, predicate and object, and SVO is the basic English sentence pattern with other components such as complement, attributive or adverbials applied to modify the backbones. As an invisible language, Chinese sentences are often constructed with the omission of a subject and the backbone of which sometimes is unclear to identify. Because of the remarkable difference in sentence pattern, non-subject or fragmented sentences crop up frequently in Chinese-English translations, even in formal written work, which occurs as a group of Chinglish words on the syntactic level.

In addition, English people are accustomed to distinguishing the subject and object in a sentence and forming either active or passive sentence patterns. They often use actions, not active or inanimate nouns, as subjects, thus an impersonal tendency is common in English, especially in English for science and technology. There are English expressions such as “It is believed…”, “It is necessary…”, “The supposition is…”, which are constructed to state a fact objectively. However, Chinese English learners are used to forming active sentences, although there is basically no need for any subject reference, which results in some subjective expressions such as “We think…”, “We believe…”, “I propose…”, and “The researcher aims to…”, etc.

One final point, English is different from Chinese in the respect of using ellipsis. There are many types of English ellipses including the omission of nouns and verbs, and the omission of syntax, as well as the scene. Some previously seen words in parallel English structures are often omitted while Chinese tend to repeat an identical word several times in an individual sentence.

Training of Student English Competency

According to Carl James (1998), the ultimate cause of linguistic error lies in the learner’s lack of knowledge of the target language. Therefore, it must be student English competency that finally determines the frequency of Chinglish used in abstract translations. In this case, the teacher should give priority to consolidating students’ English foundation and the following measures can be taken to improve their abstract translating competency and to avoid the use of Chinglish.

Increasing Language Input by Reading Authoritative Documentations

Reading is deemed the best way of language input; not only can it deepen the learner’s linguistic understanding and facilitate language acquisition, but it also can help the learner build up cultural awareness and accelerate knowledge accumulation, finally contributing to better performance in translating and writing work.

Fundamentally, it is the teacher’s responsibility to provide students with a search engine of premium literature, especially major-related journal papers in electronic versions, helping them obtain references they need quickly, and then to guide them to appropriately read and learn from these data. The abstracts
written in English are supposed to be the significant source for students to study and imitate, while the abstracts written both in Chinese and English can be used to make comparison differences between Chinese and English on the lexical and syntactical levels. All the types of input above are helpful for students to raise their language awareness and gradually establish a sense of written English in their minds. Meanwhile, teachers are supposed to select some typical thesis abstracts written by native English speakers as analysis examples to appreciate in class with the aim of cultivating student awareness of idiomatic abstract writings.

**Class Training of Translation Skills and Cultivation of an English Thinking Mode**

In class teaching, students should be told to be completely faithful to the contents of the original Chinese article and never use word-to-word translation skills to avoid Chinglish in an abstract translation. In other words, as translators, students should, above all, have an absolute understanding of the connotation of the individual sentence rather than stay true to the literal meaning of each word and then translate it in accordance with the original Chinese meaning as a whole. The biggest Chinglish problems most graduate students presently face are on the syntactical level, so it is the highest priority for translation teachers to expose their students to a great number of idiomatic English sentences with typical complex structures and then to analyze the syntactic characteristics of the sentences, with the aim of cultivating the students’ English thinking modes on the syntactic level; the teacher also can present some Chinese sentences selected from the abstracts of published articles and ask students to translate it in a provided class time period. This is then followed by the teacher lecturing on the Chinglish created in students’ translations and finally, offer the idiomatic English sentences for students to learn and imitate.

**After-Class Translation Work and Regular Feedback on Student Performance**

Students should be assigned some homework after accepting class instruction with the goal of consolidating their perceptions on idiomatic English. Meanwhile, teachers are expected to give feedback on student translation work to review their performance regularly and adjust their subsequent teaching plans. Teacher written feedback followed by problem analysis and summary are deemed the most efficient forms of feedback, even though carrying them out is a tough task for teachers, but it’s rewarding since students can gradually avoid using Chinese English in their later translations and ultimately establish the English sense in translation and writing work.

**Fair Use of Different Learning Tools**

Teachers should guide students to choose terminologies from authoritative dictionaries or other reliable resources. Normally, students will encounter a variety of terminologies and fixed word collocations they are unacquainted with in the exercise of abstract translation and basically it is a remarkable difficulty for them to identify which expression is the accurate one in spite of referring to a dictionary. In this case, two measures can be beneficial for students to take. One is to search the authoritative literature resources and make a comparison among different selections and finally determine the optimum one according to the use frequency of the terminology; the trick is that the higher frequency of an expression, the greater possibility of the choice. The other measure recommended by this research is to compare and study several example sentences in a dictionary over and over again to determine the best choice because only in a similar or definite context and with the same usage the most suitable word candidate can be recognized. In very few occasions students need to choose a terminology ultimately depending both on an authoritative dictionary and some reliable authentic English texts.
Conclusion
To train graduate students to uproot Chinese English in abstract translation is not a task which can be completed in a short time with ease. However, with teachers’ guidance in both obtaining learning materials and idiomatic English instruction in class, as well as providing feedback on Chinese English based on student translation exercises and their students’ gradual progress in possession of idiomatic English, it is hopeful that students can reinforce their English thinking modes and gradually reduce the frequency of using Chinese English, thus finally improving their translation competency. These methods will help students create high-quality English thesis abstracts.

References
A Study on the Translation Course for the Mongolian English Major Students in the Universities in the East Region of Inner Mongolia

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[Abstract] From the perspectives of course orientation, curriculum, textbook used and the teacher’s professional level, this thesis studies the translation issues for the Mongolian English major students in three universities of the east region of Inner Mongolia. By finding out the problems and providing strategies for improvement, it is aimed to improve the teaching and learning qualities of the translation course for the Mongolian English major students.

[Keywords] east region of Inner Mongolia; Mongolian ethnic; translation course; study

Introduction
In recent years, Mongolian students have enrolled in some universities of Inner Mongolia as English majors for the purpose of cultivating Mongolian English major talents and better serve the economic development of the minority region. However, most of the Mongolian English major graduates’ English proficiency is not good and they can not find an ideal job after graduating from the universities. Therefore, how to improve their English levels and provide high quality Mongolian English talents is an essential task for the English teachers in higher educational institutions.

As a translation teacher in the university, the author of this thesis tries to make a thorough study and analysis on the translation issues of Mongolian English majors in three universities of the east region of Inner Mongolia, namely, Inner Mongolia University for the Nationalities, Hulunbuir University and Chifeng University. After analyzing the problems and difficulties in teaching the translation course for the Mongolian English major students, the author attempts to offer reforms on the course and find out better solutions in order to improve the English proficiency of the Mongolian English major students.

Problems Existing in the Translation Course
In order to find out the problems in the translation course for the Mongolian English major students in the universities of the east region of Inner Mongolia, the author interviewed three translation teachers who were teaching translation courses for the Mongolian English major students in the three universities mentioned above. A questionnaire survey was randomly issued to 100 junior and senior Mongolian English major students; among them, 20 seniors and 30 juniors were from Chifeng University, 25 seniors from Inner Mongolia University for the Nationalities, and 25 seniors from Hulunbuir University. The survey targets were focused on course orientation, curriculum, textbook and the teacher’s professional level. After making a careful analysis and study on the materials obtained from the interview and survey, the following problems have been found in the translation courses for the Mongolian English major students in the universities mentioned above.

First, the course orientation is unclear. The translation course is a compulsory professional course to cultivate the student’s ability in language output and translation. From the investigation, it was found that the students are unable to make a clear orientation on this course. When asked about the relationship
among the courses of English listening comprehension, spoken English, English reading, English writing and translation, 80% of the surveyed students are able to see there is a direct proportion among them, however, most of the surveyed students can not find the difference among the five courses. Just slightly more than half, 54%, of the surveyed students prefer to find a job relating to translation after graduation, but they are not confident they can do it well because of their poor translation abilities.

Second, the translation class time is not long enough. The translation course for the Mongolian English major students are taught in the third school year. Translation from English into Chinese is taught in the first semester, and English from Chinese into English in the second semester, altogether 72 classes. According to the surveyed teachers, in order to finish the teaching task, the translation classes are filled with teaching of translation theories, translation skills and translation examples, so there is less class time for students to practice translation because the translation class time is too tight for them, given so much teaching content.

Third, the translation textbooks are too difficult for the students to understand. Translation textbooks used by the Mongolian English major students in the surveyed universities are National Planned Textbooks for “Eleventh Five-Year”, which was compiled mainly for the normal English major students. Because most of the Mongolian students’ Chinese and English levels are lower, it is difficult for them to understand the contents of the translation textbooks; 70% of the surveyed students said the textbooks they used are too difficult for them to learn. They still have difficulty understanding original Chinese, let alone translating it into English. Other students found the translation materials stray too far away from their real life and do not inspire their learning interest. According to the surveyed teachers, the translation textbooks are better for the normal English major students and are difficult for the Mongolian English major students to learn.

Fourth, the translation teacher’s professional level should be improved. The translation teachers for Mongolian English major students are bachelors of English majors, however, most of them haven’t received professional translation training and usually lack experience in translation and interpretation practice. The majority of the surveyed students said that their teachers’ teaching contents are focused on the contents of the textbooks, which is tiring for them, to some degree, and the teaching methods are rigid which do not inspire their learning interest.

Suggestions on the Reform of the Translation Course
According to the analysis and study above, the following suggestions are given for the purpose of improving the teaching and the Mongolian English major students’ English proficiency and translation abilities.

Clear Orientation on the Translation Course
The translation course orientation should be made clear for the sake of improving the student’s language performance. According to The Syllabus for the English Major in Higher Schools issued in 2000 by the English Team of English Major Educational Directory Committee for China’s Higher Schools, the English talents in the 21st century should possess the following five features: good basic language skills, extensive knowledge, enough professional knowledge, better personal ability and good quality. Good basic language skills means: correct English pronunciation and intonation; normative morphology, sentence and text structure; being skillful in English listening, speaking, reading and writing; and higher ability of English integrated application (ETEMEDCCHS, 2000). The ability for English integrated
application is an ability to comprehensively utilize the knowledge of the English language in English listening, speaking, reading, writing and translating. However, one’s translation ability can embody his abilities of English listening, speaking, reading and writing. Students’ translation abilities embody their abilities of commanding a foreign language comprehensively (Wang, 2008).

The translation course is neither like such courses as listening and reading, which belong to language input, nor like the courses that include speaking and writing, which are simple language outputs; it is a course to transmit the original language into the target language correctly and faithfully after the translator has a good understanding, processing and expressing. Therefore, both the translation teachers and students should realize the importance of the course. The teacher should clarify the teaching targets of the course and create a syllabus in order to improve the teaching qualities. The students should attach more importance to this course for the sake of enhancing their English integrated performance.

**Increase in Translation Class Time**

The number of translation classes should be increased. In her essay titled *Output-driven Hypothesis and a Reform on Professional Skill Curriculum of English Major*, Professor Wen Qiufang (2008) says, “In order to enhance the expressive ability of the students, we must make a reform on the professional skilled curriculum of the existing English major.” She suggests that a translation course and interpretation course should be given to the English major students from the second school year to the fourth school year. In each school year, translation from English into Chinese is taught in the first semester, translation from Chinese into English in the second semester. The translation course and interpretation course are 2 credits respectively, or 24 credits for the two courses over the three school years, which is much more than the credit for the two courses that the English major students receive in most of the universities (Latan, et al, 2010).

Considering the Mongolian students’ language proficiency and ability, one of the reform suggestions is that the translation class should be increased from two class hours to at least four classes. Only in this way, the teacher can have enough time to teach professional knowledge such as translation theories, translation skills, and translation examples analyzing and commenting. They will also have enough time to teach applied style translation including science and technology, legal English, commerce English, tourism English and Journalism and so on, which are very useful for the students in their future work on translation. Moreover, the students will have more opportunities to practice translation in class and improve their translation abilities and English proficiency.

**Reselection of Textbooks**

Krashen’s “Input Hypothesis” in the second language acquisition research has enjoyed a good reputation in the past years. Krashen (1985) believes that a person’s language skills are mainly acquired through the acquisition channels. “The second language acquisition is in a natural language environment, the learner’s access to a large degree is slightly above their current level of comprehensible language input (Comprehensive input) acquisition of a natural language”. According to this theory, if the language input is much higher than the learner’s existing proficiency, they will lose interest in it. In this case, it is difficult for them to understand and acquire the knowledge being taught. This input is nonsense.

Therefore, when selecting textbooks for the Mongolian English major students, their English proficiency should be considered and the textbooks selected should be not difficult for them to learn so that their learning interest can be fully inspired. Another suggestion is that the translation teachers can
form a research team and compile translation books for the Mongolian students. The benefit of this is that the teaching materials could be interesting and better suited for the student’s proficiency and the teacher can improve their teaching and research abilities.

**Improvement of Translation Teachers’ Professional abilities**

An old saying goes that a famous teacher cultivates excellent students. In order to enhance the Mongolian English major students’ translation abilities, their translation teachers should be professional in this field. The ideal teacher for them should be the translation teacher who knows both Chinese and Mongolian, which can make the translation class easier for the students to follow. Translation teachers should not only be professional in translation teaching and practice, but able to utilize teaching methods including the internet, computer aided translation, and corpus, etc. Nowadays, “it is not the discussion focus in Western countries whether translation techniques teaching should be included in translation education, what to be focused in their discussion is how to integrate modern technologies and translation effectively” (Xiao, 2011). In a word, the improvement of translation teachers’ professional abilities is essential to enhance the quality of translation classes.

**Conclusion**

Translation ability embodies a learner’s foreign language acquisition ability comprehensively. A student’s translation level not only reflects the teaching quality of the teacher, but also decides whether he could be competent in future jobs on translation. After making the survey and study on the Mongolian English major in three universities in the east region of Inner Mongolia, it is obvious that a reform should be made for the Mongolian English major in this region. It is hoped that this paper will be useful for the coming reforms and studies on this topic.

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Appendix

Questionnaire

As a college student of English major, you know that the translation course is the major compulsory course. Please find the best answer for each of the following questions according to your experience of studying this subject. You can write your answers on the lines if you cannot find the best one from the given answers. Thank you for your cooperation.

1. In your opinion, what’s the relationship between the translation ability and the ability acquired in the subjects including English listening, English speaking, English reading and English writing?
   A. In direct proportion     B. Little relation     C. No relation     D. _________________

2. As an English major graduate, what your ideal job?
   A. Jobs relating to business and translation     B. As an English teacher     C. Other occupations     D. _________________

3. What’s your opinion on the translation textbooks used in your translation class?
   A. More difficult     B. Difficult     C. Easier     D. _________________

4. In your opinion, what’s the ideal translation textbook for the Mongolian English majors?
   A. Textbooks interpreted by Mongolian language.     B. Textbooks edited in Chinese     C. Textbooks edited in English     D. _________________

5. What would you like the teacher to teach in the translation class?
   A. Both translation theories and translation practice, the two combined together;
   B. Both translation theories and translation practice and put the former in priority;
   C. Just teach translation practice, do not teach translation theories.
   D. _________________

6. You think that the translation teacher should be:
   A. The one who can speak Mongolian language, an expert in translation theories and translation practice.
   B. The one who is an expert in translation theories and translation practice;
   C. The one who can teach
   D. _________________

7. Your other suggestions on the translation course for the Mongolian English major students include


The Translation of Children’s Literature:
A Case Study on the Chinese Version Of The Berenstain Bears Series,
Based on the Theory of Function Plus Loyalty

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[Abstract] Nord’s Function Plus Loyalty theory is a supplement and improvement of functionalist approaches, and under this framework, this thesis is intended to investigate the Chinese translation of children’s literature with The Berenstain Bears series as an example. This thesis presents a tentative research on translation of children’s literature. Hopefully, it may be helpful for further research on children’s literature translation and the application of the Theory of Function Plus Loyalty.

[Keywords] children’s literature translation; function plus loyalty; case study

Introduction
The Berenstain Bears series, created by the husband and wife team of Stan and Jan Berenstain over half a century ago, have turned out to be one of the best children’s literary works. The Chinese translations of The Berenstain Bears series by Sun Zhifang and Zhang Deqi were published by Xinjiang Juvenile Publishing House for the first time in 2004, and so far they are the only editions in China. Since it was introduced into China, it has caused a reading fever among children and their parents. Since the study of children’s literature translation has stayed on the edge of the academic field for so many years, this thesis is intended to study the Chinese translations of children’s literature with The Berenstain Bears series as a case, based on Nord’s Function Plus Loyalty Theory (Nord, 1991). By applying Nord’s theory to the case study, the thesis aims to analyze the specific Chinese translations of English children’s literature.

This thesis takes descriptive research and close reading of the source and target versions as the basic methods. The translation characteristics and strategies are analyzed in light of function and loyalty. Specific examples are given and discussed in the research. This thesis consists of six sections. The Introduction presents the aims, methodology and the structure of this thesis. The next section is the Literature Review. The section after presents the theoretical framework of this research, Nord’s function plus loyalty. After this is the section that analyzes the translation principles and strategies of the Chinese version in the light of function theory. Section 5 uses Nord’s loyalty theory to analyze the Chinese translation of The Berenstain Bears series, and the last section is the conclusion.

Literature Review

Research on the Translation of Children’s Literature
The data found in cnki.net suggest that Chinese children’s literature translation studies have mainly focused on translation from a historical perspective, as well as translators, and the study of translation strategies and techniques (Cnki.net, 2014). As for the strategies and techniques, many theories from abroad have been introduced into the study of children’s literature translation. Translation scholars have carried out their studies from the perspective of reception aesthetics, Skopos theory, relevance theory, and
translator’s subjectivities (Cnki.net, 2014). New research methods in translation studies still have the potential to offer new insights into the translation of children’s literature.

**Research on The Berenstain Bears Series**
The Berenstain Bears were created by the husband and wife team of Stan and Jan Berenstain. The 52nd anniversary of the first Berenstain Bears book occurred in 2014. There have been over 300 Berenstain Bears books published in 23 languages worldwide. More than 250 million copies of Berenstain Bears books have been sold (Berenstain Enterprises, 2014). Since it was translated into Chinese and introduced to China, it has caused a reading fever among children and their parents. It is the first time that the Berenstain Bears were translated into Chinese by several translators.

**Research on the Theory of Function Plus Loyalty**
In the early 1970s, a new modern translation theory sprang up in Germany known as the functionalist approach (Nord, 1997). The most famous representatives of the functional school include German scholars Katharina Reiss, Hans J. Vermeer, Justa Holz-Manttari, and Christine Nord. The functional school believes that translating is an intentional interaction, an interpersonal interaction, and a communicative action that is determined by a complex load of purposes and functions (Nord, 1997, pp. 19-23). Functionalist approaches were widely accepted and applied to solve many problems in translation, but they were also criticized by many scholars in that the functional theory was not an omnipotent theory and it gave the translators too much freedom to manipulate the target text in order to satisfy certain purposes, which deprived the faithfulness to the source text. In order to balance too much flexibility of the translators and their faithfulness to the source text, Christine Nord, put forward a new theory called “Function Plus Loyalty”, which is featured by purpose as a general principle in translation, loyalty to the three parties of the translating interaction, helping to get rid of the bondage of equivalence theory, and paving a new road for the study of translation theories and practices for the world of the translation field (Nord, 1997).

**Theoretical Framework**
Nord’s Function Plus Loyalty works as a balanced theory between the Skopos rule and loyalty rule, and the combination of these two rules are an improvement of the functionalist approaches. Function refers to the factors that make a target text work in the intended way in the target situation (Nord, 1997, p. 126). Nord’s function theory is the continuation and improvement of the theory proposed by the three representatives of the functional school mentioned above. According to Vermeer’s Skopos theory, the methods and strategies used by the translator are determined by the purpose of the translation, based on the target text culture. Skopos theory seemed radical and caused criticism by the other translation schools. In order to respond to the challenge of functionalism, Nord proposed the loyalty principle to supplement the deficiencies of the function theory.

Loyalty refers to the interpersonal relationship between the translator, the source-text sender (the original author), the target-text addressees (the target-text reader), and the initiator of the translational action. The translator should be responsible to both original text and target text, as well as to the original writer, the initiator, and the target text reader (Nord, 1997, p. 126). The responsibility of the translator mentioned by Nord is called loyalty. It covers the following three aspects:
Loyalty to the original author. Loyalty means that the purpose of the target text should follow the intentions of the original author. It is the right thing for the translator to respect the author’s intention in their translation.

Loyalty to the initiator. The initiator is a person who gives the translation commission to the translator and acts as the client of the translator. In order to be loyal to the initiator, it is important to have a clear idea of the translation commission.

Loyalty to the target reader. Loyalty to the target reader is what Nord advocates in her function theory. According to Skopostheorie, the most important factor to decide the purpose of translation is the recipient – the intended target reader. It does not mean that translators should always do what readers expect. Yet there is a moral responsibility not to cheat them (cf. Nord 1991, p. 94f).

The Translation Analyzed from the Perspective of Function

The Translation Principles
A literary text has a function of producing a certain poetic or aesthetic effect and this function may affect the interaction between the writer and reader (Nord, 1997, p. 82). The greatest function of children’s literature is to amuse children, to exert a gradual, uplifting and unconscious influence during their reading process and help them to develop good reading habits. Therefore, children’s literature must be educational, vivid, and knowledgeable. The translator must take all of these characteristics into consideration and realize the function of the original text in the target text.

The translations of the Berenstain Bears into Chinese were created mainly by Zhang Deqi, Sun Zhifang, Yu Lingyan, and Mao Rui among others. Their translations all follow the same principle – translating for children. Compared with adult literature, children’s literature has some distinctive features in its language which can be summed up as vividness, conciseness, and musicality.

Vividness
Vividness can be achieved by using a lot of figures of speech, such as similes, metaphors, personifications, and hyperboles, and through these, children can get an effective absorption of the content and the strangeness can be familiarized and understood easily by children. Please see the following examples:

(1) She burst into a fresh fountain of tears (The Berenstain Bears series: Computer Trouble, 2011, p. 4).

The Chinese translation:
她的眼泪就像喷泉一样涌了出来 (Sun, 2011, p. 4).

(2) Then Mama usually said, “Please, Sister! I’ve heard quite enough about Lizzy’s Barbie collection!” (The Berenstain Bears series: Count Their Blessings, 2004, p. 2).

The Chinese translation:
这时，熊妈妈总是说：“行了，孩子！我耳朵都听出老茧了” (Zhang, 2004, p. 2).

Conciseness
Good children’s literary work should feature catchy and amiable colloquial words, as well as moderate-length sentences. The translators of The Berenstain Bears tried to choose expressive words and sentences to present us with lucid and lively language in their translation.
Colloquialism.

(3) There is an old saying that goes, “There’ll always be a couple of bad apples in every barrel.” That’s the way it is with strangers. Cubs have to be careful because of the few ‘bad apples’ (The Berenstain Bears series: Learn About Strangers, 2004, p. 9).

The Chinese translation:

有句谚语说得好: “每桶苹果中总有几个坏的。”陌生人也是这样。正因为陌生人中也会有坏蛋，你们就得格外小心 (Zhang, 2004, p. 9)

Short sentences.

(4) It was one of those days in Bear Country when everything was going so well, you just knew that any minute something was bound to go wrong (The Berenstain Bears series: Double Dare, 2004, p. 1).

The Chinese translation:

一天，在熊王国里，和往常一样，一切都按部就班，井井有条。但世上的事总是这样，风平浪静的日子里，不知什么时候就会兴起波澜 (Zhang, 2004, p. 1).

Musicality

“The single most important activity for building the knowledge required for eventual success in reading is reading aloud to children” (Anderson, Hiebert, & Scott, 1985, p. 23). Because some of children’s reading is completed with the aid of their parents who will read stories aloud to their kids, the translator should contribute in every way possible to the aloud-reader’s enjoyment of the story. The translators used onomatopoeia, rhyme, parallelism and reduplication.

(5) Beds got made – more or less. Meals got served – sort of (The Berenstain Bears series: The trouble with chores, 2008, p. 10).

The Chinese translation:

床铺好了一马马虎虎；饭做好了一凑凑合合 (Sun, 2008, 10).

(6) After a few tight spots and a few wrong turns, they were in the rich green forest of the valley. And look at that rich brown soil! (The Berenstain Bears series: Moving Day, 2004, p. 9).

The Chinese translation:

一路坑坑洼洼，费了不少劲儿，终于到达了山谷。这里有大片郁郁葱葱的森林。瞧这块黑油油的土地！(Zhang, 2004, p. 9).

The Translation Analyzed from the Perspective of Loyalty

Loyalty to the Original Author

To achieve loyalty to the original author, the translator should be faithful to the original text, and try to keep the original taste and flavor in every aspect, including language expression, genre, and rhetoric style, etc. Foreignization is an important translation strategy, which is source-text-oriented and an indication of loyalty to the original author. The use of foreignization will undoubtedly bring an exotic touch to the Chinese children readers and enrich their vocabulary of borrowed words.
We’re going to have a Valentine party with punch and cookies (The Berenstain Bears series: Funny Valentine, 2009, p. 5).

The Chinese translation:
我们要举办一场情人节派对，有潘趣酒和小点心 (Xu, 2009, p. 5).

Loyalty to the Initiator
According to Oittinen, “collaboration with publishers is a key to progress in the field of translation, not only to improve translation in practice but also to further research on translation” (Oittinen, 2000, p. 205). The only way to be loyal to the initiator is to produce good-quality translation. As far as children’s literature is concerned, a good-quality literary work should be educational and readable so as to satisfy the initiator’s demands on the translators.

In the translated version of The Berenstain Bears, the translators chose Chinese words carefully and translated the common English words into four-character Chinese idioms. The profound meanings of idioms reflect the great essence of Chinese language. Idioms express a lively image and strengthen the rhetorical effect in writing; what’s more, the use of idioms in one’s speech and writing reveals a person’s literary talent. Reading a book containing many idioms helps improve their Chinese.

Readability is treated as a quality of texts, although a text actually has no inherent degree of readability, because readability varies in accordance with the capabilities of readers and the features of reading situations (Puurtinen, 1998). There are some examples of diversity of wording in the Chinese version so as to provide the readers with vivid translation by avoiding repetition and dullness.

Loyalty to the Target Reader
When translating children’s literature, domestication is used more often than foreignization. Domesticating plays an important role in translating for children readers because their reception level is relatively low. Domestication can provide readers with what they are familiar with.

It was a covered-dish supper, and Mrs. Panda’s barbecued bamboo shoots were the hit of the evening (The Berenstain Bears series: New Neighbors, 2004, p. 15).

The Chinese translation:
这是个自带菜肴的晚宴，熊猫太太做的烤竹笋是那天晚上最受欢迎的一道菜 (Zhang, 2004, p. 15).

Conclusion
By applying Nord’s Function Plus Loyalty theory to the case study, the author obtained the following findings: First, the language in the Chinese translation is characterized by vividness, conciseness, and musicality, which increase the readability of children’s literature and attraction to the readers. Second, Nord’s Function Plus Loyalty theory is helpful to solve the concrete translation problems in children’s literature translation. Third, the author of this paper analyzed Nord’s loyalty theory from the initiator’s perspective, which is often neglected by other translation theorists. Hopefully, it will start a new field in translation studies.

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References


Travel and Translation of “Tao” in the Western World

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[Abstract] As a canonized term in Taoism, “Tao” represents Laozi’s core view and idea on human beings and nature. Traveling from the East to the West, “Tao” experienced transformation and manipulation in the Western culture and religion. Being translated from Chinese to English, “Tao” experienced various influences of translators’ ideologies and personal backgrounds. This paper aims at collecting the variations of “Tao” in the traveling of Tao Te Ching in the Western world and the influential factors of “Tao” translation, unveiling the canonization of “Tao” in the foreign culture.

[Keywords] Tao; travel; translation; Tao Te Ching

Introduction
Over the past three centuries since 1868 when John Chalmers published The Speculations on Metaphysics, Polity and Morality of “the Old Philosopher” – Lao-Tsze in London, English translations of Tao Te Ching has exceeded one hundred and eighty versions in the west. A number of new translations are published every year (Yang, 2013). In each translation, the translator devotes great effort to the introduction and explanation of Lao-Tsze’s philosophical system, in which the core idea of Tao is mostly attractive in terms of semantic transformation and translation approach. In traditional Chinese philosophy, Tao is the representative culture concept which serves as the foundation of Taoism and receives diversified understandings in the west. Foreign translators always adopt a thick translation strategy in dealing with the comprehensive connotation of the culture-loaded term and idea. This paper aims to explore varied understanding of the core term “Tao” through studying various versions of Tao Te Ching in the English world, which can provide an opportunity to go into the translation process, as well as the traveling experience of Laozi’s ideas in foreign culture.

The “Tao” Defined as Zero Equivalent in English
In 1868, Chalmers published The Speculations on Metaphysics, Polity and Morality of “the Old Philosopher”– Lao-Tsze. In the Introduction, he thought it better to leave the word Tau untranslated, both because it was a given name to the sect – the Tauists – and because no English word was its exact equivalent. “Three terms suggest themselves – the Way, the Reason, and the Word – but they are all liable to objection. Were we guided by etymology, ‘the Way’ would come nearest to the original, and in one or two passages the idea of a way seems to be in the terms, but this is too materialistic to serve the purpose of a translation. ‘Reason’ again seems to be more like a quality or attribute of some conscious being than Tau is” (Chalmers, 1868, p. vii). In terms of Logos, Chalmers prefers to use “the Word” that has some qualities or characteristics more than “Tau”.

In Taoist Text, Ethical, Political and Speculative, Frederic Henry Balfour explained, “That the character Tao may be properly translated ‘reason’ in certain instance, I do not deny. That it approaches the idea of in the Johannine sense of the word appears generally allowed. For the rendering of it by ‘way’ there are both etymological and philosophical recommendations which may not be overlooked” (Balfour, 1884, pp. I-II). However, Balfour thought the two translations couldn’t touch the deep meaning of ‘Tao’. “To put
it algebraically, Tao is the x, or unknown quantity that we have to find. And the first thing to be done is to see what is predicated of this mysterious Thing – how it is described, with what attributes it is credited, where it is to be found, whence it sprang, how it exists, and what its functions are. Then we may find ourselves in a position to discover what it is that answers to these particulars, and profanely to give a name to that which its preachers themselves declared must be forever nameless” (Balfour, 1884, pp. I-II).

The Texts of Taoism translated by James Legge was edited in the series of Sacred Books of the East by Muller, the founder of the study of religion in the west. In the 44-page Introduction, Legge extensively explores Tao The King. Although he occasionally uses “Way” or “Method” to explain “Great Tao” in annotation, he does not use any ready concept, but only “the Tao” in translation just as he said, “The best way of dealing with it in translating is to transfer it to the version, instead of trying to introduce an English equivalent for it” (Legge, 1879, p. 61).

The “Tao” Translated as God
In Lao Tsze: The Great Thinker: With a Translation of His Thoughts on the Nature and Manifestations of God, G. Alexander (1895) explained, “it is hardly possible to avoid the conclusion that Lao-tzse’s great object was to reestablish a belief in the great traditionary First Cause, known and worshipped in primitive times under the name of Tao; a belief which had gradually become weakened and obscured” (Alexander, 1895, p. x). In his translation, instead of using the word “Tao” for the concept, he translated it into “God” and interpreted that he has made deep thinking even though he might be seriously criticized. He felt, “…forms the keynote, not only to a portion, but to the whole of Lao-tzse’s thought” (Alexander, 1895, p. xii). To prove the reasonability of “God” in his translation, he reviewed Von Strauss’s twenty-six interpretations: such as Tao existed as a perfect but incomprehensive Being, before Heaven and earth were created (Chap. 25); immaterial and immeasurable (Chap. 4); invisible and inaudible, mysterious yet manifest, without shape or form (Chap. 14); supersensuous and hidden from our eyes (Chaps. 25, 41); the eternal foundation of all things (Chap. 1); the universal progenitor of all beings (Chap. 4), etc. Therefore, he concluded, “We believe that any impartial person who might be asked, what word in our language would best apply to the Being of whom all his can be said, would be compelled to answer, ‘by the word God, and by none other!’” (Alexander, 1895, p. xiii). For example:

1. “道可道，非常道；名可名，非常名。”
   God (the great everlasting infinite First Cause from whom all things in heaven and earth proceed) can neither be defined nor named… (Alexander, 1895, p. 55)

2. “道冲而用之，或不盈，渊兮似万物之宗。”
   God is immaterial, and it is out of the immaterial that he has created all things (Alexander, 1895, p. 58)

3. “天乃道，道乃久，没身不殆。”
   And what is Heaven-like comes most near to God: he who is God-like has eternal life (Alexander, 1895, p. 66).

4. “天法道，道法自然。”
   …yet one and both come from God, the great Source and Center of all Law (Alexander, 1895, p. 74).

Likewise, Paul Carus also shared the same understanding in the Canon of Reason and Virtue: Being Lao-tze’s Tao Te King. He points out that “Lao-tze’s Tao The King contains so many surprising analogies with Christian thought and sentiment, that were its pre-Christian origin not established beyond the shadow
of a doubt, one would be inclined to discover in it traces of Christian influence. Not only does the term Tao (word, reason) correspond quite closely to the Greek term Logos, but Lao-tze preaches the ethics of requiting hatred with goodness” (Carus, 1898, p. 8). First, he explains the ‘Tao’ in terms of lexicon. The character tao being composed of the characters ‘moving on’ and ‘head’, depicts a ‘going ahead’. Tao comes to possess the meaning of ‘rational speech’ or ‘word’, and in this sense it closely resembles the Greek Logos, for in addition to its philosophical significance, the term Tao touches a religious chord in the souls of the Chinese just as did the word Logos among the Platonists and the Greek Christians. Secondly, Tao has the meaning of “principle”, “rationality” or “reason” and “truth”. Although ‘Tao’, as an abstract philosophy concept is incompatible with the belief of God, Lao-tze repeatedly mentions the God. For example, Lao-tze matches the Tao with God in the fourth chapter claiming the Tao as “the arch-father of the ten thousand things” and “the Lord”. Likewise, Lao-tze also sees the Tao as “the ancestor of words” and “the master of deeds” in the seventieth chapter; “the mother of all things under the heaven” in the fifty-second chapter; “the great carpenter who hews” in the seventy-fourth chapter. “All these passages are figures of speech, but are not the Christian ideas of God as Lord, as a father, as an architect, also allegories?” (Carus, 1898, p. 22).

The “Tao” Understood as the Womb of “Ten Thousand Things”

In the Introduction of Te-Tao Ching: A New Translation Based on the Recent Discovered Ma-wang-tui Texts, Robert G. Henricks (1989) pointed out that interpreting Lao-tze’s philosophy basically relies on understanding the Tao that he named for the ultimate truth. “For Lao-tzu the Way is that reality, or that level of reality, that existed prior to and gave rise to all other things, the physical universe, and all things in it, what the Chinese call the “ten thousand things” (wan-wu). The Way in a sense is like a great womb” (Henricks, 1989, p. xviii). Henricks makes an analogy that works well in helping the reader see exactly what kind of thing the Tao is and how it works. In the analogy, the Tao resembles an untended and uncared-for field, and the varieties of wildflowers that grow in such a field represent the ten thousand things. Were you to go to such a field in the winter, you would see only brown soil or white snow. The field appears to be one in essence, undifferentiated, and “empty” of all forms of life. Nonetheless, should you return to that field in May or June, you would discover that a marvelous transformation had occurred, the field now being filled with all kinds of wildflowers. There are, as it were, “ten thousand” different varieties of flowers, with each species and each individual in each of the species being somehow unique in color and shape. And you now know that what had appeared to be devoid of life in the winter was, in fact, a very fecund womb, containing within itself in its oneness the seeds and roots of all different things. Henrick also stresses that the work of the field does not end with springtime creation. For the field continues throughout the summer to care for and nourish each of its “children”, we supply it with the water and nutriments that are vital for life. And in this nurturing work, the field cares for all of the flowers without discrimination, and it takes no credit for all that it does.

The “Tao” Thought as a Graphic Synonym for Heaven

In Dao De Jing: The Book of the Way, Moss Robert (2001) makes a specific explanation to “De”, “Dao” and “Tian”. In terms of “Dao”, Robert points out that Dao is not a mysterious or metaphysical word. It commonly means roadway and by extension, method, and in philosophy, the path or teachings (or truths) that followers of a particular school adhere to. The Dao De Jing universalizes these definitions of Dao to the general truth that there is a course all things follow and a force that guides them on it. He also makes
analysis on the basis of etymology. “The components of the graph for Dao – advancing footsteps to the left of shou (head) – visually suggests ‘chief agency’ or ‘moving first mover’. Whether Dao is common or transcendent, something to walk upon or something higher than heaven itself – or both – is an ambiguity that informs the *Dao De Jing*. Dao and de are highlighted as a walking pair in the opening lines of Stanza 21, in which de is described as attending or serving (cong) the Way – but in easy companionship (cong-rong), not as master and vassal (alone, cong means walking behind)” (Roberts, 2001, p. 19). What’s more, Robert makes a connection between Dao and Tian. In a graph, Dao strikingly reconfigures the same two elements that constitute tian (heaven). “Heaven” is written with human legs, shortened arms, and an emphasized head. The head is represented by a flat line in modern graphs but by a circle in earlier forms. Dao consists of the same two elements: walking legs on the left, head on the right (not as a round skull but rather metonymically by shou, an eye under an eyebrow). Thus, Dao may be thought of as a graphic synonym for heaven, but in a form that somewhat conceals the anthropomorphism. The Chinese words for Great One (taiyi) are also a deconstruction of the graph for heaven into two sequent graphs.

**The “Tao” Paraphrased as the Way of Self-Cultivation**

In the 84-page Introduction of *The Way and its Power: A Study of the Tao Te Ching and its Place in Chinese Thought* published in 1934, Arthur Waley wrote that the “Tao” philosophically is concerned more about self-development and self-cultivation fulfilled by the “Actionless” and “Void and Quietness” promoted in Taoism. The capitalized “Way” refers to the method, road and approach of human living in this world. Likewise, Jacob Needleman pointed out in the “Introduction” of *Tao Te Ching* with the introduction and notes by Gia-Fu Feng and Jane English, “Metaphysically, the term Tao refers to the way things are; psychologically, it refers to the way human nature is constituted, the deep, dynamic structure of our being; ethically, it means the way human beings must conduct themselves with others; spiritually, it refers to the guidance that is offered to us, the methods of searching for the truth that have been handed down by the great sages of the past – the way of inner work. Yet all these meanings of Tao are ultimately one” (Feng & English, 1972, p. viii). It is clearly seen that “Tao” here is not the “Way” of the universe and nature, but the “Way” of self-cultivation.

**Conclusion**

Through the study of the different comprehension and translation approaches of Tao in the English world, we see that the core idea of Taoism has had a great influence on western religion and ideology. The specialized translation of Tao reveals the translator’s view on the Taoism system and core concepts. It also shows that each translated version of Tao Teching is not exactly what Laoze really wanted to say, but instead what the western translator feels Laotze is saying. As for western readers, it’s hard to evaluate the value of these translations. The only way to approach Tao and Laotze’s thoughts lies in the comprehensive understanding of the ancient Chinese culture and social development which gave birth to Laotze’s philosophy.

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Two Paradigms of Gender and Translation Studies: Reasons for Insufficient Studies on the Second Paradigm in China

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[Abstract] While gender studies caught scholars’ attentions worldwide, studies of gender and translation seem to lose their interests in the Chinese context from the observation of the statistics. By introducing the two paradigms of gender and translation studies, this paper focuses on analyzing the reasons for insufficient studies on the second paradigm, both theoretically and practically. It concludes with possible approaches and perspectives to further the study of the second paradigm.

[Keywords] two paradigms of gender and translation studies; the second paradigm; Judith Butler; performativity; China

Introduction
In 1949, Simone de Beauvoir wrote the famous “on ne naît pas femme, on le deviant,” and it was translated by E. M. Parshley in 1953 as “one is not born, but rather becomes a woman” (as cited in Flotow, 1997/2004, p. 5). Approximately twenty years later, in the middle to late 1960s, a series of feminists’ movements raised all kinds of issues, especially about the social constructions of women. The notion of gender appeared and evolved, as noted by Flotow (1997/2004), who said “gender is used to designate the social-cultural attitudes that go with biological sex. Such attitudes and behaviors are acquired as girls and boys grow up. It originally focused on male and female gender, but is now being blurred to incorporate other sexual orientations” (p.100). As research of feminism and translation continued, more scholars (Godard, 1990; Simon, 1996; Flotow, 1997/2004) preferred to call this subfield as gender and translation studies rather than feminist translation theory in the hope of deconstructing the notion of gender duality, and they tended to pay more attention to studies of other sexual orientations. This paper first introduces the current situation of studies on gender and translation as a subfield in China. Second, it identifies two paradigms of gender and translation studies. Third, by closely examining the theoretic framework (Judith Butler’s theory) and possible applications of the second paradigm, it analyzes the reasons for insufficient studies on the second paradigm here in China. Finally, it provides possible approaches and perspectives on studies of the second paradigm.

The Current Situation of Studies on Gender and Translation in China
It has been more than fifteen years since feminist translation theory was first introduced to China. According to Mu (2008), in 1999, Xie Tianzhen first noticed the biological sex of the translator was a major factor that could affect the translation process (p. 18). Since then, research concerning feminist translation theory and studies of gender and translation has popped up. As a preliminary and exploratory attempt, a general search has been done based on the China National Knowledge Infrastructure (CNKI) database. CNKI was created in 1999 under its previous name, China Academic Journals, by Tsinghua Tongfang’s Knowledge Network Technology Company (CNKI, 2015). It has been the database most accessed by Chinese universities and academic research institutions nationwide since then. It includes the
major Chinese academic search engine, the Chinese Social Science Citation Index (CSSCI). This data collection searched the CNKI across a 17-year period, from 1999 to 2015 using the key words “feminist translation; gender and translation” on June 19th, 2015. The result shows a total of 412 original articles pertaining to any aspect of feminist translation and studies of gender and translation that were published in over 60 different journals. As we can see from Figure 1, from 1999 to 2003, only ten articles were published introducing feminist translation theory. The number began to increase steadily year by year from 2004 to 2012. In 2013, the number of articles published concerning this topic dropped to half the number in 2012. In 2014, ten articles were found, while from January 1st to June 19th, 2015, no article was published concerning this topic.

![Graph showing articles published each year concerning gender and translation studies]

**Figure 1. Articles Published Each Year Concerning Gender and Translation Studies**

Among these articles, over 99% of them made contributions to the first paradigm. For example, Liao (2002) pointed out that applying the paradigm of feminist studies to translation studies could help us better understand the nature of cultural mediation of translation. Zhang (2004) elaborated the contributions and limitations of feminist translation theory. Jiang (2004) explored the influence feminism exerted on translation theories since the 1980s, arguing that there was an increase of feminist influence. However, fewer articles contributed to the second paradigm. Based on the search, only one article was found concerning the studies of the second paradigm, and it rested on the stage of theory importation without a bridge connecting practices and context. Li (2013)’s analysis of the second paradigm, which she called “the performance paradigm,” made progress in introducing this second paradigm of gender and translation studies to Chinese readers. Still, introducing a foreign theory can be seen as an intercultural activity, and this imported theory needs to be connected with the Chinese context. So, research on the second paradigm is still insufficient in China.

**Two Paradigms of Gender and Translation Studies**

The origin of these two paradigms dated back to 1997, when Luise Von Flotow noticed the varying branches of gender studies and their possible influences on translation studies. As noted by Flotow (1997; 2004), the term gender was developed in the late 1960s and early 1970s in the interests of examining and understanding women’s socialized difference from men and their concomitant cultural and political powerlessness. Then, in the 1990s, gender studies have been examining the construction of male attributes and attitudes that are typical of certain societies and cultures at specific historical moments. Most importantly, approaches that criticized gender duality emerged in the 1990s (Flotow, 2004, pp. 5-6). Ten years later, Flotow (2007) pointed out that “most publications bringing together gender issues and translation have subscribed to this first paradigm – the notion of gender as a set of characteristics and
behaviors imposed by society, as a construct that forms an individual and according to which that individual identifies” (Flotow, 2007, p. 93).

Therefore, studies of this first paradigm tend to focus on the situation of women as a special minority group within a patriarchal society that has been subject to usually biased treatment, just as the situation of translation, which is considered to be subordinate of the original. Again, according to Flotow (2007), the second paradigm derives from the relatively new idea that the diversity of sexual orientation and gender, class distinction, ethnicity, race and other social-political factors is so great that it is impossible, or unwise, or meaningless to identify anyone as primarily male or female, since so many other factors come into play. This paradigm focuses on gender of its performative aspects, so translation under this paradigm is viewed as a contingent, performative act” (Flotow, 2007, p. 93).

In general, research about the first paradigm is devoted to subverting the duality of male being superior to female in any aspects of translation in order to make feminists’ ideas seen. It usually focuses on the re-doings of the cannoned yet sexually biased texts. For example, recovering women’s works lost in patriarchal world (Maier, 1985; Rayor, 1991; Flotow, 1995); revising theories and myths in order to locate more politically engaged translators rather than the classical “invisible” ones (Godard, 1990; Lewis, 1996; Simon, 1996); rereading and rewriting existing translations, especially the Bible, so as to get rid of male bias and create more gender-conscious translations of Biblical texts (Haugerud, 1977; Elligworth, 1987; Orlinsky and Bratcher, 1991). Just as Flotow (1997/2004) noted, “feminist revisions of the Bible do not seek to change the content of the text; they are concerned with the language in which this content is expressed” (Flotow, 1997/2004, p. 53).

However, studies on the second paradigm seem to pay more attention to the performative aspects of both gender and translation. For example, the instability of gender revealed by translations was noticed (Maier & Massardier-Kenney, 1996); the term trasformance (translation + performance) was coined by Barbara Godard (1990); and Flotow (2011) argued that the arbitrariness of meaning in translation was being somewhat identical to the arbitrariness of gender, which means, to some extent, translation practices shared performative aspects similar to gender. Furthermore, inspirations have been given by Sandra Bermann (2014), who made a distinction between J. Butler’s performativity (1990) and J. L. Austin’s performatifive (1962), admitting Butler’s conception allowed us to see anew a number of twentieth- and twenty-first-century translational practices that, in different ways, challenged social and historical norms as they challenged traditional expectations for translation (Austin, 1962, p. 292).

In a word, the first paradigm is based on more fixed notions of gender identity, which are limiting and restrictive, while the second paradigm is based on aspects of gender performances, which seem to be flexible and performative.

Reasons of Insufficient Studies on the Second Paradigm in China
As was mentioned, ever since 2013, the number of articles published concerning gender and translation studies has been showing a striking decrease, and, more surprisingly, they form less than 1% of the articles brought issues of the second paradigm. It is only reasonable that there might be a decline of studies on the first paradigm because scholars are inclined to focus on the second paradigm more, as Judith Butler’s theory is gaining its popularity. However, studies on the second paradigm are still a minority. Why is the study of the second paradigm being such a minority in China while discussions over Butler’s theory are catching scholars’ attentions worldwide? The reasons will be analyzed first by introducing the theoretical framework of the second paradigm – Judith Butler’s theory. Then, a
comparison of both attempted studies on fidelity in these two paradigms will be used to identify the
difficulty of applying the second paradigm to practices.

Judith Butler is known as an American philosopher and gender theorist who has made
groundbreaking achievements in gender studies as well as in queer theory. Although she seldom discusses
translation per se, her ideas become essential to the second paradigm of gender and translation studies.
Even Flotow mentioned Butler’s theory being the key to the second paradigm. In her 2007 article, Flotow
gave a series of examples backing up the first paradigm. However, despite all the attention on queer study
and Butler’s theory, the essential question of how to apply Butler’s theory to translation studies was not
solved. Why is that so difficult? In her book (1990), Butler criticized the traditional idea that there were
only two types of encultured genders that correspond to the two biological sexes, and gender itself could
be seen as a performance, or more precisely, a performtive act (Butler, 1990, p. xxvii). However, as I
understand it, this act is not completely performed by the subject itself. It has always been influenced, or,
in Butler’s words, “constructed” by the outside world, society and politics, or as Foucault might call it,
the discourse. The perfect example was given by Butler (1990), who said “there need not be a ‘doer
behind the deed,’ but that the ‘doer’ is variably constructed in and through the deed” (Butler, 1990, p.
181). In other words, “this is not a return to an existential theory of the self as constituted through its acts,
for the existential theory maintains a prediscursively structure for both the self and its acts” (Butler, 1990,
p.181), just as she describes gender identity as being produced through a stylized repetition of acts
(Butler, 1990, p. 140). Both the subject and its acts are interacting with each other, and there is no such
thing as a subject that preexists its acts. Therefore, the point is, when the theory itself and its acts are
evolving together through numerous repetitions, it is comparatively more problematic for us
to enact a practical value.

Let us take a closer look at this problem, taking studies of fidelity in these two paradigms of gender
and translation as an example. As we know, feminists’ ideas inspired female translators to question the
traditional notion of fidelity that had been gendered already (see Chamberlain, 1988; Simon, 1996;
Flotow, 1997, 2004). The goal of feminist translation theory was to “identify and critique the tangle of
concepts which regulates both women and translation to the bottom of the social and literary ladder”
(Simon, 1996, p. 1). Simon (1996) insisted that feminist translators must investigate the processes through
which translation has come to be feminized, and attempt to trouble the structures of authority that have
maintained this association (p. 1). Since feminist translators put their focuses mostly on the translation
process, Simon (1996) argued that “fidelity in feminist translation theory 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” (p.2).

Simon’s definition of fidelity was certainly attributed to the first paradigm because the performative
aspects of gender were not mentioned. Nevertheless, it made a great contribution in deconstructing the
traditional notion of fidelity and reconstructing a new one through close observation of the translation
process. The term writing project was used to describe the activity done by both the author and the
translator. In this writing project, the translator and the author were encouraged to communicate with
each other, even to collaborate to make gender-conscious translations. These translations served as tools
to express the willingness of female translators to fight against suppressions in the patriarchal world. In
order to achieve this goal, certain strategies were invented by feminist translators, such as hijacking,
woman-handling, and supplementing. These strategies, on the one hand, were criticized as being
aggressive and too self-conscious, and on the other hand, were seen as indications of the awakening of female translators.

However, analyzing fidelity from perspectives of the second paradigm seems more complicated. The theoretic framework of the second paradigm, in my opinion, is mostly based on Judith Butler’s theory. For Butler (1990), gender is itself performative. As noted by Bermann (2014), gender is not what one is but rather what one does. Performativity is, thus, a matter of repeating the norms by which one is constituted (p. 403). Also, as argued by Flotow (2011), translation practices and gender share similar performative aspects (p. 3). If these shared performative aspects can be thoroughly analyzed, breakthroughs will be made in studies of the second paradigm, including the study of fidelity. However, the performative nature of Butler’s theory makes it difficult to apply to translation studies. Examples of Butler modifying her theory can be found from time to time. In an interview done by Bell (1999), Butler made herself very clear that the predominant Foucauldian frame that she had been using did not give her a precise enough account of what it meant for a subject to be constituted in discourse given that a subject was only partially constituted or was sometimes constituted in ways that couldn’t quite be anticipated, so she turned to Austin and Althusser, hoping to solve her problems with their inspirations.

From my perspective, the second paradigm is encountering both theoretical and practical barriers. For one thing, it is going through a theoretic evolvement; for another, in order to enact a practical value, it needs to be localized in the Chinese context to connect with gender issues in China. So, research on the second paradigm is still insufficient in the Chinese context.

**Implications and Conclusion**

Importing a foreign theory is just a beginning. Adjustments need to be made in this intercultural setting. The theory itself has to be contextualized in the Chinese context. In this case, these two paradigms need to connect with Chinese translation studies. So, there is still much room left for further research on these two paradigms, especially the second one. While approaches of the first paradigm provide ways to revise theories, reread and rewrite translations, as well as recover “lost” women translators, the second paradigm opens new windows by observing gender identities as an imprisonment or a constraint trying to meet the satisfaction of the social discourse. Revisiting translations using approaches of the second paradigm enacts similar repetitions as ones discussed by Judith Butler in the theatrical setting, which enables us to question the social and historical norms that existed.

I think the beauty of the second paradigm lies in its fluid and reproductive theoretical framework. It shares with scholars more opportunities to re-evaluate the contributions we made in the study of translation and gender. In the meantime, it makes us re-emphasize the connections between gender and translation and how gender studies and translation studies have been interacting with each other. Furthermore, it provides possible approaches to re-evaluate theatre/stage and media translation studies in the Chinese context to see how gender instability is revealed in Chinese translations. For instance, Godard (1984) believed that female translators made better translations of feminists’ novels. In fact, I found examples in the Chinese translation of Alice Walker’s *The Color Purple* to disagree with her point. The male translator Yang Renjing (1987)’s version of *The Color Purple* provided examples of a male translator being related to the heroine’s feelings. These examples can be used to study gender performances of translators so as to support the research of the second paradigm.
In a word, to further the study of the second paradigm is definitely challenging but, at the same time, promising, just as Butler (1990) described it: “it is precisely the discursively variable construction of each and through the other that has interested me here” (p. 181).

References


On Translating Nominalizations in English Academic Discourse

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[Abstract] The translation of nominalizations has caught considerable attention in the field of translation. However, research into their translation in academic discourse are few and far between. The current paper, based upon the corpus extracted from current well-accepted English academic discourse, addresses their translation into Chinese. It is argued that (1) since nominalization, as a metaphorical expression, does not necessarily indicate the author’s positive attitude towards the proposition he or she maintains, sporadic nominalizations should, by no means, be simply translated into their Chinese counterparts, even if there are Chinese equivalents for them; (2) since it is a device of promoting cohesion and facilitating information flow between sentences, we have to unpack it in translation so as to make our Chinese renderings more idiomatic.

[Keywords] nominalization; translation; English academic discourse

Introduction
In the age of globalization with international exchange becoming more and more frequent, translation, as a means to facilitate mutual understanding between people speaking different languages, has been assuming an increasingly important role in international communication. In order to shed light on the process of translation, different theories have been put forward. However, no theories have, so far, paid adequate attention to the systematic translation of nominalizations in English academic discourse, which, as an instrument of sharing scientific discoveries among professionals, as well as imparting new knowledge to the general public, is characterized by the profuse application of nominalizations in its diction. Although some sporadic attempts have been made on the translation of nominalizations, they are mostly concentrated on the translation of nominalization in everyday discourse and few of them have touched upon the translation of nominalization in academic discourse. Against this background, the present paper aims to offer a package of feasible strategies for the translation of nominalizations in English academic discourse. It first identifies and describes nominalization and its textual functions. Secondly, it gives a brief sketch of academic discourse. In the third part, it provides a number of strategies and methods for translating different kinds of nominalizations, namely single nominalizations, multiple nominalizations and clausal nominalizations, in English academic discourse into idiomatic Chinese.

Nominalization and its Textual Functions

What is Nominalization?
Nominalization is a structural feature whereby any element or group of elements is made to function as a nominal group in the clause (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014, p. 94). It is the most powerful resource for creating grammatical metaphor, which refers to the cross-coupling between semantic units and grammatical ones on the realizational plane of language. By this device, processes (congruently worded as verbs) and properties (congruently worded as adjectives) are reworded metaphorically as nouns; instead of functioning in the clause as Process or Attribute, they function as Thing in the nominal group (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014, p.729). As a type of grammatical metaphor, nominalization can transfer almost all the other functional
components into entities, a phenomenon which can be referred to as “the drift toward thingness” (Halliday, 1998).

Nominalization takes such forms as nominative clauses (1, 2), gerundial phrases (3, 4) and nouns (5, 6), as shown in the following sentences:

1. What no one seemed to notice was the writing on the wall.
2. Two pence a day was what my master allowed me.
3. Threatening people will get you nowhere.
4. Not being much of a reader hardly affected the ascent of George W. Bush or his father.
5. Westbrook further bemoans the Southern writers’ creation of an unreal image of their homeland.
6. The argument to the contrary is basically an appeal to the lack of synonymy in mental language.

Textual Functions of Nominalization

Since they encapsulate a concept usually expressed by a process verb or an attribute adjective, nominalizations promote the cohesion between sentences effectively, thus enhancing the coherence between different parts of a text. Generally speaking, nominalization has the following four textual functions.

Information condensation. According to Halliday’s (1994) research, the lexical density of oral texts is usually two content words per clause, while the lexical density of written texts, especially those which are both formal and complicated, averages four to six content words per clause; and that is even higher with those texts concerned with technology and abstract concepts (Unsworth, 1999). That is, nominalization allows more content words to be packed up in clauses, thus making clauses more informative and subsequently more in conformity with formal styles of writing, e.g.:

7. The absolute indistinguishability of the electrons in the two atoms gives rise to an “extra” attractive force between them. [Because the electrons in the two atoms are absolutely indistinguishable, they attract each other “extra” strongly.]

The lexical density is calculated by dividing the number of content words in a passage by the number of clauses. Due to the use of the nominalization indistinguishability, this passage has a lexical density of ten, which is far higher than that of normal passages. In contrast, the lexical density of the passage in square brackets is much lower because there are two clauses, each of which has a lexical density of four. What follows are another two examples,

8. Ellen worked with a psychologist on the faculty who was studying the effects of day-care centers on preschool children. Her exposure to research confirmed her choice of a career.

The noun exposure is derived from the verb expose. Her exposure to research can be paraphrased as That she has been exposed to research.

9. The process of reinforcing behavior that approximates a desired response is called shaping.

In this example, the total content of the theme of this sentence is encapsulated as a gerundial noun shaping, which has been accepted as a technical term in psychology.

Objectification. Since the participants are omitted and thus obscured in nominalizations, the processes are often presented more objectively, which contributes to the undeniability of the argument. In Example 9, the noun possibility is utilized to avoid the subjectivity on the part of the author, who can otherwise express the meaning by the projecting clause I think.
10. There is no possibility of his coming back today. [I think he won’t come back today.]

Another case in point is example 10:

11. The process of self-discovery and change is never easy. [People don’t discover and change their own bad habits easily.]

Here, because of nominalizations self-discovery and change, we cannot find who is responsible for the processes of self-discovery and change.

Cohesion facilitation. Nominalizations, as products of condensation and transformation, are in a better position to serve as themes or rhemes in the ensuing clause, thus facilitating a smoother cohesion.

12. Their dual aim in all these activities is to be able to predict human behavior and to help people manage it. For a psychologist, prediction and management go hand in hand.

13. Liu, 37, is a familiar face to the frequent visitors of the park. He may look like a regular Chinese policeman but what makes him different is his surprising ability to speak foreign languages.

In Example 12, prediction and management are products of transformation from the verbs predict and manage respectively, serving as part of rhemes in the ensuing clause and contributing to the smooth cohesion between the two sentences. In Example 13, what makes him different serves as theme in the second clause of the coordinate sentence, highlighting his difference from average people. If the sentence is rewritten into its congruent form like “but his surprising ability to speak foreign languages makes him different”, no highlighting effects would be left any longer.

It has to be mentioned that these three functions of nominalizations are by no means independent of each other. On the contrary, they are interrelated and mutually enhance each other.

A Brief Sketch of Academic Discourse

Academic discourse, as an appliable genre, aims to transmit and spread professional knowledge between scientists and/or from the circle of scientists to ordinary people. As such, it is characterized with complicated and extended sentences, and these sentences teem with nominalizations, which help to get the message through to the general audience, and at the same time serve as a means to establish a particular circle, inclusive of some people while at the same time exclusive of some others (Bhatia, 2002).

So far, a lot of studies have been conducted on academic discourse and nominalizations respectively in the circle of linguistics. However, the research on the translation of nominalizations in academic discourse is still few and far between. Against this background, the current paper seeks to address the translation of the nominalizations in academic discourses with a purpose to call attention to the issue in the academia. As English itself is characterized with a preponderance of nouns over verbs, nominalization occurs with an even higher frequency in English academic discourses thanks to its marked efficiency in sharing information and spreading knowledge concerning a particular subject among professionals.

Translation of Nominalizations in English Academic Discourse

Since academic discourse is characterized with nominalization, specific strategies have to be adopted when it is translated from English into Chinese so that we can go around them and come up with better Chinese versions. In what follows, analyses will be conducted on the examples which are taken from widely accessible English academic discourse in the field of linguistics as well as in the field of science and technology. For the ease of discussion, nominalizations are divided into single, multiple and clausal translations, which will be dealt with one-by-one in the following section.
Translation of Single Nominalizations

A single nominalization is more often than not the nominalization of a verb in question. Usually sentences of this type can be paraphrased back into sentences with the particular verb as predicate, as illustrated in the following examples.

14. *This volume is a collection of original papers on the notion of context in linguistics.*

Here, it is inappropriate, though theoretically possible, to translate this sentence word-for-word into “本卷是语言学界关于语境概念的原创性论文的收录”。Rather, it has to be translated freely by turning the nominalization collection into a verb in Chinese.

15. *Yet the metaphorical potency of battling and obliterating cancer relatively indiscriminately still gripped oncology.*

In Example 15, the nominalization “potency” is modified by the adjective “metaphorical”. If it is translate simply into “然而, 不加选择地战胜和清除癌症的隐喻性能力仍然围绕着肿瘤学。”, the understanding of its original meaning will go astray. As a matter of fact, what this sentence puts emphasis on is that there is a lot of hyperbole about the effects of medicines which are purported to fight against cancer. Therefore, a better rendering should be:

然而, 肿瘤学界仍然夸夸其谈, 认为有一种治疗方案能对所有癌症都产生疗效并将其全部剿灭。

Translation of Multiple Nominalizations

With regard to the sentences containing multiple nominalizations, we have to unpack them in the first place and then translate them according to the expression habits of the Chinese language. Usually, one English sentence can be unpacked, and thus translated, into several shorter sentences and clauses in Chinese in order for them to be more habitual and more idiomatic.

The following is a complicated sentence with an embedded attributive clause starting with “which”.

16. *This kind of direct engagement builds a relationship between participants which is not dependent on an assessment of what needs to be made explicit to elaborate a position, anticipate an objection or ease processing constraints.*

As a technical term in Appraisal Theory propounded by Martin and White (2005), *engagement* refers to the involvement of the writer into the propositional content he or she intends to convey, and its Chinese equivalent is 介入. The nominalization *assessment* is probably where the real difficulty lies, as can be seen from the following faulty renderings by a candidate of Master of Translating and Interpreting.

*这种直接接触在参与者之间建立一种联系，这种联系并不依靠一个需要明确阐述的评估，也不用预期一个不足，或者放松行文限制。*

In this translation, the translator misunderstood the *assessment* as only modified by the phrase of *what needs to be made explicit to elaborate a position*. Thus, her version is almost all wet. In fact, the nominalization *assessment* is modified by the whole following phrase starting with “of” and ending with “constraints”. So, this sentence can be translated into the follow two versions:

诸如此类的读者的直接介入会让读者与文章作者之间形成一种关系。至于作者为了详述立场，应对来自读者的反对声音，或者为了缓解读者的理解困难，他自己认为需要阐明哪些具体内容，对这种关系则没有太大影响。

诸如此类的读者的直接介入在文本的读者和作者之间构建了一种关系。至于作者自己认为需要阐明哪些具体内容，以明确自己的立场、应对来自读者的反对声音，或者缓解读者在理解上的困
难，对于这种关系并没有太大的影响。

17. The fluidity of surgical specialization was, perhaps, not as reassuring to patients.

In this sentence, there are two nominalizations, fluidity and specialization, which can bring about obstacles to the correct understanding of this short sentence, as shown by the following faulty version:

各种外科医生之间的流动性对于患者也许没有那么可信。

In reality, the nominalization “fluidity” refers to the fact that some doctors who can perform some surgical operations are often assumed to be also capable of performing other surgical operations; and the specialization refers to the specialized skills possessed by doctors. Based on this understanding, this sentence should be translated into the following version:

患者并不认同，胜任一种外科手术的外科医生也可以得心应手地实施其他种类的外科手术。

18. Palliative care, the branch of medicine that focuses on symptom relief and comfort, had been perceived as the antimatter of cancer therapy, the negative to its positive, an admission of failure to its rhetoric of success.

In sentence 18, there are three nominalizations, namely antimatter, admission and rhetoric, which are at first sight common nouns. Among them, only admission can be translated word for word into 承认. But the remaining two nominalizations are by no means translatable into 反物质 and 修辞, because they do not make sense to readers if they are translated mechanically. To better transmit the author’s intention, this sentence should be translated into the following version:

姑息治疗专注于缓解症状从而使病人舒适。人们通常认为，它与癌症疗法针锋相对，是其积极因素的消极面，是对其奢谈成功最终却惨遭失败的承认。

As can be seen from this version, antimatter is translated into 对立面 and rhetoric into 奢谈, which can give a clearer picture to the original meaning.

Translation of Clausal Nominalizations

Different from single and multiple nominalizations, clausal nominalizations take the form of nominal clauses such as subject clauses, object clauses and appositive clauses, usually led by “what”. Most of them can be translated into “……的东西”. But in some cases, such simple renderings are far from enough to get the original message from the source text through to the target readers. The following sentence is a typical example.

19. Are all faces that you know from when you were a child so imprinted that their lineaments leap out at you, distinct within whatever has shaped itself in the interim?

In Example 19, “whatever has shaped itself” is such a clausal nominalization. In order to express what the author intends to say, we have to take into consideration its co-text, i.e., the texts preceding and following it. Here, according to its co-text, this clausal nominalization should be translated into “无论闪过任何念头”, and the whole sentence can be translated as follows:

是否儿童时代就认识的面孔都会如此地令人难以忘怀，以致于在你闲下来的时候，无论闪过任何念头，它们都会向你涌来，其轮廓清晰可辨？

Conclusion

This paper has conducted an in-depth analysis into the translation of nominalizations in English academic discourse. It is argued that since academic discourse is characterized by profuse use of nominalizations, there is likely to be certain difficulty of understanding on the part of the translator. In order to come up with an idiomatic and habitual Chinese translation of the sentences containing nominalizations, he or she has to
unpack these nominalizations and rearrange the sentences according to the expression habits of the Chinese language on the premise of taking into consideration the co-text in which the nominalizations in question are located.

References
Translation as a Reshaping Force – On Re-characterization in the Chinese Translation of *La Dame Aux Camellias*

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**Abstract**  
Since characterization, that is, character shaping, is a central component of a novel, the transference of characterization is one of the key issues in fictional translation. This paper clarifies the role that is played by reception theory in translation to illustrate the importance of reception of both the translator and the target language readers. From this perspective, this paper takes a closer look at readers’ needs and horizon of expectations of both the translator and the target language readers by analyzing the “re-characterizational phenomenon” in the famous romance fiction *La Dame Aux Camellias* translated by Lin Shu as 《巴黎茶花女遗事》 (*The Lady of the Camellias)*.

**Keywords**  
reception theory; horizon of expectations; aesthetic ideals; re-characterization

**Introduction**

**Aims and Objectives**

Character shaping is one of the key issues in the novel, and it is a complicated process. Generally speaking, in accordance with the faithful principle, the translation should give the “equivalent” image to the target language readers (Nida, 2004), however, character deformation or re-characterization appears in 《巴黎茶花女遗事》 (*The Lady of the Camellias*) by Lin Shu. As a translator, Lin Shu is a controversial figure, and his translation methods have often been criticized sharply by the later literati (Luo, 1984); however, his translations have been very popular, especially in the Late Qing Dynasty. The heroine Marguerite, who Lin Shu characterizes, and her love story have moved and attracted a lot of Chinese people (Chen, 2000). So why has it been so popular when Lin Shu’s translation methods have been sharply criticized by the later literati?

This paper focuses on the re-characterization or character deformation in Lin Shu’s 《巴黎茶花女遗事》 (*The Lady of the Camellias*). This paper tries to give a comparative analysis of images of Marguerite in *La Dame aux Camellias* and 《巴黎茶花女遗事》 (*The Lady of the Camellias*). By comparing the image of Marguerite with that of Marguerite in *La Dame aux Camellias*, it is found that re-characterization or character deformation appears in 《巴黎茶花女遗事》 (*The Lady of the Camellias*) by Lin Shu.

**Data and Methodology**

This paper focuses on re-characterization in the fictional translation 《巴黎茶花女遗事》 by Lin Shu in the Late Qing Dynasty, and the data come from the Chinese translation of *La Dame Aux Camellias*. 《巴黎茶花女遗事》 by Lin Shu was the first western foreign literature work to be translated into Chinese and became a hit right after publication (Chen, 2000). The original version *La Dame Aux Camellias* by Alexander Dumas was published in 1848. The present study ia a qualitative analysis of the data collected, and the data used in the paper are mainly extracted from *La Dame aux Camellias* and its Chinese version 《巴黎茶花女遗事》. This paper borrows key terms including horizon of expectations, aesthetic
distance, and so on, to analyze the elements causing re-characterization or character deformation in the fictional translation in the hope of obtaining some enlightenment on the literary translation theories and practices.

Literature Review

Readers in the Chinese Translation Studies

In the history of Chinese translation studies, many translation theorists and translators have accepted faithfulness, fidelity, or equivalence, as the standard of translation. Dao’an, a Buddhist Scripture translator, thought that Buddhist Scripture was simple in essence, while the Han people adored elegant language, so the translated version should have some decoration to satisfy the target readers (Chen, 2000, p. 10). As to the principle of “elegance”, Yan Fu tended toward “classical elegance”, because he took into consideration his target readers, namely, the intelligentsia and officialdom.

Fu Sinian held that the translator should be responsible for the target reader on the one hand and the source text on the other. Later, Hu Shi developed this thought and felt that the translator should first bear a burden for the original author, seeking to be understood; in addition, the translator himself, seeks not to deceive himself as well as others (Chen, 2000, p. 210). Lin Yutang made a similar statement that to be faithful is to be responsible for the author; to be expressive is for the target reader; and to be elegant is for art (Chen, 2000, p. 237).

Lu Xun distinguished the target readers from the common readers and the specialists. He thought that the translated versions directed at the intellectual should be more faithful than expressive, while for common readers, it would be acceptable to recommend some new words and grammatical points (Guo, 1999, p. 81).

Readers in Baker’s Theory

Mona Baker proposed the notion of pragmatic equivalence. Pragmatic equivalence involves implications during the translation process. Implication is not about what is explicitly said, but what is implied. To achieve pragmatic equivalence, the translator needs to work out the implied meanings in translation in order to get the ST message across to target text readers. Therefore, the translator should try to recreate the author’s intention in another culture in such a way that target text readers can understand it clearly. In this sense, not only ST and TT, but also target text readers, are taken into account in the translation process (Baker, 1998, p. 67).

Readers in Newmark’s Communicative Translation

Peter Newmark put forward the notion of communicative translation. It is defined as an approach “to produce on its readers an effect as close as possible to that obtained on the readers of the original” (Newmark, 2001, p. 39). That is, in communicative translation, translators should focus on the close effect between the source language and the target language readers. In communicative translation, translators “have the right to correct or improve the logic; to remove obscurities…” (Newmark, 2001, p. 42). Newmark also has remarks about the role of target text readers. “Communicative translation addresses itself solely to the second reader, who does not anticipate difficulties or obscurities, and would expect a generous transfer of foreign elements into his own culture as well as his language where necessary” (Newmark, 2001, p. 39). Obviously, as a subjective procedure, communicative translation mainly concentrates on the target readers. It is interesting that Newmark’s idea of “an effect as close as
possible to that obtained on the readers of the original” is very similar to the essence of Nida’s “respond to it in substantially the same manner as the receptors in the source language”.

**Theoretical Framework**

*Horizon of Expectations*

“Horizon of expectations”, proposed by Hans Robert Jauss, has a comprehensive theoretical basis mainly absorbing the essence of the “pre-understanding” by Heidegger and the “prejudice” by Hans-Georg Gadamer. He put forward the term “horizon of expectations” to further illustrate the aesthetic experience of reception. (Holub, 1984) The horizon of expectations, for Jauss, refers to the partial and moving perspective of human experience and knowledge (Jauss, 1982, p. 49).

In the translating process, a translator has to face the influence of two receptive activities. First, the communication between the translator and the text influences directly the understanding of the original text. Then, he should predict the second reception and participation of target language readers to translated version, which affect the production of the translated version. Translators’ active participation plays a very important role in both activities. Only if the translator always takes the target language readers’ horizon into consideration, in other words, the translator’s horizon fuse with the horizon of the TL readers as well as the horizon of the original text, can the receiving process of the translated work be guaranteed.

*Aesthetic Distance*

Aesthetic distance is another key term in the reception theory, which is usually defined as the difference or separation between the horizon of expectations and the work or as the “change of horizons” (Jauss, 1982, p. 19). If one characterizes something as aesthetic the distance the disparity between the given horizon of expectations and the appearance of a new work, whose reception can result in a “change of horizons” through negation of familiar experiences or through raising newly articulated experiences to the level of consciousness, then this aesthetic distance can be objectified historically along the spectrum of the audience’s reactions and criticism’s judgment (Jauss, 1982, p. 25).

In the translation process, the translator should take readers’ expectations into consideration, only if the aesthetic distance between the translated work and the expectations of the target language readers is shortened sufficiently by the translator, can the reception of the translated work be guaranteed.

**Target Readers Identified**

The translator chose one group of readers as his target readers of his translated version, and selected proper translation strategies that were in agreement with the readers’ expectations. Lin Shu, being traditional literati, was influenced a lot by the Tongcheng School and quite admired Chinese classical language. His fictional translation《巴黎茶花女遗事》(*The Lady of the Camellias*) in gorgeous classical Chinese literary language was to cater to the expectations of his ideal TL readers – feudal literati and officialdom. He wrote in the *Translation Journal preface* as follows:

“吾谓欲开民智，必立学堂，学堂功缓，不如立会演说，演说又不易举，终之唯有译书” (Ma & Liu, 2009).

Here “欲开民智”, or “民” is his target readers, and they are not ordinary people, but the literati and officialdom, at least the Chinese intellectual.
In a word, ignorance of knowledge about culture and life, experience as well as the unreasonable optimism for their own culture and literature underlay the horizons of the main TL readers in the Late Qing Dynasty as a whole, which inevitably affect the translators’ methods.

“Marguerite” in La Dame aux Camellias, Its English Version Camille and 《巴黎茶花女遗事》
The transference of characterization is a complicated process in fictional translation, and the translator as a reader of the original work and the rewriter, his reconstruction process must be influenced by many factors, and he has to inevitably consider the target context and the target language readers’ horizon of expectations. As a result, predicting the horizons of target language readers is a key point if we use this theory to explain the translators’ choices of translation methods.

From Marguerite’s Appearance
It has been mentioned that the translation activity is faced with two receptive activities. The first receptive activity is conducted by the translator as the TL reader, and he has his own understanding of the original work, as well as his own horizon of expectations, including the aesthetic standards. As stated before, Lin Shu was influenced a quite a deal by the Tongcheng School and the classic literature work Dream of Red Mansion. To some extent Lin Daiyu is the Chinese prototype of Marguerite, as commented by Zou Zhenhuan:


In Dream of Red Mansion, the description of Lin Daiyu’s appearance is as follows:
“两弯似蹙非蹙笼烟眉，一 双似喜非喜含情目。态生两靥之愁，娇袭一身之病。泪光点点，娇喘微微。闲静时如姣花照水，行动处似弱柳扶风。心较比干多一窍，病如西子胜三分。” (Cao & Gao, 1991, p. 21).

While in Lin Shu’s 《巴黎茶花女遗事》，Marguerite’s appearance is as follows:
“马克长身玉立，御长裙，仙仙然描画不能肖，虽欲故状其丑，亦莫知为辞。修眉媚眼，脸犹朝霞，发黑如漆覆额，而仰盘于顶上，结为巨髻。耳上饰二钻，光明射目。余念马克操业如此，宜有沉忧之色，乃观马克之容，若甚整暇” (Lin, 1981, p. 5).

In fact, Alexander Dumas devoted several paragraphs to describe the appearance of Marguerite in La Dame aux Camellias:
“Grande et mince jusqu' à l' exagération, elle possédait au suprême degré l' art de faire disparaître cet oubli de la nature par le simple arrangement des choses qu' elle revêtait…” (Dumas, 1848).

From the comparison among the two “Marguerite” versions, we can see that the Chinese version is totally different from the French version. Chinese culture is totally different from western cultures, so people influenced by different cultures must have different aesthetic standards. And it is inevitable to deal with culture in translation process. Lin Shu was faced with the traditional Chinese intellectuals who had a rather narrow life vision with little knowledge of the outside culture; they were also steeped in traditional Chinese literature, and their cultural horizons included not only fixed standards of the literary characters’ appearance and behaviors, but also a set of traditional expressions. Therefore, with several lines of description, Lin Shu gave us a very Chinese beautiful prostitute in 《巴黎茶花女遗事》 in his own way.
From Marguerite’s Behaviors
Target language readers’ cultural horizons include not only fixed standards of the literary characters’ appearance, but also traditional beauties’ behaviors and a set of traditional expressions to describe the beauties’ behaviors. For example:

“Un matin le duc, resté à Bagnères comme on reste sur le sol qui ensevelit une partie du coeur, aperçut Marguerite au détour d’une allée” (Dumas, 1848). This is the part in which the Duke saw Marguerite by accident, while in Lin Shu’s translation, it seems that we have seen a totally different “Marguerite”:


“微步” and “倩影亭亭” are all expressions of the traditional beauties, and “微步” is another traditional cultural phenomenon, because the women in ancient times were expected to walk with small steps, or maybe because of their small feet, which was described as “寸步金莲” in Chinese. So we are seeing a traditional beauty walking along the bank.

From Marguerite’s Sickly Countenance
Marguerite died of tuberculosis, and Lin Shu described the details of Marguerite’s sickness that he was very familiar with. From age 19 to 28, Lin Shu was very sick and often coughed up blood, and his knowledge was obtained from traditional Chinese medical culture instead of western medical science. So Lin Shu described Marguerite’s sickness as a traditional Chinese doctor.

“二目若瞑，樱口微张，肺气郁勃，借呼吸以宣泄之” (Lin, 1981, p. 23). In the original work, “la bouche entr’ouverte” in Lin Shu’s translation became “樱口” which is usually the traditional expression to describe the mouth of women.

Conclusion
In the process of translating, the translator must take the target language readers’ horizon of expectations, including the aesthetic standards and ideas into consideration. So sometimes the translator omits, or alters, some information of the original work in order to satisfy the readers’ expectations, particularly in translation during the Late Qing Dynasty, which would have been criticized by many scholars. Lin Shu’s translation has also been criticized greatly, however, we have to admit that the versions by Lin Shu were warmly welcomed by the people in the Late Qing Dynasty. In a word, translating is the process of reproducing, which is often adulterated with misunderstanding, omission and supplement. And it may produce all sorts of imprecise versions, but these, indeed, make the original works tolerable in different cultures, thereby bringing about different and significant results.

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References


Investigation on College Students’ Individual Needs Analysis in Their English Learning during the Transitional Period from High School to University

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[Abstract] Reform in English teaching has been witnessed in both high schools and universities in China, but problems still exist in this transitional stage from high school to university. This paper, thus, applied Need Analysis Theory into concrete study, focusing on the students’ individual needs. The questionnaire was arranged from four aspects, namely learning capacity gap, learners’ individual preference, need of learning process and need of learning environment, then distributed to some freshmen, collected and analysed subsequently. The result of this study might provide some constructive suggestions for the content and method of college English teaching in the transitional stage.

[Keywords] students’ individual need analysis; college English; transitional stage

Introduction

Needs analysis is an essential procedure to design and implement language courses. Without careful analysis of individual needs, it is impossible to effectively carry out language teaching and meet the desired practical language requirements. In the field of education, needs analysis refers to the process of knowing about and analyzing the situation. From the process of implementation of foreign language teaching, foreign language teaching includes the following five important processes: needs analysis; curriculum design; textbooks edition and selection; classroom instruction and teaching assessment. It emphasizes the importance of needs analysis (Nunan, 2001). Needs analysis is an essential procedure to design and implement language courses. It has at least four important roles: provide the basis for the development of language education policies and language courses design; provide the basis for content, design and implementation of course; provide the basis for language teaching objective and methods; provide reference for test and assessment (Shu, 2004).

Brindley (1989) thinks that in specific teaching process, it is critical that the content teachers teach is consistent with learner’ needs. Needs analysis has been generally recognized as basis for determining teaching content and method of reform in the field of foreign language teaching. Needs analysis is also very important for promoting learner initiative and enthusiasm, because in the process of needs analysis, students will have a more clear understanding of themselves so as to clarify their own learning goals, which can make them most likely to participate in teaching and learning process. As more and more students involved in lessons, their attitude towards curriculum and methods will continue to change. In the field of language teaching, the importance of needs analysis is equivalent to diagnosis before the physician prescribes for the patient (Long, 2005), which makes language courses adapt to the needs of different countries, different levels and different target groups. It plays an important role in language teaching.
Theoretical Basis of Needs Analysis

There has been more than 30 years of history for needs analysis-based language teaching and research in foreign countries. Needs analysis was originally proposed by the European Commission to be applied into the field of English for specific purposes. Later with language teaching focus shift from learner’s language to learning, it began to be applied into the field of general English. Chen & Wang (2009) point out that theory of needs analysis is originated from curriculum development of the 1960s, which stresses that development of curriculum, must follow three principles: to improve teaching methods, to adjust teaching to students and to train students. Needs analysis is rooted in the latter two. Since then, communicative function, Hymes’s “communicative competence” and theories of second language acquisition like learning-centeredness become a supporting theory for needs analysis.

Study on Needs Analysis Home and Abroad

Learning needs analysis is mainly to understand the students’ language skills before language course, student’s strengths and weak points, attitude, learning preferences, needs and expectations, etc. Theoretical studies on needs analysis in foreign languages focus on: definition and classification of language needs; model of language needs analysis; data sources, data collection procedures and intervention time for needs analysis. In recent years, empirical research in the field of needs analysis has made remarkable achievements. However, needs analysis in our country has not been given due attention. There is randomness and blindness in college English teaching in China, especially in the teaching objective, needs analysis, curriculum design and classroom teaching, etc. Understanding of the students’ language needs is one of the keys to solve the problems in language teaching. The absence of needs analysis results in that teaching objective is not clear and the actual needs of society and individuals are not really met. Without careful analysis of learning needs, it is impossible to effectively carry out language teaching and achieve the desired objective. Needs analysis is important to determine teaching requirements, content and methods. Given the fact that study on needs analysis is insufficient, it is necessary to carry out scientific and rational research on needs analysis in China (Shu & Chen, 2010).

Procedure of Study on Needs of Individual Students in English Transitional Stage

Based on the model conducted by Chen (2010) on needs analysis, we increased or decreased the survey content and designed the questionnaire from our aspects: learning capacity gap, learners’ individual preference, need of learning process and need of learning environment (total number is 21). In order to fully include the relevant scenarios as possible, we organized students to participate in the forum, followed by English teachers interviewed. According to the information they provided, we further modified the questions and options in the questionnaire and tested the reliability of assessment questionnaire as far as possible to ensure that the questionnaire had high representative. Respondents were from universities in Jilin province (Jilin University, Changchun University of Science and Technology, Changchun University, Jilin Agricultural University, Jilin Business and Technology College and College of Humanities and Sciences of Northeast Normal University). The survey was conducted in November, 2011 and October, 2012 and the subjects were freshmen, namely students in transitional stages from high school to university, majoring at arts, science, and engineering. Questionnaires were distributed in natural class with random sampling and eventually 453 valid questionnaires were collected. We then completed data analysis of the questionnaires.
Results of Study on Needs of Individual Students in English Transitional Stage

Not Very Positive Attitude in English Learning

Although 8.2% and 37.9% of freshmen considered themselves “very positive” or “positive” in English learning, those who selected “not very positive” and “not positive” were respectively 46.1% and 7.8%. It had been confirmed from the investment of time in English learning: 54.2% of freshmen spent less than half an hour a day on English learning, and 39% spent half an hour to an hour, only 6.8% of them spent one to two hours and none spent more than two hours.

Anxiety in English Learning

The “very anxious” accounted for 15.5 %, “anxious” were 21.1%, 44.3% of students were “a little anxious”, while only 19.1% of the students chose “no anxiety”. The purpose of learning English (multiple choices) was mainly “to pass CET” (73.2 %), “to communicate” (66%), “to be able to find a good job upon graduation” (62.9 %) and “to get credit or degree” (56.7%), followed by “to understand other cultures”, “being interested in language ”, “to be a postgraduate or be abroad”. Thus, the students learned English mainly for instrumental motivation, but at the same time they had realized the importance of oral communication.

Urgently Needed Skills to Improve Listening and Speaking

According to the wishes of the students, the top four most wanted English language skills for improvement (multiple choices) were: speaking (86.6%), listening (81.4%), vocabulary (58.8%), and translation (53.6%), followed by writing, reading, cultural background knowledge. In terms of English learning methods (multiple choices): respectively 67.1% and 66.7% of students chose “oral” and “listening” methods, 55.7% chose “word memorizing” and those who chose “reading skills training”, “writing method” and “translation method” were 52.1%, 42.8% and 41.7%. This was in accordance with the most wanted English skills they hoped to improve basically.

Learning Resources According to Preference from High to Low

The preferred resources were English songs (85.1%); English movies (84.9%), network resources (41.5%), English novels (34.4%), English newspapers (30.8%), and English radio station (14.9%). Desirable extracurricular activities were (multiple choices): English movies (89.2%), English performances or parties (42.6%), English corner (41.5%), lectures in English (18.9%), and various English competitions (15.4%).

Factors to Enhance Students’ Interest in Learning English

Teachers would take full advantage of multi-media resources, such as international news from BBC or VOA and some extra-curricular teaching materials to ensure that learning was innovative, interested, and practical and to facilitate students to understand foreign culture; teachers would create a more relaxed learning environment and achieve positive interaction, adopting a variety of teaching activities; teacher would increase visual and spoken English activities to guarantee that students could really understand English movies without Chinese captions and enjoy English songs; more focus would be put on spoken domains so that students could learn common spoken expressions and communication skills, thereby enhancing communicative competence (smooth communication between students and native speakers in English) and generating a sense of accomplishment; learning strategies would be taught, such as
memorizing words and methods on listening; teachers could guide students to read English books including professional English books, magazines, English original, etc. for the purpose that students would easily read foreign materials, and expand their knowledge and enhance their capacity through reading; students would have a clear English learning motivation and be able to pass the English exams (CET, postgraduate, TOEFL, IELTS, etc.); learning English would be no longer simply for examination, but to build capacity; students would be able to apply what they had learned in real life so that they had more than one survival skills for future employment. In addition, the teacher’s own personality charm was very important, such as humor, encouragement and recognition.

**Preferred Teaching Methods on Part of Students**

On English teachers’ employing multimedia and network resources: “very satisfied” was 15.9%, “satisfied” was 28.7%, 38.3% chose “basically satisfied”, with “not satisfied” only 17.1%; students still expected teachers to use progressive teaching in English; contents were not restricted to textbooks and teachers should expand foreign cultures in order that students could learn English in a rich cultural background; more extracurricular materials would be involved (video, music, articles, lectures and current affairs) to improve English proficiency; teachers could enhance comprehensive development in listening, speaking, reading, and writing; more focus would be put on active words, key phrases and grammar; teachers were supposed to integrate audio and visual methods, meanwhile focusing on listening; more emphasis would be put on pronunciation and oral practice, using a variety of methods to guide students to speak English (such as providing some topics, giving some instructions, then students guessed the related word or expression, role-playing or the use of scene simulation teaching); teachers would focus on oral communication skills in various forms: fresh, attractive, and entertaining to stimulate students’ interest; there would be more opportunities between teachers and students on discussion and exchange; make sure that students acquired knowledge efficiently in a relaxed atmosphere; teachers would carry out independent learning characterized by being student-centered and individualized to encourage students to speak freely and develop independent thinking; students would use their preferred learning styles; when encountering difficulties, they would get help immediately and teachers would provide students timely feedback.

**Expected Roles of Teacher**

Teachers were able to be participants in classroom and be equal, friendly and positive; to mobilize and maintain the enthusiasm of students; to guide students to study independently; to impart experience and play a key role as a coach or a subsidiary; to help improve students’ oral skills; to be wise, humorous, lively, cheerful, amiable, and enthusiastic, to be concerned about the students; to be responsible, understanding; to teach from multiple perspectives: language, discourse and culture teaching; to offer students more space.

**Ideal Teaching Effect of College English**

Teachers would organize more activities through the use of multimedia and simulate the foreign scene to create active classroom atmosphere and fully mobilize the enthusiasm of students; students felt relaxed, happy, and fun to learn English; there would be more interactions between teachers and students and more chances to learn knowledge of other cultures; students would develop divergent thinking; teachers ensured that students had more opportunities to express, not just completing assignments; students could digest most knowledge in classroom and consolidate accordingly; key words needed more practice;
students would make progress in each class and pass exams confidently; teachers were supposed to adopt progressive English teaching, rich in content, easy to grasp, improving their comprehensive ability, especially the ability in listening and speaking; students would be able to understand content without obstacle, to enjoy the movie; create an environment to improve students’ oral proficiency so as to communicate naturally with native speakers; when in communication, students would not feel timid; English-speaking became a pleasure; mispronunciation of English could be corrected; approaches were implemented to further improve students’ reading comprehension and to make sure they had good command of vocabulary and read articles without hindrance; students would read English literature the same as browsing Chinese newspaper and applied their knowledge to real life; students hoped to acquire learning strategies so that they would easily remember words and use vocabulary efficiently; papers could be written in English and translation would not be a problem at all.

**Expected Assessment**

70.5% of students believed that the current validity in terms of language proficiency assessment was not high. 62.5% thought it was low and 8% chose lowest validity; respondents thought it was not suitable to rely solely on the assessment results, but on the progress; more attention should be paid to students’ routine classroom performance combined with daily observation; a phased, non-centralized rather than centralized assessment form should be adopted.; focus would emphasize on capacity rather than taking exams and on the students’ ability to apply knowledge and grasp of cultural background; teachers were advised to pay attention to multiple forms of assessment, examining students’ comprehensive ability; assessment was not a simple choice and task-based approach could be adopted for assessment and based on completion of the task, evaluation was made; it was advisable to increase the proportion of assessment in listening and speaking; focus would be put on oral communication and critical thinking skills; oral examination would employ the forms like instant communication, lecture, performances or briefly exchanging of views and ideas after reading newspaper; content for oral examination would not be too simple and it could be conducted twice a semester and the average score would be recorded.

**Conclusion**

The investigation reveals that generally speaking, college English course should be gradually increased in English, not all at once in English; otherwise students will find it difficult to accept. Immersed English teaching might make students with low listening capacity harbor negative emotions. It is critical that teachers grasp the speed of course and reasonably arrange teaching content. Teaching materials should not be restricted to course books and it should not be simple words explanation. Much more would be involved, like introduction of western cultural traditions, ways of thinking, and etc. Extracurricular publications should be encouraged. Internet and multimedia resources might be adopted to assist teaching because multimedia devices provide rich learning resources. Modern topics and innovations could help stimulate curriculum interest and improve students’ English proficiency and enhance students’ English practical skills. Teachers should eliminate the phenomenon of rote memory to pass examination and try to create an environment focused on improving classroom interaction.

Meanwhile, it’s important to expand content and form of teaching and create active classroom atmosphere. Focus should be shifted to listening and speaking and enhance students’ oral communication skills. Teachers should create opportunities for students to exchange with native speakers and teach learning strategies to facilitate speaking, writing, listening and reading skills, guiding students to adopt
effective way of learning and enhance students’ self-learning ability. Increased extracurricular English practice through a series of English-related learning activities such as morning reading, reading English newspapers, enjoying English movies, lectures, performances, parties and so on will be utilized in order to maintain students’ interest after school and build their language sense. Evaluation should not be overemphasized on test scores and more emphasis should be paid on the assessment of the daily progress.

The results of investigation above provide a general tendency on college students’ individual needs in English transitional stage from high school to university and offer empirical support in terms of teaching content and teaching method concerned. College English teachers in transitional stages can refer the findings of this study, further improve English teaching, truly meet the actual needs of individual students in order to guarantee the smooth convergence of high school and college English teaching, and thus promote efficiency of college English.

References
A Contrastive Study on Traditional Chinese Tea Culture Translations

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[Abstract] The present paper compares the translations of the traditional Chinese tea culture in the two versions of A Dream of Red Mansions and analyzes the translation methods and strategies as well as the factors that cause the differences in translations.

[Keywords] Chinese culture; tea culture; A Dream of Red Mansions; translation

Introduction

A Dream of Red Mansions (Cao, & Gao, 2004) is one of the four great Chinese classical novels. This masterpiece embraces the Chinese traditional culture in such a comprehensive manner that it is honored as the encyclopedia of the Qing dynasty. China is the hometown of tea, having the world’s longest tea history, the most abundant resource of tea, and the most varying traditions of tea. Tea is one of the most significant marks that represents Chinese culture now. The tea culture plays an important part in the entire book and appears almost in every single chapter in terms of tea names or tea poems. Among the translations of A Dream of Red Mansions, the version by Yang Xianyi and Cladys Yang (1994) and the version by David Hawkes (1973) are the most famous. The translators of the two versions are from different cultures. Yang Xianyi is an outstanding Chinese translator who had spread many classical Chinese masterpieces to the world, and David Hawkes is a British translator and sinologist, who enjoys high reputation for his great translation of Chinese literature. The present research will make an analysis of the two versions of the tea culture and will discover the causes that lead to the differences in their translations.

A Contrastive Analysis of Tea Culture Translations in A Dream of Red Mansions

The tea culture in A Dream in the Red Mansions is an essential characteristic and plays a significant role in representing the society of the time and the development of the whole story. The tea culture in the book includes the description of tea names, tea sets, tea water, the process of making tea, the way to have tea, the situations in which to have tea and their related customs, such as to treat guests with tea, to show respect to an elder by offering a cup of tea, to send tea as a gift to friends, to have tea in a wedding ceremony, as well as to have tea during the Spring Festival and so on. The present part will focus on the comparison of the different translations of Yang and Hawkes in two aspects: the translation of tea terms and the translation of tea poems through examples.

Tea Terms

Tea has unique names with special meanings in A Dream in the Red Mansions, with which Cao shadows the tragic endings of the ladies and characterizes of the heroes. In translating the names of tea and the
names of tea sets, the translators adopted different terms. The following are several examples of tea names translation.

1. 千红一窟 (Cao, 2004, p. 34)
   
   **Qian hong yi ku**
   
   Version 1: Thousand Red Flowers in One Cavern (Yang & Cladys, 1994, p. 99)
   Version 2: Maiden’s Tears (Hawkes, 1973, p. 51)

   Here the “千红一窟” is a pun, which means a thousand kinds of colorful flowers and indicates the tragedy of the heroines at the same time. The “千红” refers to all the heroines in the novel, and the “窟” is a homophone with “哭”, which means crying. Therefore, there are two aspects of meaning in this term. The Thousand Red Flowers in One Cavern only converts the literal meaning, ignoring the implied meaning. However, Hawkes translates it into Maiden’s Tears, which shadows the ladies’ tragic endings. Thus, it is easier for readers to understand the implication.

2. 枫露茶 (Cao, 2004, p. 62)
   
   **Feng lu cha**
   
   Version 1: maple-dew tea (Yang & Cladys, 1994, p. 127)

   “枫露茶” is made of dew and maple leaf, having a special taste and appearing to be reddish, which seems like blood, expressing a feeling of sadness and sorrow. It shadows the unfortunate fates of the ladies in story. Yang’s translation has indicated the ingredient and the color of it. On the contrary, Hawkes transliterates it according to its pronunciation and without any other explanations, which may confuse the readers who have no idea about this tea.

3. (3) 老君眉 (Cao, 2004, p. 364)
   
   **lao jun mei**
   
   Version 1: Patriarch’s Eyebrow (Yang & Cladys, 1994, p. 429)
   Version 2: Old Man’s Eyebrow (Hawkes, 1973, p. 491)

   On the occasion of Jia Mu’ birthday, all the family are busy celebrating for her. After the banquet, the party visits Miao Yu and has tea there. Jia Mu, the Old Ancestor, who is respected and pleased by everyone in the Jia families is treated with a cup of tea named “老君眉”. The proud and arrogant Miao Yu makes tea on her own for Jia Mu to show respect and “老君眉” indicates that the person who has the tea should be aged and powerful. Therefore, it is clear that Patriarch’s Eyebrows is better than Old Man’s Eyebrow, which fails to convey the complete meaning.

   
   **Daiyu wei wei yi xiao, yin jiao Zijuan “ba wo de longjing cha gei er ye qi yi wan.”**
   

   Daiyu is delighted with Baoyu’s visit, so she asks her maid to make tea for him. Long Jing has been the best tea in China since the Song Dynasty. This kind of tea is named from a legend that happened in the Long Jing village. It is said that there was a dragon that protected a well so that it never drained, even during the great drought. Therefore, the name of this tea has a sense of mystery and a special meaning, which indicates its value. As is well known, Daiyu is a true lover of Baoyu and willing to share whatever
she possesses with him. So, she asks the maid to make the best tea for him. The word *Dragon* has different implications in Western culture than in Chinese culture. Dragons, in Western culture, are evil and violent, and thus, *Dragon Well tea* may remind Western readers of something violent or dangerous, which is obviously different from the original meaning. However, though Yang’s translation avoids the cultural misunderstanding, it seems so easy that it fails to convey Daiyu’s care and love (Zhou, 2013).

Tea sets also have an important position in tea culture in the novel. Cao describes them as precisely as possible, trying to indicate the wealth and power of the Jia family. Besides, some of these tea sets have very special and succinct names with classical tastes. Therefore, it is necessary and important to translate these tea sets correctly.

5. 右边儿上汝窑美人觚——觚内插着时鲜花卉，并茗碗痰盒等物……寂然饭毕，各有丫鬟用小茶盘捧上茶来 (Cao, 2004, p. 28)

You bian ji shang ru yao mei-ren hu — hu nei cha she shi xian hua hui, bing ming wan tan he deng wu …… ji ran fan bi, ge you yahuan yong xiao cha pan peng shang cha lai.

Version 1: On the left-hand table were a tripod, spoons, chopsticks, and an incense container; on the right one, a slender-waisted porcelain vase from the Ruzhou Kiln containing flowers then in season, as well as tea-bowls and a spittoon. The meal was eaten in silence. And immediately after, tea was brought in on small trays (Yang & Cladys, 1994, pp. 56-59)

Version 2: On the left-hand one was a small, square, four-legged ding, together with a bronze ladle, metal chopsticks, and an incense container. On the right-hand one was a narrow-waisted Ru-ware imitation with a spray of freshly cut flowers in it. When they had finished eating, a maid served each diner with tea on a little tray (Hawkes, 1973, pp. 27-29).

Here, Cao mentions “茗碗”, which is a container in the shape of a bowl and “小茶盘”, which is a tray on which to place tea cups and other tea sets. As for “小茶盘”, the translations are similar, but Hawkes omits “茗碗” because of the absence of this kind of set in Western culture.


You you xiao yang qi cha pan, nei fangzhe jiu yao cha bei bing shi jin xiao cha diao, li mian pao zhe shang deng ming cha.

Yang: teacups made in a previous reign; and gay little teacups filled with the finest tea on a small tray of western lacquer ware (Yang & Cladys, 1994, p. 1093)

Hawkes: a small japanned tea-tray on which was one of Grandmother Jia’s best China teacups and a little individual mille fiori teapot in which choicest tea was brewing (Hawkes, 1973, p. 548)

Their translations of “小洋漆茶盘” are almost the same, and both of them are correct. Besides, “旧窑” means the teacups that are made in the Song Dynasty and extremely valuable. Yang has focused on the perspective of time, but Hawkes pays more attention to the value. Therefore, Hawkes adds the information of Grandmother Jia, who holds the power of Jia family, to indicate the priceless teacups. As for the “十锦小茶吊”, Yang describes the teacups as colorful, but he fails to express the value of what
“十锦” has indicated. Also, *mille fiori* is Italian, which means thousands of flowers, indicating the colors are attractive, but it ignores the implication that the teapot itself is worth a lot of money (Zhou, 2014).

**Tea Poems**

Cao has written a total of five tea poems and some tea couplets in *A Dream of Red Mansions*. This section will discuss the two versions of translation on tea poems and make brief comments on some of them. The tea couplet has appeared in literature for a long time. It always expresses the author’s or the hero’s pleasure, leisure, or appreciation of easy life. Cao created a tea couplet in Chapter 17, when Baoyu pays a visit to the new-built mansion accompanying his father, Jia Zheng, and his friends. Arriving at the Xiaoxiang Guan, Baoyu creates a couplet to praise the unequalled beauty and tranquillity of that house.

7. 宝鼎茶闲烟尚绿，幽窗棋罢指犹凉 (Cao, 2004, p. 132).

*Bao ding cha xian yan shang lu, you lian qi ba zhi you liang.*

Yang & Dai:

Still green the smoke from tea brewed in a rare tripod;  
Yet cold the fingers from chess played by quiet window.

Hawkes:

From the empty cauldron the stream still rises after the brewing of tea  
By the darkening window the fingers are still cold after the game of Go.

This couplet portrays a situation where the environment is tranquil and peaceful, and a person is playing chess while having tea. Both of the translations have expressed the basic meaning of the original couplet. However, they have different understandings about the “幽窗”. Yang translates it as quiet window, but Hawkes darkens the window. “幽” means quiet or darkening, but in this couplet that describes Xiaoxiang Guan, a peaceful and tranquil place it is better to translate “幽” as quiet. Besides, considering the character of Daiyu, who will be the owner of Xiaoxiang Gaun, quiet is more suitable. In addition, Yang’s translation is more concise than Hawkes’ and conforms to the features of the couplet.

**Translation Strategies and Methods Employed**

Domestication and foreignization are strategies in translation. Domestication is the strategy of making the translation close to the target language and trying to minimize the understanding gap. It requires the translator to interpret in a way that the readers feel familiar with the language and culture so that they can reach the goal of enjoying the reading. Foreignization is, on the contrary, to domesticate to some extent. It is the strategy that retains information from the source text and may break the convention of the target language for the purpose of maintaining the original meaning. Foreignization often keeps the exotic features and characteristics of the source text in culture, language, convention, and so on (Dollerup, 2007, p. 100). Compared to literal translation and free translation, which usually focus on the level of language, domestication and foreignization also pay attention to culture (Liu & He, 2011, p. 113).

Generally speaking, in translating of *A Dream of Red Mansions*, Yang uses foreignization, while Hawkes uses domestication. Yang tries to spread the Chinese cultural heritage and convey the traditional Chinese culture to the target readers, so he prefers to interpret it in a way that may be similar to Chinese. The diction and sentence structures are close to the source text. Therefore, he uses foreignization. On the contrary, Hawkes often changes some elements of the source text, such as omitting some words that may be incomprehensible to the target readers, and adds some words to help them to understand. This feature can be clearly proved by the two versions of the tea poem in which Yang shows his respect to Cao Xueqin’s creativity and intelligence, as well as the profound Chinese culture; he tries to interpret the
poems in their original structure and taste. The poems he translated are as concise as Cao’s, without much added information. Yet, Hawkes has recreated these poems, to some extent, in order to provide the readers with transactions that are much easier to understand. He even ignores some of the poems to avoid confusing them. Therefore, it can be concluded that Yang Xianyi applies foreignization and Hawkes applies domestication.

Motivations of the Diversities in Translations

Different Translation principles
The thoughts of a translator are the most important factors that always have deep influence on his translation. It is necessary to investigate the flux of a translator’s thoughts before making a critical analysis and commenting on his translation. With a better understanding of his translation thoughts, the reasons why he applies certain strategies rather than others in the translation can be answered more easily. From this perspective, the first factor determines that David Hawkes and Yang Xianyi translate the tea culture in different ways. This section will show how different their thoughts about translation are.

Principles of Hawkes
David Hawkes has great and undeniable achievements in Chinese-English translation, especially that of Chinese classical literature, making outstanding contributions to the spread of Chinese culture throughout the world. In the translation of A Dream of Red Mansions, Hawkes expresses his understanding of translation as divided loyalties. Translators bear the duty to his author, to his reader, and to the text (Hawkes, 1973, p. 20). Actually, these three duties are the most essential to understanding the translation by Hawks (Dang, 2012, p. 63).

Translating consists of reproducing, in the receptor language, the closest natural equivalence of the source language’s message, first in terms of meaning and second in terms of style (Nida & Taber, 2006, p. 12). This is what Hawkes does in his translation. In addition, he also holds on to the opinion that translating is rewriting. Therefore, in his translation, rewriting is common. Sometimes, there are differences between translations and the original works. With analysis, we can find that the rewriting is usually because of the consideration of cultural difference.

Principles of Yang Xianyi
Yang Xianyi’s translation idea can be summarized in two ways: one is the duty to the author and the other is his cultural translation idea (Ren, 1993, p. 34). First, his translation is a kind of imitation. Imitating is to pay attention to every detail in the original work in order to convert every single meaningful word into another language. Forgetting oneself is a basic requirement for the translator in imitating. Guided by this principle, Yang's translation tries to represent every slight feature of A Dream of Red Mansions, no matter how insignificant or incomprehensible it is. As a result, Yang does not rewrite any words, contrary to Hawkes, who often changes the words according to the need of readers.

The duty to author has a significant influence on Yang’s translation in which he is limited by the original works. In his exchange of ideas with readers, he explains that he pays great attention to every expression in A Dream of Red Mansions without changing any meaning. Therefore, in Yang’s translation, we can not find rewriting as we do in Hawkes’. This is one of the major reasons that their translations appear to be quite different from each other. Yang’s high responsibility to the original author shapes his translation to some aspect. Besides, his view of cultural translation also plays an important role in which he shows his will to spread Chinese traditional culture to foreign readers. Yang put these principles into
practice. He focuses on the Chinese idioms, allusions, and poetry instead of ignoring them. He tries to convey the cultural meaning when translating. From the above analysis, it is clear that the different understanding of translation distinguishes Yang and Hawkes. It is a significant factor that influences the final translation.

**Cultural Factors**
Cultural differences usually have an impact on translation. Chinese culture and Western culture are two extremely difference cultures. They hardly share any of the same values, traditions, and so on, causing barriers to understanding each other. What widens the understanding gap is that *Hong Lou Meng* is an ancient Chinese novel that includes many unique cultural phenomena that are not easy to understand, even for Chinese readers. Some of them have changed, to some extent, in the past hundreds of years, making it much more difficult for translators to finish their tasks. Compared with Hawkes, Yang is much more familiar with Chinese culture. The artistic appreciation acquired from a young age enables Yang to deeply understand Chinese culture. Though Hawkes is an outstanding scholar in Sinology, his understanding of Chinese traditional culture still cannot parallel Yang’s. As a result, he chooses to ignore some terms and expressions that are difficult to understand, so omissions can be seen in his translations. On the contrary, with a better understanding, Yang tries to convey those meanings to the readers. Therefore, cultural factors influence the translation to a certain extent.

**Conclusion**
Based on different translation principles and different translation thoughts, Yang Xianyi and David Hawkes employ different translation strategies in translation of the tea culture. Yang’s translation spreads the traditional Chinese tea culture better through foreignization, while Hawkes makes the tea culture understood better in the target culture through domestication.

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On English Scenic-Spot Introduction Translations from the Perspective of Relevance Theory

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[Abstract] English scenic-spot introduction translations are of great significance to the development of tourism; however, there are many clumsy translations hindering foreigners’ understanding of the scenic spots. This thesis focuses on English scenic-spot introduction translations from the perspective of Relevance Theory in hopes to better translate English scenic-spot introductions.

[Keywords] Relevance Theory; English scenic-spot introduction translations; Optimal Relevance; processing effort; contextual effects

Introduction
Tourism is of undeniable magnitude to the economic development of a nation. For a country, inbound tourism serves as a window through which to demonstrate its picturesque natural scenery, profound history, and unique culture to the world (Yang, 2011). In addition, wherever and whenever the foreign tourists are received in China, the English language is the most frequently seen, spoken, and heard. As a result, tourism English has become a necessity to the development of China’s inbound tourism. Tourism texts embody a variety of texts with regard to the industry of tourism. “All the textual information concerning tourist resources, tourist products, tourist statistics, tourist research, tourist education, as well as transportation, accommodation, food, shopping and entertainment can be defined as tourism texts” (Chen, 2004). However, “scenic-spot introductions, as one of the most important type of tourist materials, form the hard nut for translation” (Fang & Mao, 2005). Thus, the thesis focuses on English scenic-spot translations. The majority of research on English scenic-spot translations share similar limitations. They tend to focus on the correspondence between the source texts and the target texts but ignore the expectations of foreign tourists when it comes to the English scenic-spot introduction translation. As a result, the article adopts Relevance Theory to be specific, optimal relevance-- the quality assessment criterion proposed by the Relevance Theory – to research scenic-spot introduction translations.

Relevance Theory in Translation
Generally speaking, Western scholars pay insufficient attention to the Relevance Theory and, among the existing research, the criticism of the theory seems to account more. This can be verified by several important books that introduce Western translation theory, such as Munday (2001), Gentzler (2004), Baker (2004), etc., whose books seldom touch or even never mention the Relevance Theory. However, it is generally accepted that with development of Relevance Theory research, more and more scholars will realize its great power in explaining and directing translation. At the end of the 20th century, Zhao Yanchun predicted this trend by the following words: “Relevance Theory is a powerful theory, whose mission is not to account for translation. But it performs well in accounting for translation, ‘the most complicated matter in the universe’. It provides translation with a unified theoretical framework and lays, the theoretical foundation of ontology and methodology for translation” (Zhao, 1999).
**Key Concepts in Relevance Theory**

In Relevance Theory, ostensive-inferential communication is defined as follows: “The communicator produces a stimulus which makes it mutually manifest to communicator and audience that the communicator intends, by means of this stimulus, to make manifest or more manifest to the audience a set of assumptions I” (Sperber & Wilson, 2001). In other words, an assumption is mutually manifest to the communicator and the audience at a given time if and only if they are able at that time to represent it mentally and accept its representation as true or probably true. Human communication is ostensive in that the communicator deliberately supplies stimulus to make his or her intention manifest to the hearer and is inferential in that the hearer infers what the communicator intends from the ostension, which refers to the types of behaviors that “makes manifest an intention to make something manifest” (Sperber & Wilson, 2001).

Sperber and Wilson define relevance as “Extent condition 1: an assumption is relevant in a context to the extent that its contextual effects in this context are larger. Extent condition 2: an assumption is relevant in a context to the extent that the effort required to process it in this context is small” (Sperber & Wilson, 2001). According to the definition, relevance is a comparative concept that is determined by two factors: the contextual effects and the processing effort. Relevance is then defined as proportional to the amount of contextual effects and inversely proportional to the processing effort required to recover these effects. In Relevance Theory, “the presumption of optimal relevance communicated by every act of ostensive communication is defined as: a) the ostensive stimulus is relevant enough for it to be worth the addressee's effort to process it; b) the ostensive stimulus is the most relevant one compatible with the communicator's abilities and preferences” (Sperber & Wilson, 2001). It demonstrates where the interests of the communicator and the audience coincide; to achieve his or her communicative intention, the communicator must present the most relevant stimulus that calls for the least effort.

**Understanding of Translation from Relevance Theory**

Gutt defines translation as an act of interlingual ostensive-inferential communication, which involves two sub-processes of communication: one between the original writer and the translator and the other between the translator and the target reader – and a translation, as a product, should resemble the original in relevant aspects, namely, a translation should be a target language text which interpretively resembles the original. Relevance Theory proposes that translation is a dual communicative process of ostension-inference, taken part in by three parties, namely, the writer, the translator, and the target reader. It is given that optimal relevance guarantees the success of communication, whether a translation is good or not can be judged by whether it has achieved optimal relevance or not.

When translation is considered as an interpretive use, the principle of relevance is understood as a presumption of optimal resemblance: what the translator attempts to express is presumed to interpretively resemble the original, and the resemblance it displays is to be in conformity with the presumption of optimal relevance; namely, is presumed to achieve adequate contextual effects without unnecessary processing effort. Therefore, the principle of relevance restricts what the translator should convey and how the translator conveys it. With regard to the question of in what aspects the intended translation should interpretively resemble, the key is in respects that can be expected to make it adequately relevant to the receptor language's audience. As for how the translation is expressed, the answer is that it should be expressed in a clear and natural manner and that it yields the intended interpretation without being unnecessarily difficult to understand or demand gratuitous processing effort.
On Scenic-Spot Introduction Translation

Scenic-Spot Name Translation
Names of scenic spots can be classified as proper names, and it is well-known that a proper name can be used referentially, which means that a proper name can denote, refer to, or identify a person or an object. However, what is not well-known is that a proper name, even if it isn’t a description itself, is associated with the traits of its referent in a loose type of way, according to Searle. In the terms of the Relevance Theory, the informative intention conveyed by a scenic-spot name is both a referent of a definite place and an imprecise depiction of the place, but with reference of a definite place as the priority. Hence, the translator should produce translated scenic-spot names that make manifest to the foreign tourists the referents and descriptions of definite places. For example, the Chinese scenic-spot name of “Bi Feng Gorge” does not function just as a mark representing a place, but also conveys some description of the place referred to: there are gorges in the designated place (Zhu, 2009). There is one important point that is worth mentioning: although as proper name, scenic-spot names can provide brief and vague descriptions of the scenic spots; they chiefly refer to a place.

However, owing to language differences and the different cognitive environment of Chinese and foreign tourists, when it is impossible for the translator to make manifest to the foreign tourists, both the informative intention of the scenic-spot name – referents and descriptions of definite places – the translator should intend his or her translation to transfer the optimal relevance – the referents. For example, “Sansu Temple,” reveals in its name its historical significance in the Chinese mind, which commemorates the three celebrated scholars of the Su Family in the Song Dynasty, namely, Su Xun and his two sons Su Shi (the elder son) and Su Zhe (the younger one). However, its historical associations are missed in the translation. In other words, the vague depiction made manifest to the original reader by the scenic names is omitted in the translation. What actually is maintained is just a referent of a certain place because the scenic-spot name, as a proper name, is used primarily, even though under no circumstances is it used exclusively for referring. In addition, any educated Chinese person has an idea of who “Sansu” stands for, whereas a foreign tourist has no idea. If the translation attempts to make all the informative intentions manifest to the foreign tourist, it is inevitable that a rather long translation with an explanation of “Sansu” will be produced. The translation of the scenic-spot name can be “The Temple Commemorating the Three Famous Poets of the Su Family in Song Dynasty,” which results in the greatly-increased processing efforts on the part of the foreign tourists and the greatly-downplayed referring function of the scenic-spot name. Instead of translating the scenic-spot name that way, the translator consciously or unconsciously applies the principle of translation according to Relevance Theory – interpretively resembling the original and transferring the optimal relevance – and uses a brief translation to convey the referent in view of the context, which is mostly possible for the foreign tourists to utilize.

Translation of Culturally-Abounding Elements
Scenic-spot introductions are packed with cultural elements, which should be preserved to the largest degree in the translated texts because they are of great charm to foreign tourists. However, some cultural elements are so unique that foreigners have no required cognitive contexts to acquire the contextual effects. If the translator conveys the cultural factors completely without consideration of foreign tourists’ cognitive contexts, then the processing effort on the part of foreign tourists will definitely surge, thus
failing to achieve optimal relevance. Therefore, the translator should not make his translated texts require an unreasonable level of processing effort in order to ensure the complete translation of cultural elements. Instead, the translator should be satisfied with his translation as long as his translation achieves the optimal balance between contextual effects and processing effort.

For example, the part of the Mengding Mountain introduction is translated as “In the Song Dynasty… The fantastic line of ‘The Yangtze River tops the waters, the Mengshan tea is best of its kind’ as a poetic masterpiece. Li Bai, Bai Juyi, Meng Jiao and Liu Yuxi wrote numerous magnificent poems and articles in praise of Mengshan tea. Such accolades attest to the supreme excellence of Mengshan tea, and bring its culture greater vitality and fame” (Zhu, 2007). In the example, “In the Song Dynasty” is directly translated. However, it is generally hard for foreign tourists to identify the informative intention, for the majority of them have so little knowledge about Chinese dynasties that they do not know when the Song Dynasty exactly was. The increase in resemblance of Zhu’s translation with the original is obviously accompanied with the surge of processing effort on the part of foreign tourists. What “In the Song Dynasty” mainly makes manifest to the original reader is a period of time. So if the translation can also make manifest to the foreign tourist the same period of time, then the optimal relevance is achieved. Instead of the literal translation, the free translation of “during the period of time from 960 A.D. to 1279 A.D.” is easy for foreign tourists to understand the time referred to, which perfectly supplies the information that will accomplish optimal relevance in the specific context of the foreign tourist. If the historical period is worth the processing effort of the foreign tourist, an added translation can better serve the purpose, namely, the translation is “In the Song Dynasty (during the period of time from 960 A.D. to 1279 A.D.).”

A similar case is that the names of famous poets all appear in such form of Chinese Pinyin as “Li Bai, Bai Juyi, Meng Jiao, and Liu Yuxi” in the translated texts. These names make sense to Chinese tourists because they are names of great poets to Chinese tourists, but they make no sense to foreign tourists. So it is unavoidable that even though the names of famous poets are fully translated to English, the speaker-intended contextual effects are still lost. In order to achieve the optimal relevance in the translation, it is a necessity to add the famous ancient Chinese poets before “Li Bai, Bai Juyi, Meng Jiao and Liu Yuxi” in the translated texts. Given the analysis of Zhu’s translation, it can be concluded that the translator should preserve as many cultural elements as possible in the translation, as long as the processing effort can be controlled at a reasonable level.

**Translation of Scenic-Spot Introduction Style**

The typical Chinese way of introducing scenery is subjective (combining emotion and scenery) and implicit with much space for the readers to give the rein to their imagination, whereas the English one is objective (without direct expression of emotion) and clear and direct. In order to make the translated tourism texts achieve optimal relevance, the styles of translated ones should be in accord with the preferences of the foreign tourists. In view of the style differences between the Chinese tourism texts and the English tourism ones, it is necessary for the translator to know the differences and transform the style in translation, which will decrease the processing effort while achieving the adequate contextual effects.

For example, the part of English translation of Jiu Zhai Gou Valley introductions “…Rippling in breezes, the lakes glitter brilliantly in the sunshine. The alpine lakes are as still and smooth as mirrors when the breeze stops, reflecting flawlessly the trees, the azure sky, the white clouds and the mountains nearby…seeing highland ducks swimming on the blue water and hearing the birds chirping in the
mountains, you will sense the immensity of the lakes and comprehend the profound significance of our earthly paradise” (Zhu, 2007). The Chinese version is typical of Chinese style of tourism texts: wide use of four-character expressions, vague description of scenery, and emotional expression. If the description of scenery is translated to English word by word, in the eyes of the foreign tourists, “it will appear too ambiguous and vague to be true…even though English scenery description uses rhetorical methods, such as personification and exaggeration, yet it tends to be objective so as to leave the readers with a visually distinct impression” (Jia, 2003). Instead of the word-by-word translation, Mr. Zhu changes the style and “rewrites” the Chinese text to adapt to the English style. To be specific, the vague description is transformed to objective description of specific scenery: “a thousand levels of green tides” and “ten thousand of bright spots” is “rewritten” as “Rippling in breezes, the lakes glitter brilliantly in the sunshine” and expressions used to express emotion is replaced with the direct feeling after viewing the scenery. “The saint and pure water will wash away the sadness of the world and perpetuate the life” as pure expression of emotion, is deleted in the translated text and is substituted by “you will sense the immensity of the lakes and comprehend the profound significance of our earthly paradise,” the tourists’ direct feeling after they witness the scenery. By means of these changes, the contextual effects are increased in the translated text for the foreign tourists to gain a clearer impression of what the scenic-spot looks like and, meanwhile, the processing effort is decreased for the tourists who are used to the way of describing scenery, thus achieving optimal relevance.

**Conclusion**

In Relevance Theory, “the translator’s…task is to ensure that the receptor language text he comes up with is the most relevant [ostensive stimulus] the communicator could have used to communicate [I]” (Gutt, 2004). In simple words, the task of the translator is transference of the optimal relevance. In the translation of scenic-spot introductions, the translator should evaluate the preference and the cognitive contexts of the foreign tourists carefully, try to optimally balance the processing efforts and the contextual efforts and achieve the optimal relevance in the translation without being strictly confined by the original texts. When the increase in processing effort cannot be justified, the translator should be ready to accept the fact that sometimes losses in contextual effects are inevitable in translation in order to maintain the processing effort at a reasonable level. The application of Relevance Theory in scenic-spot introduction translations can produce better translations, which can convey the most similar informative intentions of the original without demanding processing efforts on the part of foreign travelers. Although some elements are omitted in the translated scenic-spot introductions compared to the original one, the parts translated can transfer the optimal relevance given the cognitive contexts and preference of the foreign tourists. As a result, it is of great assistance for the tourism text translators to consult the Relevance Theory when they translate the texts.

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Approaches to English-Chinese Legal Terminology Translation

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[Abstract] Informed by Nida’s theory of functional equivalence translation and Sarcevic’s view of legal term equivalence, this paper identifies the roles of formal equivalence and functional equivalence in the translation of legal terminologies from English to Chinese and explores the strategies for the translation of English-Chinese legal terms by distinction of near equivalence, partial equivalence and non-equivalence. It further addresses the consistency and conventionality of legal term translation and concludes with the expectation of its standardization and unification in the future.

[Keywords] legal terminology; legal term; legal translation; formal equivalence; functional equivalence

Introduction
Legal terminology refers to the language reference of legal concepts and it is the embodiment of legal essence rooted in national legal systems. As the product of different institutions, histories, cultures, and sometimes socio-economic principles, each legal system has its own legal regalia and thus its own conceptual system and even knowledge structure (Vanderlinden, 1995). This means that legal terms have meanings only in the context of the existence of a legal system and only through particular rules of law (Hart, 1954). Hence, translating legal texts from one legal system into the language of a different legal system is difficult, even if the legal languages are closely related, but problems increase considerably when translation is undertaken between very different legal systems which use languages that are not or hardly related (De Groot, 1987, p. 5). In the case of translation between English and Chinese legal terminologies, since China’s legal system is quite different from the common law legal family with America and Britain as the representative countries and Chinese and English are distinct in their linguistic and cultural traditions, considerable difficulties may arise when looking for appropriate renditions. Therefore, this paper intends to address these problems by discussing different approaches to legal translation and put forward viable and concrete translation strategies for the translation of legal terminologies from English to Chinese.

Legal Translation Approaches
In traditional translation theory, legal texts have been regarded as a special case within the general framework of LSP (Language for Special Purposes) texts. Therefore, before getting down to legal translation methods, it is meaningful to summarize the two most important translation approaches: (a) formal equivalence (literal translation); (b) functional equivalence (free translation).

Historically, legal texts have always been treated as sensitive texts and the preservation of the “letter” rather than the effective rendering has been the focus of legal translation. Dating back to the era of the Roman empire, it was decreed that formal correspondence between source and target texts was essential to preserve the meaning of both Biblical and legal documents (Sarcevic, 1997). This was underpinned by belief in the magical properties of the logos: if the wording was changed, the incantatory force might be lost (Harvey, 2002). Therefore, under a purely formal perspective, legal texts are formulaic, being subject to very strict stylistic conventions in terms of register and diction as well as
highly codified genre structures (Garzone, 2000). The “frozen patterns of language which allow little or no variation in form” (Baker, 1992, p. 63) require systematic adherence to the structures of source legal texts at all levels, varying from words, sentences and paragraphs to texts, in the process of translation. Consequently, the only resort available for translators is formal parallelism (literal approach), supplemented at most by gloss translation.

The application of the strict literal approach to legal translation was not really challenged until in the 19th and early 20th century, when multi-ethnic countries endowed themselves with multilingual legislation and the rise in national language consciousness in bilingual or multilingual countries resulted in greater respect for the target language (Sarcevic, 1997). All the translations of statutes were supposed to have the same authentic status and this gave rise to the need to improve the quality of the parallel texts of legislative instruments (Garzone, 2000). Eventually, legal translation shifted towards a more flexible approach. Then the principle of legal equivalence emerged (Beaupré, 1986), which takes the legal effects of translated texts in the target culture into consideration. In terms of general translation theory, the principle of legal equivalence is akin to the following concepts: mutatis mutandis, dynamic equivalence, functional equivalence, pragmatic equivalence and communicative translation. In accordance with the principle of legal equivalence, legal translation seeks to achieve identity of meaning between source and target texts, i.e. identity of both propositional content and legal effects (Sager, 1993), meanwhile reflecting the author’s intent (Neubert & Shreve, 1992). Although the advent of the legal equivalence principle marked a shift to a more flexible and dynamic attitude towards legal translation, the ultimate goal of it still takes the source text as the benchmark of assessing translation standards.

Despite the advances of legal translation theories, linguistic fidelity is still frequently required of legal translators (Kasirer, 2000). Evidences include: American translators are advised not to alter the length of sentences to avoid imposing their own interpretation (Beyer & Conradsen, 1995); the UN Instructions for Translators provides that “fidelity to the original text must be the first consideration” (as cited in Sarcevic, 1997, p. 16). This literal view of fidelity reflects the positivist tradition in legal interpretation, which holds that the meaning of a legislative text is “declared”, rather than being construed or created, by the person interpreting it (Kasirer, 2000).

Virtually, the theory of functional equivalence translation proposed by Nida (1993) is particularly suitable for legal translation by making a somewhat division of work between the formal equivalence (literal) approach and the functional equivalence (free) approach. According to Nida’s theory, functional equivalence is appropriate when formal translation: (1) is likely to result in a misunderstanding of the designative meaning; (2) makes no sense, i.e. is totally obscure in designative meaning; (3) is so semantically and syntactically difficult that the average person for whom the translation is being made is very likely to give up trying to understand it; (4) is likely to result in serious misunderstanding of the associative meanings of the source text or a significant loss in a proper appreciation for the stylistic values of the source text (Nida, 1993). In short, both formal equivalence and functional equivalence contribute jointly to translation. And functional equivalence translation will not come into play until formal equivalence translation fails to play its role.

**Strategies for Legal Terminology Translation**

Based on the previous work, Sarcevic (1997, pp. 238-239) further divided the equivalence of legal concepts (terms) across legal systems into three different types: near equivalence, partial equivalence and non-equivalence: (1) Near Equivalence: The optimum degree of equivalence is referred to as near
equivalence, which occurs when concepts A and B share all of their essential and most of their accidental characteristics (intersection) or when concept A contains all of the characteristics of concept B and concept B all of the essential and most of the accidental characteristics of concept A (inclusion); (2) Partial Equivalence: In the majority of cases functional equivalents are only partially equivalent. Partial equivalence occurs when concepts A and B share most of their essential and some of their accidental characteristics (intersection) or when concept A contains all of the characteristics of concept B but concept B only most of the essential and some of the accidental characteristics of concept A (inclusion); (3) Non-Equivalence: If only a few or none of the essential features of concepts A and B coincide (intersection) or if concept A contains all of the characteristics of concept B but concept B only a few or none of the essential features of concept A (inclusion), then the functional equivalent can no longer be considered acceptable. In such cases, one speaks of non-equivalence. Furthermore, non-equivalence also occurs in cases where there is no functional equivalent in the target legal system for a particular source concept. In such cases one speaks of exclusion.

"Undoubtedly the translator’s greatest challenge when translating the fact-situation of a legal rule is to find suitable ways of compensating for conceptual incongruency (Sarcevic, 1997, p. 149)."

Briefly, Nida’s functional equivalence principles deal with translation theory in general, while Sarcevic’s distinction of equivalence of legal concepts (terms) gives specific and detailed discussions of legal term translation. Both of them provide enlightening and effective guidance to the translation of legal terms from different levels (the former from the macro level and the latter from the micro level). By the combination of Nida’s functional equivalence principles and Sarcevic’s distinction of equivalence of legal concepts (terms), strategies for legal term translation can be summarized as follows.

1. The primary criterion for legal term translation is linguistic fidelity to the original text and the first consideration is formal translation.
2. If formal translation fails to play its due part and produce a satisfactory result, i.e. when either of the four conditions put forward by Nida occurs, the functional equivalence approach shall be adopted.
3. When taking the functional equivalence approach, Sarcevic’s distinction of equivalence of legal concepts (terms) can be referred to in deciding the concrete translation methods.

For near-equivalence legal terms, the legal functional equivalent in the target language is acceptable in translation. For partial-equivalence legal terms, it is inadequate to simply adopt the legal functional equivalent in the target language. Notes explaining the discrepancy between the source language legal terms and the target language terms are necessary. For non-equivalence legal terms, the methods of borrowing, transcription, neologism or description are all ready resorts for legal translators.

Application of the Strategies in English-Chinese Legal Terminology Translation
Based on Nida’s functional equivalence principles and Sarcevic’s distinction of three types of equivalence of legal concepts (terms), the examples below will illustrate in details how the strategies for legal terminology translation can be applied in English-Chinese legal translation.

Formal Equivalence Translation (Literal Approach)
As the priority choice in legal translation, if the conditions of functional equivalence translation put forward by Nida (1993) do not occur, the best and safest policy is to adopt formal translation between English and Chinese legal terms. Examples are: “community property” is translated into Chinese as “共同
Functional Equivalence Translation (Free Approach)

Given that legal terms are created for a particular legal system closely related to the cultures, values and legal traditions of a nation, most legal terms are culture-bound and do not have straightforward equivalents in a target language (Janulevičienė & Rackevičienė, 2011). The discussion below will deal with translation of this type of legal terms which lack straightforward counterparts between English and Chinese.

Near equivalence. As a result of the separate and different legal traditions and cultures, near equivalents of legal terms between English and Chinese legal systems are in the minority. For example, the legal concept “limited liability partnership” in the Anglo-American legal system has been introduced into the Law of the People’s Republic of China on Partnerships, thus its closest natural legal equivalent in Chinese law is “特殊的普通合伙企业 (teshudeputonghehuoqiye)”. However, when translating the Chinese term “特殊的普通合伙企业 (teshudeputonghehuoqiye)” back into English, the current English rendition is “specialized general partnerships”, which is the result of formal translation and may cause confusion among the target audience.

Moreover, some seemingly near legal equivalents are not near, which are called faux amis or false cognates. They are so deceptive and misleading that deserve translators’ attention and caution. For instance, in the US Federal Rules of Civil Procedure, “summary judgment” is a decision made by a court on the basis of statements and evidence presented for the record without a trial. It is used when there is no dispute as to the facts of the case and one party is entitled to judgment as a matter of law. A commonly seen misleading mistranslation of “summary judgment” into Chinese is “简易判决 (jianyipanjue)”, because in the Civil Procedure Law of the People’s Republic of China, there is a seemingly similar legal term “简易程序 (jianyichengxu)”, which means that when trying simple civil cases in which the facts are evident, relationship of rights and obligations is definite, and disputes are minor, the grassroots people’s courts and the tribunals dispatched by them may apply the summary procedure.

Civil cases to which summary procedure is applied shall be tried by a single judge alone and the people’s court shall close it within three months from filing the case. From the comparison of the two, “summary judgment” in American law is different from “简易程序 (jianyichengxu)” (i.e. the summary procedure) in Chinese law at least in respect that the former is entered into without a full trial while the latter is carried out under a trial. Therefore, in order to avoid confusion, a better rendition of “summary judgment” would be “即决判决 (jijuepanjue)”.  

Partial equivalence. When the legal terms in English and Chinese are partially equivalent, in order to compensate for the incongruence, a commonly used translation method is legal expansion with explanatory notes. Take the legal term “juror” in the English common law system for instance. The juror is a person who serves on a jury, which is a group of citizens summoned and sworn to decide on the facts in issue at a trial. A jury is composed of the peers or a cross-section of the community. In comparison, the legal term “陪审员 (peishenyuan)” (i.e. people’s assessors) in the Chinese legal system refers to members of the divisions of the courts in which they participate and enjoy equal rights with the judges during the period of the exercise of their functions in the people’s courts. Citizens who have the right to vote and to stand for election and have reached the age of 23 are eligible to be elected people’s assessors,
but persons who have ever been deprived of political rights are excluded. Apparently, people’s assessors in the Chinese legal system participate in the decision of both factual and legal questions, which is a distinctive discrepancy from the “juror” who decides only factual questions in the English common law system. Hence, when translating English “juror” into Chinese “陪审员 (peishenyuan)”, it would be better to add notes to explain the differences between the two.

**Non-equivalence.** Where there are no functional equivalents in the target legal system, in order to compensate for the gap, the translator has to produce an alternative equivalent by borrowing, transcription, neologism (coinage) or description (paraphrasing). Sometimes the translation even becomes rather an exercise in comparative law and the search for legal equivalence may render a fairly descriptive text (Beaupré, 1986). For example, the legal term “plea bargain” in American criminal procedure refers to a negotiation between the defendant and his attorney on one side and the prosecutor on the other, in which the defendant agrees to plead “guilty” or “no contest” to some crimes, in return for reduction of the severity of the charges, dismissal of some of the charges, the prosecutor’s willingness to recommend a particular sentence or some other benefit to the defendant. However, in the Chinese legal system there is no functional equivalent or similar legal procedure although there is a judicial slogan “be lenient with those who confess and be severe with those who refuse to”. Consequently, when translating “plea bargain” into Chinese, an alternative equivalent can be created by the method of neologism, the result of which is the widely accepted version “辩诉交易 (biansujiayi)”.

**Conclusion and Implications**

To sum up, when translating a term from one language into a term in another language, it is the task of comparative terminology to go back to the concepts associated with the terms in question and examine whether they do actually correspond (Lane, 1982). Nida’s theory of functional equivalence and Sarcevic’s systematic distinction of equivalence of legal concepts (terms) are practical and helpful guidelines for legal terminology translation. Apart from these, with reference to China’s national standard GB/T10112-1999 Terminology Work-Principles and Methods, it is equally important to bear the following two features of legal terms in mind in the process of English-Chinese legal terminology translation.

First, the renditions of legal terms in the target language should be consistent. Currently, some English legal terms have multiple Chinese renditions and a few are even contradictory to each other. For example, for the Chinese renditions of the English legal terms “exclusive license” and “sole license”, some prefer “排他许可 (paitaxuke)” for “exclusive license” and “独占许可 (duzhanxuke)” for “sole license”; while some others use the opposite; some render “sole license” into “独家许可 (dujiaxuke)”; while others translate “exclusive license” into “独家许可 (dujiaxuke)”. This situation may lead to confusion and misunderstanding among the target audience and even damage to the authority and solemnity of law.

Second, the translation of legal terms should comply with conventions. Legal translators are expected to follow the already widely accepted translated Chinese legal terms instead of creating new ones. Take the English legal term “contempt of court” for example. Now that the most widely accepted Chinese rendition of it is “藐视法庭 (miaoshifating)”, translators shall not turn to other synonymous renditions such as “蔑视法庭 (mieshifating)” or “轻视法庭 (qingshifating)”. From this perspective, conventionality is closely linked to and echoes with consistency.
In brief, the translation of legal terminologies should be guided by explicit and clear legal and translation theories as put forward above. Besides, the Chinese translations of English legal terminologies are expected to be further standardized and unified in the future.

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Creative Treason in English-Chinese Film Title Translation

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[Abstract] With the increasing cultural exchanges between China and Western countries, English film title translation has caught people’s attention. As a theory proposed by Robert Escarpit in 1961, creative treason has played an indispensable part in film title translation, especially in English film title translation. This paper tries to find grounds for the existence of creative treason and give creative treason an explicit identification; it also as encourages and advocates wider use of creative treason in other fields of translation.

[Keywords] creative treason; English film title translation; culture

Introduction
As the development of globalization is deepening and interaction between China and Western countries is increasing, there are more and more cultural communications. English film, as a popular cultural art form has played an important role in people’s daily lives and has caught their attention. A good translated film not only attracts a greater audience, but it also can create high box office value and convey cultural connotations. In order to be more competitive and gain high profits in the Chinese film market, companies try their best to cater to the taste of the Chinese audience by localizing their films. One common way is the localization of film titles, which adds a crowning touch to the film.

In order to be accepted by the Chinese audience, an English film title is translated from the perspective of Chinese culture to meet the needs of audience. The translated version should be consistent with its target cultural identification and practices. The English film title, as a form of language, is not only the carrier of culture, but also a component part of culture. Thus, the eye-catching and meaningful film titles, to some extent, decide whether the film will be popular with its audience. Besides, it is inevitable that there are barriers between two cultures, and it is impossible to find complete counterpart to each other. Then, creative treason can be an efficient means to cross cultural barriers and faithfully convey the connotative meaning of the film.

When it comes to creative treason, maybe more attention will be intuitively paid to the word “treason,” which is not comprehensive because the essence of creative treason lies in creativity. Creative treason has long been the debating point among the translators, and until now it has not been widely adopted in the English film title translation. A good translated film title is greatly affected by creative treason and an excellent translated film title could not appear without the guidance of creative treason. Thus, it is necessary that creative treason should be taken into consideration. This paper discusses creative treason in English film title translation, including its definition, features, functions, etc., in detail, and tries to analyze the application of creative treason in English film title translation through exemplification. Finally, studying creative treason use in English-Chinese title translation provides more evidence for its wide use in other fields of translation.
Literature Review

Definition of Creative Treason
The word “treason” in the dictionary means the crime of doing something against one’s country, such as helping its enemies during a war. From the dictionary explanation of “treason,” it can be seen that “treason” originally refers to violation and disobedience to something. Later, the proposal of creative treason puts “treason” in a totally different and concrete situation. In Italy, the proverb “Traduttore Traditore” aroused controversy in translation, which laid the foundation for the appearance of creative treason. The term “creative treason” comes from the field of comparative literary study and was first put forward by French literary sociologist Robert Escarpit in 1961 in *Sociologie de la Literature*. He considers creative treason from the whole communication process of translation and refers to creative treason as a translator’s deviation from the author’s intention in literary translation by applying strategies. Creative treason, in the process of translation, is creation as well as betrayal. He gives people a chance to think about film title translation from a new perspective.

As a matter of fact, the proposal of creative treason helps the field of translation thrive. However, the identification of creative treason has not been fixed, and explanations of it vary in translation. Researchers from different perspectives study creative treason, such as comparative literature, deconstructionism, adaptability, etc. Therefore, creative treason is identified variously. It is regarded as a theory, a phenomenon, a method, or the character of translation activities. Researchers and scholars do not give creative treason a strict identification and explicit explanations.

Strictly speaking, creative treason cannot be called a theory for lack of adequate scientific basis. Besides, the practical use of creative treason is based on the studies of the phenomenon. So, in this paper, the creative treason is studied as a phenomenon, and the definition of creative treason is explored in the field of film title translation. Just as everything has an extent, so does creative treason. Here, creative treason is not mistranslation, and it can be defined as follows. It is treason and lies in that it introduces the source work into a completely different cultural background and language form; it is creative in that it endows source work with new appearance and without connotation change, which makes it possible for the original work to have a new form to meet the needs of audience from the target culture, to lengthen the life of the original work, or even bring it a new life. So, “translation is always of creative treason” (Escarpit, 1961, p. 16).

Studies in China
In China, Professor XieTianzhen (1999) first mentioned it in his work *Medio-Translatology*. He makes creative treason a more concrete form and combines it with literary works translation. He holds that if creativity in literary translation shows a kind of subjective effort of the translator to reach and to reproduce the original works with his own artistic creative ability, then the treason in it reflects a kind of objective betrayal caused by translators’ subjective wishes. In other words, it seems that creativity and treason cannot be separated, though they form a kind of contradiction. They are complementary to each other.

Since the 1980s, creative treason has been taken as the main studying object in comparative literary works. Among the researchers, Professor Xie Tianzhen is the most outstanding. Other noted Chinese scholars, also, have researched it. Xu Jun (2002), when talking about literary translation, points out that treason seems to constitute the dual-characteristic of faithfulness and translation. Stiff faithfulness may
lead to treason, while smart treason might well reflect faithfulness. It also shows that faithfulness is not only in form, but also in connotation. Sun Zhili (2001) considers that as absolute faithfulness is impossible, treason in translation is unavoidable. Dong Ming (2003) thinks that descriptive translation study provides a satisfactory solution to traditional translation. In descriptive translation theory, translation is studied in various contexts, including political, ideological, economical, and cultural contexts. Nothing is completely absolute, and it is more accurate if something is discussed in specific situations. Then the meaning of creative treason in context will be realistic and meaningful. After Professor Xie Tianzhen’s Medio-Translatology, academic circles have done a lot of research on creative treason, and different explanations of it have been mushrooming. Among them, explanations from Xu Jun’s and Zha Mingjian’s are more reasonable, which make creative treason a more concrete form and more practical theory.

**Studies Abroad**

Overseas, Otsuka Yukio in his *The Principle of Comparative Literature* (1985) notes that translation usually is a kind of ‘creative treason’ – not a “negation” or “copy.” As to creative treason, it should be respected and even be thanked by the writer, for it expands the life of works and enlarges the reading expansion. Ulrich Weisstein (1987) mentioned creative treason in his *Comparative Literature and Literary Theory*. Otsuka Yukio (1985) and Ulrich Weisstein introduced ‘creative treason’ into literary translation, and exerted a profound impact on Chinese literary translation. Besides, there is the concept of the “transparent pane of glass,” and Norman Shapiro explains it as translation as the attempt to produce a text so transparent that it does not seem to be translated (Ouyang, 2001). However, we all know that it is unrealistic to reach the standard; it is just an ideal that cannot be realized. Translators should try to do their best to reflect the connotation through creative treason.

Owing to subjective and objective reasons, there are also shortcomings of their studies. For example, first, there are still various explanations about creative treason that can easily cause confusion. There is a great need that the definition of creative treason should be clarified. Second, there are differences about the existence and the feasibility of creative treason. That is why the use of creative treason is restricted. Third, whether the use of creative treason will cause unfaithfulness to the source works or not is still a controversy. All the challenges creative treason meets will leave much room for further study on creative treason.

**Analysis of Creative Treason in E-C Film Title Translation**

Film title translation, as a kind of translation phenomenon, is very different from other kinds of translation. It is a combination of audience’s practical needs and translators’ creativity. Besides, the use of creative treason use in film title translation indeed helps the orientation of an English film in the Chinese market. Creative treason has not been formally and widely accepted and adopted in translation. Therefore, it is of great need to make a study on the creative treason phenomenon and give creative treason an explicit identification. In this part, the creative treason phenomenon is analyzed and studied to find existing grounds for wider use of creative treason in other fields.

**The Role of Creative Treason**

For its “treason” to traditional translation, creative treason has confused translators and aroused a great shock in translation. However, it is an effective theory in guiding the E-C film title translation. When it
comes to cultural differences, the introduction of creative treason can assist the success of film title translation, which can easily bridge cultural gaps and make the translated version be more vivid. Besides, creative treason is helpful in catering to the aesthetic taste of the Chinese audience, which can make the original work more acceptable. For instance, the use of creative treason in the translation of the film title *Sideways* 《杯酒人生》 is a success. The term “sideways” originally refers to the movement at an angle, but the use of creative treason bridges the cultural gap and endows the film with aesthetic value, making the film more acceptable to the target audience, though the language form is totally changed. The use of creative treason links film contents and topic because the film tells a love story through the medium of wine, which will not betray but will be correspondent to the original one. It can be seen that, for one part, the application of creative treason into film title translation cannot be avoided; for the other part, creative treason theory plays an indispensable part in the E-C title translation.

**Present Situation of Creative Treason**
Creative treason, as a phenomenon in translation, has not been totally accepted by scholars in translation, even in English-Chinese film title translation. The people who support creative treason hold that it can smoothly and creatively bridge the cultural gap between two cultures, as well as find a balance point between two forms of language translation. Those who are against creative treason think that the inaccurate use or overuse of creative treason will lead to unfaithfulness to the original work and failure of translation. The controversy in the acceptance of creative treason actually lies in the unclear definition of creative treason, which leads to different extents to the definition of creative treason. Without solving the differences, the creative treason cannot be really put into practice. So, it is necessary that we pay attention to the controversy of creative treason acceptance. For example, the translation of *Sleepless in Seattle* arouses controversy about it. It is translated as 《缘分天空》 or 《西雅图不眠夜》. The first version is guided by creative treason, which is said to be unfaithful to the target work, while the second one cannot truly reflect the connotation of the film. Thus, the controversy about creative treason in English film title translation basically depends on its different definitions.

**Factors Affecting the Use of Creative Treason**
Creative treason can be a double-edged sword, which can make the film more popular with its audience if it is applied appropriately, but it can be a big flaw of the whole film if it is used wrongly. There are some factors that exert influence on the creative treason in film title translation—cultural differences, commercial purposes, and aesthetic values. Knowing the affecting factors well is crucial to the application of creative treason in film title translation.

**Cultural Differences**
As the preeminent translator Eugene A. Nida (2004) puts it, language is part of culture and any contextual connotation reflects corresponding culture directly or indirectly: the meaning of language would be found only in corresponding culture. Culture is a vital factor that exerts its influence on the whole film, and the film title is also not an exception. Translation, as a form of language, is rooted in two cultures, which includes thinking patterns, cultural connotations, etc. The abundant connotations that an English film title reflects is the keynote for understanding the film. Due to different living environment, the English and the Chinese think very differently. For instance, people in China consider red and dragon as two lucky symbols, while the English regard them as bloody and violent. Besides, the English are objective and
concrete, while the Chinese are subjective and abstract in thinking patterns, which determine the differences in language style use.

The once hot movie *Inception* is translated as 《盗梦空间》，which is firm evidence for thinking pattern differences and creative treason use. Literally, the word “inception” means an event that is a beginning or a first part or stage of subsequent events. Through its English version, nothing except something mysterious will be sensed. As a matter of fact, the application of creative treason crosses this obstacle and makes it a better one. It seems that the Chinese version betrays the original one; actually, it is faithful to the original. Furthermore, the cultural connotation cannot be neglected. We can take the movie title *The Third Man* as an example. Normally, when it occurs to our Chinese minds, we will intuitively think the film as an ethical one about love because, in Chinese, “the third man” refers to a man or woman who is a pander. As the English version gives an illusion, the title was once translated as 《第三者》，which misled and confused the Chinese audience. Actually, it is a thrilling movie telling a story about how a detective novel writer finds the third man (witness) that did not show up and investigates the conspiracy behind his friend’s “death.”

If it is translated as 《第三人》，the result will be different, which will not puzzle the audience and leave enough space for arousing viewers’ curiosity – the translator exerts his subjective creativity. Both of the two movie titles use the creative treason. If the translator does not take the cultural differences into account, then it will cause misunderstanding and negatively impact the film, let alone reach the goal of cultural communication. Thus, in the process of English film title translation, the cultural differences greatly influence film title translation, and the creative treason is destined to be used.

**Commercial Purpose**

It is known that the basic purpose of a company is to maximize its profits by minimizing its inputs. Film, as a kind of cultural industry, also makes the company focus on making money – a significant element that affects creative treason use in English film title translation. In order to make more money, the company will try its best to win big box office results by making the film title more attractive to audiences and stimulating the audience’s appeal. To achieve the good effect, the commercial value of a film title is shown in the process of translation that the translator should be creative and make the translated title in accordance with the original one connotatively. The film titles such as *Life of Pi* 《少年派的奇幻漂流》; and *Frozen* 《冰雪奇缘》，etc. are successful film titles translated with commercial value. Both of the two film titles mentioned not only offer general information of the film’s genre, style, type, and plot, but also stimulate people’s curiosity through Chinese words “奇幻” and “奇缘”, which are symbols of creative treason and lay the foundation for the high box office and high commercial value. The addition of “奇幻” and “奇缘” is essentially a kind of creative treason, which is the outcome of profit making purpose. In other words, the film’s commercial value cannot be separated from creative treason.

**Aesthetic Value**

Appreciation of beauty as a common social and cultural phenomenon is the outcome of long-term development of human civilization. Different aesthetic tastes are determined by different cultural backgrounds. The differences of aesthetic taste – ideological and aesthetic contents, are decisive factors that the translator should deeply grasp to convey the original work’s aesthetic experience to the target language audiences. In text composition, the Chinese pay more attention to vividness and harmony – many film titles are translated by using four-character structure. Creative treason is destined to be used
based on the aesthetic demand for film titles. Film titles like *Entrapment 《偷天陷阱》*; *The Fugitive 《亡命天涯》*; and *Gone with the Wind 《乱世佳人》*, etc. are all translated by using creative treason based on aesthetic value. Among the Oscar films from 1929-2008, 34 out of the eighty best pictures are translated by using four-character structure, which accounts for 42.5% (Wang, 2008). In order to be vivid and reach visual aesthetic standard, these film titles are translated into four-character structure Chinese by using creative treason, satisfying Chinese audience’ sensual demands. If these film titles are translated into other forms, then the structural harmony will be ruined, which cannot appeal to audience efficiently and create high box office.

**Conclusion**

Studies of creative treason only have a short history, but systematic research in this field is deepening. However, the reasonable use of creative treason is an expanding problem for translators. The creative treason in English film title translation is discussed in this paper. Some people support it, while others are strongly against it. However, whether or not people support it depends on how people define it.

Creative treason provides a new perspective of translation and makes it possible for better communication between two cultures. Creative treason should not be used to confuse translators and hinder the development of itself.

This study aims at obtaining considerable theoretical and practical evidence for creative treason so as to catch the attention of translators and broaden their horizons in related research, as well as to widen range of creative treason use. However, due to limited time, what deserves more in-depth study can only be handled roughly here in this short paper. The application of creative treason should be given more attention and more studies should be done to put it in practical and extensive use. If more efforts are made on creative treason translation, more fruitful results and high quality translation can be anticipated. Furthermore, if time permits, more studies on creative treason and related subjects will be done, and more scientific theory for creative treason will be offered.

**References**


Nida’s Functional Equivalence Theory and its Application in Subtitle Translation of *The Vampire Diaries*

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**Abstract** Although an increasing number of translators are stepping into the subtitle translation field, few theories can be referred to in movie or TV series subtitle translation. The Functional Equivalence Theory is one of those theories that can be used in evaluating subtitle translation. This thesis mainly talks about Nida’s Functional Equivalence Theory and the application to the subtitle translation of *The Vampire Diaries*.

**Keywords** subtitle translation; functional equivalence theory; *The Vampire Diaries*; translation strategy

**Introduction**  
Since the invention of television, TV has dramatically changed people’s lives all over the world, regardless of their nationalities, skin color, or race. A TV series provides people with a way to relax, be entertained, and learn, and it makes life more enjoyable and colorful with images, sounds and plots. The American TV series is the leading wind vane of the TV series industry and has gained significant popularity among Chinese audiences since the 1990s. Since then, Chinese audiences have had a more direct approach to understanding Western cultures and customs with the help of subtitle translation and dubbing. On the one hand, dubbing is the auditory supplement of the original work; on the other hand, subtitle translation is the visual supplement of the work (Chang, 2012, p. 66). In the meantime, the information age is proceeding at an unprecedented speed, and never before in history has the flow of information been more abundant than now. Thus, subtitle translation can convey more information in less time than dubbing does. As a matter of fact, in order to give Chinese audiences the most original TV series, subtitle translation is becoming increasingly important. Subtitle translation has been in China for nearly a hundred years during which various methods have been used to meet different purposes. Little attention has been paid to subtitle translation of TV series. There is no systematic theory that can be really called a perfect theory. It is well known that most of the subtitle translation of American TV series on the Internet is done by unprofessional translators who attach little importance to translation theories. The Functional Equivalence Theory is a relatively mature theory in translation that was put forward by Eugene Nida in the late 1960s. In this thesis, the author will analyze the popular American TV series, *The Vampire Diaries* using Nida’s functional equivalence theory (Nida, 1964, p. 66).

**Functional Equivalence Theory**  
In the 1960s, a translation theory was proposed by the famous US linguist and translator Eugene Nida, which was based on readers’ reactions. Translation theory marked a turning point in translation theory and was called Functional Equivalence Theory. In the 1980s, Functional Equivalence Theory was brought to China and has now become one of the most significant theories in China. Nida suggests in his theory of functional equivalence that reproduction in the receptor language in the closest natural equivalent of the source language message, first in terms of meaning, and second, in terms of style, is desired. Although
decades have passed, Nida’s theory is still one of the most applicable theories that help translators translate and judge a translation work (Liang, 2012, p. 140).

In 1790, in his work, *On the Principles of Translation*, Alexander Fraser Tytler gave a definition of good translation as “I would, therefore, describe a good translation to be that in which the merit of the original work is so completely transfused into another language as to be as distinctly apprehended and as strongly felt by a native of the country to which that language belongs, as it is by those who speak the language of the original work” (Tytler, 1790, p. 33).

The key point of Nida’s translation theory is functional equivalence, and since the 1960s, it has enormously affected the translation field. “There is always some loss and distortion in verbal communication since no two interlocutors ever have exactly the same designative and associative meaning for the same phonological, lexical, grammatical and discourse features” (Nida, 2001, p. 87).

Nida built a vast system of translation theory in his series of works, whose core theory is the Functional Equivalence Theory. It asserts that translation does not seek rigid counterparts in the target text but achieves equivalence in function and the same effect for the target readers. To convert the source language to the target language under a certain standard and reduce differences, Nida, from a linguistic perspective, put forward the famous theory of “Dynamic Equivalence” according to the nature of translation, namely “Functional Equivalence.” The information transmitted by translation includes both lexical information and cultural information. The equivalence in Functional Equivalence Theory covers the following four aspects: (1) lexical equivalence, (2) syntax equivalence, (3) chapter equivalence and (4) stylistic equivalence. In the four aspects, Nida believes that “Meaning is the most important followed by form” (Guo, 2000, p. 67).

Functional equivalence is “the closest natural equivalent to the source-language message” (Nida, 1964, p. 166). Any translation words should be as much equivalent as the original meaning not only in content but also in style. There is no translation ever totally the same as the original message. However, different translation versions can fulfill different degrees of equivalence. Thus, the word “equivalence” cannot be comprehended in terms of “identity” but should be understood in the meaning of “proximity.” Besides, the functional-equivalence translation primarily deals with the equivalence of viewers’ response other than the literal equivalence of language forms. So, Nida suggests that translation should make the target language viewers feel as proximate as possible, like the way that the source language viewers do.

The functional equivalence theory makes a TV series itself serve as the media of recreation, education, and so on, just as what has been mentioned before. It eliminates the barriers between different peoples all over the world, enhancing the communication in a multicultural world, as well as integrating various cultures.

**Translation Strategies Adopted in the *Vampire Diaries* under Equivalence Theory**

The functional equivalence theory is essentially a good theory applied to TV series subtitle translation. The general aim of subtitle translation is to reach the maximum equivalence. However, the most important part is how to achieve the equivalence in subtitle translation within the given time and given space. In the following part, the author will analyze the strategies adopted in the subtitle of the *Vampire Diaries*, translated by YYeTs (人人影视字幕组) under functional equivalence theory. They are explanation, localization, reduction and omission, complementary translation.
**Explanation**

“The translation should be a little clearer than the original” (Venuti, 2000, p. 289). When it comes to subtitle translation, subtitle translators will definitely meet some ambiguous expressions. If an obscure sentence occurs and a literal translation cannot help viewers understand a TV series or movie, some adjustments must be needed to clarify those obscure expressions. An explanation can be counted as quite a useful method to explain obscure expressions, and it is should be fully comprehended by subtitle translators. In the next part in this section, the author will choose some examples from the *Vampire Diaries* to illustrate how explanation has been used. Besides, the author will study how explanation can be integrated with the equivalence theory to fulfill the maximal equivalent effects.

Example One, in Season One and the first episode:

Stephen: You ok?
Elena: Were you following me?
Stephen: No, I, uh, I just saw you fall.
Elena: Uh-huh, and you just happened to be hanging out in a cemetery.
Stephen: I’m visiting. I have family here.
Elena: Wow, tactless …. And it was all very Hitchcock for a second.

哦，太失礼了……有一刹那，一切都那么“希区柯克”。

This is a sentence said by Elena, when she happens to meet Stephan in a graveyard after Elena’s seeing a crow following her. She is so anxious that she suspects Stephan was following her. To explain her misbehavior, Elena says this. However, not many Chinese viewers know who, exactly, “Hitchcock” refers to. Subtitle translators should make adjustments in the translation. It is more suitable to explain Hitchcock with a bracket (悬疑电影先驱) behind “希区柯克” so that all Chinese viewers will know what Hitchcock means.

**Localization**

Localization can also be a very useful method in subtitle translation. Before a subtitle translation, a subtitle translator should have a global view of the original message. He/She has to probe into the cultural background and customs of both the target and source viewers. Thus, subtitle translators have to place themselves in the situation of both the target and source viewers and translate the subtitle into the target-language messages and bring the target viewers the same or similar experience and feeling as the source viewers. Because the original messages and expressions may cause difficulties or distortion for viewers in understanding, localization can be adopted to make subtitle translation more natural and acceptable. In the subtitles of *The Vampire Diaries*, we can often find a lot of Chinese expressions, and four-character words and phrases. With the help of those localized expressions, Chinese viewers have less difficulty in understanding the meaning of the original messages. Moreover, four-character words in subtitle are in line with the customs of Chinese, and those words are rhymed in sound. In fact, those Chinese expressions can make Chinese viewers excited and able to easily to understand the original meaning. Besides, more time would be saved in watching the subtitle of audio-visual work because those Chinese idiomatic expressions are very familiar to Chinese viewers and enable Chinese viewers to not be distracted by paying attention to the moving pictures on the screen. In the following part, the author will choose some examples to clarify the localization under the functional equivalence theory.
Example One
Jeremy: Were you sleeping with me because of the drugs?
Vicky: Screw you.
Jeremy: No? If there is another reason, please, I’m all ears.
[Jeremy: 说来听听那到底是为了什么，我洗耳恭听。]

Example Two:
Stephen: What’s going on?
Damon: Having a family moment, Stephen. Spending some quality time.
[Damon: 享受天伦之乐，斯特凡，珍惜和家人在一起的时间。]

Example Three:
Caroline’s mother: What happened? Is she ok?
Caroline: Like you care? 别装模作样的。

The examples chosen are translated into some unique Chinese expressions, and the author will analyze the first and the second examples to see why they have been so translated. Stephen and Damon are vampires, and Damon is evil. He is killing a man called Zach, who was compelled to be a family member of Damon’s family. A real family for Damon and Stephen seems impossible because their family was almost eradicated over 100 years ago. That is why the translation of a family moment into “天伦之乐” is totally fits into this context. According to functional equivalence, subtitle translations should fit the target cultures and customs. Localization is a great method to transfer source cultures into local cultures. Thus, in order to fulfill the equivalent effects, the changes in subtitle translation, especially in language forms and content is understandable and necessary. The most important point in a subtitle translation is understandability rather than the forms of the language. A subtitle translator adding the local sayings and expressions into the source language messages is an equivalent to the subtitle translation, although the original meaning is changed or missing. In example one, “洗耳恭听” has perfectly expressed the original message, and it can be cited to illustrate how to fulfill functional equivalence. Sometimes, Chinese expressions would bring about amazing effects, especially some Chinese idioms enable viewers to understand the aesthetics more than the source viewers do.

Reduction and Omission
Reduction or omission has long been held as the very most important criterion of good translation, as in Yan Fu’s three-character theory-faithfulness, expressiveness, and elegance. The basic aim of any translation is to convert the source language information into a target language without causing any misunderstanding. In other translation practices, mistakes can easily pass unnoticed, but it is not the case with subtitle translation. If a person who reads a translated book or sees a dubbed film suspects there’s a translation error, he has to find out the original text to be sure, which is usually not readily available. The translator is in a “much more vulnerable position” since the original is just there “for all to see and he …” (Ivarsson, 1992, p. 122). It is just because of the “vulnerability” that translators have long been standing accusations particularly from bilingual viewers, whether justifiable or not.

However, it never means that the translator can reduce anything at will. The important operating principle is relevance. Only by retaining the most relevant and reducing the less relevant can the receptor…
achieve the best contextual effect with the least effort. These ideas are in line with Nida’s “functional equivalence,” which treats the receptor’s response as fundamental in translation practices.

Here are some examples:

Example One:
- Bonnie: Just admit, Elena.
- Elena: Oh, ok, so he’s a little pretty. 好吧，他是挺帅的。

Example Two:
- Caroline: Well, let’s get you a drink. 去喝一杯吧。
- Stephen: Well, I’m … 我…
- Caroline: Oh, come on. 来吧。

Example Three:
- Elena: Mysterious new guy, oh, yeah. 神秘新人。
- Stephen: Well, you have the mysterious things, too. 你也挺神秘的。

In the above dialogue, in order to make a conversation smooth, the anticipators will use some filler words, such as “well,” and “oh,” etc. However, those filler words can be left out in most occasions. The reasons are as follows: first of all, those filler words are meaningless to some extent. Second, the equivalence theory requires smooth and natural translation rather than the literal translation of the original messages and forms of a language. If subtitle translators translate all those filler words, the subtitle lines would be awkward, and the screen would be crammed with useless words. Without those words in subtitle translation, the subtitle lines will be concise and natural. Finally, as what has been discussed above, time and space are limitations in subtitle translation. Thus, the reduction of unnecessary elements can help save time and space.

**Complementary Translation**

A TV series is made up of instant visual pictures fleeting on the screen, and it cannot be repeatedly read and tasted as literary works. With the limitation of time and space, sometimes subtitle lines should be cut. However, some complementary translation is necessary in helping audiences to understand. Due to the cultural differences between English and Chinese cultural backgrounds, while translating subtitles, the translator often increases or reduces some content for the translation. Some parts may be increased to convey the meaning more accurately. For example:

Example One, in Season Two:
- The black man: What are you gonna do about it?
- Tyler: You hit me again, I swear to god. 你敢再动手，我发誓你会完蛋。

Example Two:
- Elena: Uh, you are not going to kill her.
- Damon: Watch me. 你看我能不能。

In Example One, in order to better express the meaning, “I swear to god” is increased, vividly describing Tyler’s rage about the black man who troubled him on purpose. If the “I swear to god” is literally translated into “我向上天发誓”, the implications could not be expressed as clearly as the example.
In Example Two, when Elena asks Damon not to kill the woman who hurts him with a cross bow, she says, “You are not going to kill her.” Damon replies, “Watch me.” If “watch me” is translated literally without addition in meaning, the translation would be “看着我”. The Chinese audiences will be completely confused in understanding the meaning. This subtitle line translated as “你看我能不能” is more likely to be accepted by the audience. According to Nida’s functional equivalence theory, in this way the maximal equivalent effect can be achieved.

Conclusion

In this thesis, the author mainly studies Nida’s Functional Equivalence Theory and the application to the subtitle translation of The Vampire Diaries. Although foreign TV series have gained great popularity in China’s society, little attention has been attached to the research in TV series translation. The author chose The Vampire Diaries as the research target because it is now one of the most popular American TV series, especially accepted by most young people in China. In the thesis, the author chose five methods, explanation, localization, reduction and omission, complementary translation, and substitution, to discuss the subtitle translation of The Vampire Diaries. The result proves that Nida’s functional equivalence theory is of great use and YYeTs subtitle translation team is professional. In most cases, the impact of the target film for the target language audience should be the same as the impact of the original film on the source language audience and functional equivalence puts the readers’ response in the first place.

However, there are limitations in this thesis. Objectively, because of time and space on the screen, functional equivalence does not always bring out equivalent effects. Subjectively, the author just uses one translation theory to analyze the subtitle translation. As we all know, nothing is perfect, and a single translation cannot account for all phenomena in subtitle translation. Besides, the author only analyzed English-Chinese subtitle translation. With the unprecedented pace of China’s development, an increasing number of Chinese TV series will be introduced to other foreign countries. So, a complementary study of Chinese-English subtitle translation is significant. Finally, the author only analyzed a thrilling and mysterious type of TV series. The Vampire Diaries belongs to mysterious series, and many subtitle translations are different from those of literary TV series.

It is undeniable that there are defects in functional equivalence theory, and there are limitations in this thesis. However, the author profoundly believes that the subtitle translation field will become full-fledged and attract more and more academic attention. Also, the subtitle field will flourish as much as other literary fields.

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On the GTM Teaching in China

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[Abstract] The Grammar-Translation Method (henceforth GTM) has been around for more than twenty decades along with severe attacks for its drawbacks. Until now, it still exists in most countries and it is a very common teaching method in China. Beginning with the historical reason for Chinese educational thought, this paper, based on an investigation from a pedagogical view and together with exterior factors, analyzes the necessity of the Grammar-Translation Method in China.

Keywords] GTM; learner; teacher; class test

Introduction
As one of the most traditional translation methods, the Grammar-Translation Method has been around for more than twenty decades and still exists in many countries today, including China. With the development of teaching methodology, the Grammar-Translation Method has been criticized as an out-of-date teaching method with no theory behind it. However, this method is still useful today in language teaching in China. This paper first examines the main related historical and pedagogical factors to argue that not only has this method not disappeared, but its characteristics have been central to language teaching and are still necessary today. The Grammar-Translation Method is not out of date in China from the perspectives of the pedagogical factor, the impacts of Confucianism, and the weaknesses in an EFL Setting. We should examine it objectively since there is no pedagogical method that should be entirely discarded.

Background
The Grammar-Translation Method is a method of foreign language teaching that uses translation and grammar study as the main teaching and learning activities (Richards & Schmidt, 2013, p. 252). It was called the Classical Method since it was first used in the teaching of the classical languages of Latin and Greek (Mallikamas, 2002). By the 19th century, this approach, based on the study of Latin, had become the standard way of studying foreign languages in schools. As Tetzner (2006) pointed out, “The Grammar Translation Method to teach foreign languages dominated from the mid-nineteenth century to the beginning of World War II and it is still used today” (p. 1). When teaching, each grammar point was listed, rules on its use were explained, and it was illustrated by sample sentences; this approach to foreign language teaching is known as the Grammar-Translation Method Teaching (henceforth GTM).

As its name suggests, the major characteristic of the grammar-translation method is a focus on learning the rules of grammar and their application in translation passages from one language into the other. Vocabulary in the target language is learned through direct translation from the native language. Reading and writing are the major focus, and little or no attention is paid to speaking and listening skills (Richards & Rodgers, 2014, p. 6). Although many books mentioned that grammar translation is an out of date teaching method, Stern (1983) also says, “in spite of many attacks, grammar translation is still widely employed today” (p. 454). The GTM is still common in China – even popular. If you visit many
classrooms in China, you will find this method most likely exists. You will observe students listening to the teacher and taking laborious notes as she takes them through a detailed structural and lexical analysis of texts, and you will notice how the teacher corrects every single mistake, focusing on grammatical writing and prescribed translation. How has such a traditional method persevered in China? In order to both understand how it works and why it has shown such tenacity as an “acceptable” method, it is worth observing the following factors commonly associated with the GTM.

**Historical Factors**

The Grammar-Translation Method, introduced in China when it was popularly used in the West, has been widely used in the all levels of English classes for nearly two centuries. As the most specific feature of Chinese English teaching, Confucian educational thoughts are the important factor that lead to the Grammar-Translation Method being extensively used in the area of English teaching in China.

As is known to all, the Chinese greatest saint, Confucius, has had profound influence on China. As discussed, Confucius was heavily involved in teaching…Confucius and his followers have had a tremendous impact on Chinese society, in general, and education, in particular (Palmer & Cooper, 2001, p. 3). It goes without saying that Confucius’ thoughts concerning education laid the foundation for the Chinese education system. Confucius put education as a priority and felt that one’s ability was determined by their effort, not by birth. Confucian education consisted of constant study of the ancient classics, the memorization of Chinese characters, and the observance of certain rituals. Students quietly listened to the words of the teacher as a way of learning proper conduct and respect for superiors. In time, students could learn the right way to read, write and interpret Chinese literature. The result of these decisions was an education system that valued teacher-student relationships patterned after the Chinese parent-child model. Students followed the parental authority of their teachers by not questioning their instructions.

Another factor has also played a role in the GTM teaching. Entrance into universities have focused on examinations, which promote diligence and memorization. Examinations have also been believed to advance harmony by diminishing classroom competition and downplaying any differences in ability that students might have. Knowledge was valued over creativity for the learners in China in general.

Chinese Confucianism had significant influence over the Chinese culture for over 1,500 years. All of these factors, to some extent, share similar characteristics of the Grammar-Translation Method – teacher centered, emphasis on the right way and proper form (grammar translation), and it could be easily transited in China. They account for the historical reasons why this method is popularized in China.

**Pedagogic factors**

The paper endeavors to analyze the reason why the Grammar-Translation Method was preferred in China from a pedagogic view, which includes objectives, the teacher and learner factor, the reaction in the class, and the class factor, etc.

**The Objectives**

The objectives of the Grammar-Translation Method were limited and not difficult to achieve (Richards & Rodgers, 2014, p. 6). The texts were not complicated and normally included vocabulary lists, grammar rules and sample sentences with interlinear translations from the source language to the target language. With these sample sentences, the teachers could use simple contrastive techniques to clearly explain the similarities and differences between the students’ native language and the foreign language they were
Bowen, Madsen and Hilferty (1985) summarized that the principal appeal of Grammar-Translation was the cognitive and systematic use of grammatical rules as a basis of instruction (p. 20).

The directness of translation and the utilization of students’ native language proficiency were also appealing features. Therefore, the Grammar-Translation Method is effective in accomplishing its objectives, which include knowledge of grammatical structures, a high-level reading and writing ability, and intellectual exercise.

**Teacher Factor**

As Brown stated, “It requires few specialized skills on the part of teachers” (1994, p. 53). Teachers also found the Grammar-Translation Method an easy method to use; they did not have to possess strong teaching skills or foreign language speaking skills since classes were mostly taught in the students native language, which was in accordance with the practical condition of the teacher and the teacher training system in China.

One of the problems often recognized is the fact that the teachers of English courses themselves usually do not have a high command of English, especially in oral ability. This creates a great deal of difficulty if the objective of the class is to teach students how to speak the language. In Chinese classrooms the students’ respect for their teacher greatly depends on the teacher’s authority as an expert on the subject being taught.

Naturally, strengthened language requirements for teachers of this subject would prove useful, but it is far from certain that enough qualified teachers with sufficient speaking proficiency could be found to fill the need, which make the Grammar Translation Method more easily used in China.

**Learner Factor**

Learners often feel that they like to know the rules of the language in learning it. They often ask why. They don’t feel secure enough to use the language unless they know and understand the rules. This tendency encourages and sometimes requires the instructor to focus on detailed descriptions of grammatical rules in language teaching. Many learners don’t feel comfortable engaging in learning activities such as role-playing, and dramatizing, etc.

A common complaint from Chinese learners is that their shyness hinders their learning process. The same respondents show that they do want to avoid making themselves conspicuous. This is another indicator of the collectivist feature as the majority of learners do not feel comfortable if they need to use their “I” identity. Before speaking up, individual students want to make sure they have the sanction of their peers. Another reason is that most students in Chinese high schools are focused primarily on the exams, which focus on the written language and force the student put their oral ability in an inferior position.

**Interaction**

Another aspect of the Grammar-Translation Method is that students can speak with the teacher in their native language. This approach was preferred by both student and teacher in China because speaking only in the target language, except at the highest levels, serves to alienate the students from the teacher, and impedes the authentic communication and interaction between them. With the Grammar-Translation Method, the teacher and the students can freely discuss the target language, so that the students can learn the language with an awareness of how it works, how it relates to their native language, and why certain
words and grammatical structures used. This cultivation of awareness in the Grammar-Translation Method differs from other approaches – the easy and smooth interactive learning atmosphere promoted by this method could be viewed as superior in the foreign language teaching application.

**Class Factor**

Another factor requiring consideration is the low ratio of teachers to students. According to the Chinese State Education Commission (2008, p. 128), the ratios of teachers to students in several countries are as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Ratio</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>United States</td>
<td>1:36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Japan</td>
<td>1:22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Britain</td>
<td>1:18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>France</td>
<td>1:20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>1:20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>China</td>
<td>1:10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

On average, the ratio of teachers to students in China is rather high, but a university English teacher in China has to face many students (non-English majors) in a lecture room. Normally, he has to teach large classes per semester. Cai (2005) has pointed out, “usually teaching two or three classes together one time, totally more than 100 students.” Both of these conditions go against the accepted principles of language teaching.

Moreover, because an English teacher has only eight service hours per week for two different classes in most universities, it is not possible to provide enough time for students to practice in class. Therefore, it is impossible for him to teach students adequately unless he teaches extra hours.

**Testing**

Under many circumstances, doing well in a test is the immediate goal of language learning. Thus, how language learning is tested determines how the language is taught. Traditionally, foreign language testing has been written in format and has focused on the testing of knowledge, rather than skills.

Because of the policy of the Ministry of Education and Training, English teaching is exam-oriented, the high school graduation exams focus on reading comprehension, translation, and grammar use; the college English Exams include not only the above components but also require additional speaking tests, in which candidates are given topics in advance to prepare for their presentations. The testing of communicative skills is usually more difficult and time consuming in terms of both writing and scoring the test, and the textbooks used for courses are also grammar-based. In such circumstances, it is no wonder that the Grammar Translation Method is widely used at the school teaching in china.

**Exterior Factors**

The fact that the lack of speaking opportunities in an EFL setting has also contributed to the current condition of language teaching. This factor has a great effect on EFL learning in a country as homogenous as China. I worked as an English teacher in a college in a small city in China, and there were no more than ten foreign teachers in the entire prefecture of one million people in the college. This disparity caused a great deal of distraction for me as almost every student who met foreigners viewed them as an opportunity to practice his spoken English. Even in metropolitan areas, such opportunities do not often present themselves. While foreign residents and tourists in public may be tapped as a potential source for
interaction, there are simply too many students in need of a speaking partner, and too few native English speakers to satisfy the demand. Consequently, the real English environment for face-to-face communication with native speakers is a little bit far from Chinese students in a general way.

Taking into account the objectives, the teacher and learner factors, the reaction in the class, the lack of time, the testing systems, the weaknesses in an EFL setting, and especially the impact of the Confucianism, the popularity and approval the Grammar-Translation Method have given to ELT are understandable.

Conclusion

Though most language teachers realize that there is no such thing as the best teaching method, teachers should try to be as flexible as possible in choosing the teaching techniques that will enable them to most effectively achieve their main goal – to give students both grammatical accuracy and language proficiency in a foreign language. The Grammar-Translation Method is indispensable to achieve this goal. To sum up, aside from the drawback of the Grammar-Translation Method, the above arguments suggest that it, far from being dead, is still alive and kicking as we enter the 21st century.

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An Application of Output Driven Hypothesis
to the Teaching of College English Writing

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[Abstract] English writing, the criterion for testing students’ English proficiency, occupies an important position in college English learning. However, teaching writing still assumes a weak role in language teaching. This paper is about a teaching experiment, in which Wen Qiufang’s output-driven hypothesis is integrated with college English writing teaching, and emphasizes the following aspects: providing the comprehensible input, offering output chances, and motivating students’ interest in writing. The result after a one-term teaching experiment indicated that the experimental class outperformed the control class, which proves that Wen Qiufang’ output-driven hypothesis has some positive impact on English writing.

[Keywords] output-driven hypothesis; English teaching model; learning strategy; writing competence

Introduction
With the development and progress of society, English writing has become especially significant for students. Nevertheless, it has not been a strength for most students, and some serious problems exist such as errors in syntax, incoherence in text, and confusion in framework, etc. In particular, English writing is time-consuming with low efficiency for both students and teachers. Faced with this situation, many colleges and universities try to combine the input with output by setting up the curriculum to cultivate students’ writing competence. Some scholars and experts, such as Xuhao and Gao Caifeng (2007), have done some research on the integration of reading and writing, which results in an over-emphasis on the reading input in language learning. They pay more attention to reading-based writing and neglect the language output, which leads to the students’ poor writing capacity. In this paper, a teaching experiment is presented, in which Wen Qiufang’ output-driven hypothesis is integrated with English writing and some implications for English writing teaching are offered.

Output-Driven Hypothesis
Based on the Input Hypothesis (Krashen, 1985) and Output Hypothesis (Swain, 1995), Wen Qiufang put forward the output-driven hypothesis at the Advanced Tribune for the Dean of the English Department and then it was recognized in her thesis (Wen, 2008), which claims that production makes the learners move from “semantic processing” prevalent in comprehension to more “syntactic processing”.

The output-driven hypothesis consists of 3 subordinate hypotheses, which aim at the second language acquisition (Wen, 2013). From the perspective of psychology, output has a more motivating force than input, and a studying process without output drive can be limited even if it had high-quality input. From the perspective of English in the workplace, it has more social functions in cultivating the expressive competence of speaking, writing and translating than the receptive competence of listening and reading, and especially translating and interpreting. From the perspective of English teaching, the integrated approach guided by output is more useful, and more practical than monomial skill approach in helping students find jobs after graduation.
The output-driven hypothesis is very significant in English teaching practice. For one thing, we know more about the main patterns of communicative activities in professional situations; and for another, we know more about the positive effect of the output on English development. The output-driven hypothesis, helps to foster the students’ learning ability, intends to deal with the practical problems connected with students’ employment, and is of the great importance, both theoretically and practically.

The Study
As is known to all, college students acquire and grasp some vocabularies and grammatical structures as a tool not only for reading newspapers, magazines and books, but also for writing essays, papers and academic reports in English. To some extent, learning English has great influence on students’ plans after graduation. However, it is still a subject about which students feel very frustrated and helpless, and we have to take a new teaching method into account in order so that the students can really improve their writing competence. Here, an experiment shows that output-driven hypothesis contributes to English writing.

Objectives
In order to make sure whether the output-driven hypothesis has a positive impact on college English writing, a small-scale teaching experiment was conducted in four classes, lasting a term from August 2014 to January 2015.

Subjects
Based on the scores in the entrance examination, four classes of non-English majors, divided into two groups (an Experimental Group and a Control Group), were involved in an experiment, and had similar average scores (78.5 and 79.2, respectively) and the same number (60 and 60). To ensure they were at the same level in English proficiency, we chose sophomores coming from College of Horticulture and College of Animal Science in the second level classes B, while A stands for the top.

Procedure
The experiment was conducted respectively in two groups’ writing classes. Considering students’ requirements for the future, we devised some details. Firstly, each group had half an hour for writing each week. They were provided with the same directions and the same titles of letters and argumentative essays to be collected. We also adopted the same writing teaching approach – correcting, explaining and rewriting. However, the difference existed in the arranging order of writing contents; that is, the writing topics were not the same for the two groups each week. Compared with those in the control class, the students in the experimental group were assigned three writing items – a letter of recommendation, a letter of application and a letter of introduction in their first three weeks, which were closely connected with their future plans after graduation. For the students of control group, we made the opposite order. Secondly, apart from the different arrangement order of writing contents, in the experimental class, the teacher fused English writing with other courses, which could be called Blended Learning (Zhen, 2013). During the period of half a term, six compositions were arranged for both two groups and in 700 valid samples, the percentage of errors were calculated and analyzed.

The Analyses on Errors
Error analysis should be restricted to the study of errors, but not mistakes (Yan, 2004). The comparison between the two groups’ performances in terms of errors has been made.
Errors of wording. In Ellis’s opinion, “An error can be defined as a deviation from the norms of the target language” (1994, p. 51). When required to write compositions, some students have difficulty using exact English words in their writing. Let’s look at some sentences.

1. I was shocked to see your wonderful work.
   Here the word “surprised” can be a substitute for “shocked” because the former expresses the feeling with disgust and horror and the latter refers to a feeling of happiness.

2. When people do you favor, you’d say “thank you”. (a favor)

Errors of syntactic formation. “Frequently two or more complete sentences are split by a comma instead of a period” (Weiner, 1984, p. 41). Be sure to watch out for “errors on syntax level” (LÜ, 2004). The following are examples:

3. I have been working hard for so many years, I am entitled to a good future.
   This is an ungrammatical sentence in which two independent clauses are conjoined without a conjunction, and the sentence structure has been neglected. It can be remedied:
   
   \[ I \text{ have been working hard for so many years and I am entitled to a good future. } \]

4. I’m not sure which one do you like.
   The error of the sentence exists in word order of English clause. Obviously we should transfer it into the word order of declarative sentence like this:
   
   \[ I \text{ ’m not sure which one you like. } \]

5. There is no doubt whether the parents have influence on their children. (that)

Errors of subject-verb concord. The errors of disagreement in person, number and tense could affect students’ grades. It is very important to avoid these faults. Let’s take some sentences as examples.

6. Nowadays, some people talked about whether college students could be allowed to get married. (talk)

7. At the same time, it have many mysterious unsolved questions. (has)

8. Sometimes developing our ability through practice and observation also rely on books. (relies)

9. God helps those who help ourselves. (themselves)

Errors of Chinglish. Sometimes, the students are used to expressing their ideas in Chinese grammar when writing English compositions. Here is a typical pattern.

10. There are many students in our class like English novels.
   It is obvious that the students who often use this structure in their writing don’t understand the drill “there be” at all. In fact, the word “be” equals a verb with its own tense and number. This sentence can be rewritten in two ways:
   
   \[ There \text{ are many students in our class who like English novels. } \]
   
   \[ Many \text{ students in our class like English novels. } \]

In addition to the above examples, there are many other problems, such as misspellings or wrong punctuation. Here, we just select the major and frequent errors as materials except those having little to do with the theme of the paper.

Results and Discussion
In summary, the special arrangements about the writing materials order really motivated the students’ writing interest. In order to illustrate this point vividly, Table 1 displays a comparison between
The experimental group and control group in total errors of their writing, while Table 2 illustrates the writing scores and passing rate of students who have passed Band 4 examination.

**Table 1. The Comparison of Error Percentage of Samples between Experimental Group (EG) and Control Group (CG): (Total Number: 60 Respectively)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Classification of Errors</th>
<th>Number of Students</th>
<th>Percentage of Errors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>EG</td>
<td>CG</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wording errors</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>144</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Syntactical errors</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>144</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagreement errors</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chinglish</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>117</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

With the same number of samples (350) in each group, differences manifest in the two groups. On the one hand, many students are unable use appropriate words to express themselves. For instance, we use “strong wind” but “heavy rain” in English; instead of “receive the telephone” and “crowded traffic”, we use “answer the telephone” and “heavy traffic”. Meanwhile, the errors about time, tense and voice often appear in their compositions. It is very difficult for students to remember those that don’t have the changes of forms in Chinese. On the other hand, the key reason lies in the order arrangement. The experimental students are keen on the first three topics relevant to their future and they pay more attention to the writing points. As a result, they learn the key points of writing by heart and take the context and connotative meaning of words into account. They obtained a good habit of writing so that few errors appear in the latter 3 compositions. Obviously, the motive of writing is particularly important for developing students’ writing abilities.

**Table 2. The Comparison of Writing Scores and Passing Rate in CET4 between Experimental Group (EG) and Control Group (CG): (Total Number: 60 Respectively)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Writing Scores</th>
<th>Number of Students</th>
<th>Passing Rate in CET4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>EG</td>
<td>CG</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100-120</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>121-130</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>131-140</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>141-150</td>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>151-160</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Based on the data, we find out the truth that the students always get high grades if they are good at writing. As a matter of fact, for the students in the experimental class, the teacher often mentions writing when he explains other courses, which urges the students to keep the necessity of writing in their mind. Sometimes the students are also required to complete some tasks using English writing. Just because of this driven power, the students in the experimental class perform much better than those in control class. Thus, it can be seen that it’s helpful to put emphasis on Output-driven hypothesis in our English writing teaching.

**Implications for Teaching Writing**

Investigations show that students who learn to become conscious of their own learning process become more skillful learners. And similarly, English writing needs to be related with students’ conscious learning and the students’ consciousness for writing have to be motivated. Therefore, the output-driven hypothesis can be incorporated into English writing teaching.
Combining English Writing with Communication

The purpose of writing is to express ideas or convey messages to readers; that is, writing is not only a behavior for the writer himself, but also a communication between the writer and the reader. The aim of teaching writing is to teach students how to express their own feelings and how to communicate with readers in writing, so it is vital to develop the students’ intentions to express themselves. We can choose some titles that are bound up with students’ life and future to arouse their writing desire. As long as we attach importance to communication in writing, the students will inevitably improve their English writing.

Providing Appropriate in-put Materials

In order to help the students finish the output process, we can provide them with proper materials in advance. The students can recite some paragraphs and essays that become the source materials for their compositions. Once they master materials for writing, they will become very confident. Parares pointed out that self-confidence will help the learners finish their writing tasks better (1996). Encouraged by self-confidence, the students learn English vocabularies, passages and essays quickly, which possibly drives them to talk or write, and input will be quickly converted into output.

Offering Output Help on Suitable Occasions

In teaching, the teacher can offer output help by penetrating writing into other subjects. In oral classes, the students can be organized to discuss how to resolve difficult problems in writing; in an intensive reading class, the teacher can give a brief lecture about writing skills. For example, when teaching the unit “Learning a Foreign Language” (New Horizon College English, Book 1), the teacher can talk about the writing style – “cause-effect” method, and when students finish the exercise – succeeding in language learning, they just have a simulated training on the “cause-effect” writing style. Moreover, the teacher can take advantage of Task-based English Teaching Method pressing for the students in their writing. Driven by assignments, the students can complete their writing courses more efficiently.

Introducing Cultural Experience into Classroom

Cultural experience is an indispensable way to cultivate a learner’s Intercultural Communication Competence. Some teachers (e.g. Zhao, 1999) have explored the cultural problem of EFL writing. It is true that students will gain a lot if they understand something about writing style in English literature. Thus, we introduce cultural experience into the classroom keeping culture, literature, and fiction in mind. We set some courses such as English dubbing, English speech and English dramatic performances. The students enrich their knowledge and broaden their horizons through culture experiences, which cause great progress in their English writing. Thus, we can draw a conclusion that the Output-driven Hypothesis is efficient for English writing.

Conclusion

This paper investigates the errors in students’ compositions and proposes a solution to English writing teaching based on the Output-driven Hypothesis. The results have verified the efficiency in cultivating students’ writing ability with some limitations. The sample of the study is relatively small, and further exploration should be made. In spite of these limitations, the study proves the correlation between the Output-driven Hypothesis and English writing. It is recommended that teachers spend more time exploring teaching methods in English writing and students will make more progress in writing ability.
Acknowledgments

I am thankful for the platform provided by Northeast Asia International Symposium on Language, Literature and Translation, which has offered an opportunity for me to share my own teaching experiences with others and I am very glad to receive the evaluation. Meanwhile, I am sure I will benefit a lot from peer assessment. Certainly, I hope my paper will be adopted, which can give me encouragement and increase my self-confidence in academic inquiry. All the time I am eager for my paper appearing in Proceedings of Northeast Asia International Symposium on Language, Literature and Translation, and I am looking forward to the day on which my dream will come true.

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The Acquisition of the Reflexives and Reciprocals of French Pronominal Verbs by Chinese Speakers

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[Abstract] Currently, the French teaching method in China makes it difficult for students to understand pronominal verbs thoroughly and to use them properly in oral practice. Why are there such obstacles and what contributes to these difficulties? To solve this problem, the most effective method is to analyze the data based on linguistic experiments. By analyzing the data, the variations of the students in all of the phases of language acquisition will show and let us distinguish the different types of their mistakes. By researching the strategies which the participants adopt to complete their narration, we can infer that there exists an inter-phase relationship between their native language and other languages. Finally, this linguistic experiment also responds to the following questions: what is the transitional language in students’ minds? What factors encourage and determine their grammatical transfer system? How can we interpret the different types of mistakes made by the students in different studying phase?

[Keywords] language type; semantic absence; linguistic strategy; multifunctional pronoun.

Introduction
Currently, the French teaching method in China makes it difficult for students to understand pronominal verbs thoroughly and to use them properly in oral practice. Why are there such obstacles and what contributes to these difficulties? To solve this problem, we propose some assumptions regarding the process of the cognition. In order to prove the assumptions, we start with the analysis of the differences of the two languages, and then elicit data by a linguistic experiment and through analyzing the data, we can observe the variations of the students in all of the phases of language acquisition and distinguish the different types of their mistakes. The most effective method is to analyze the data based on the linguistic experiments. Meanwhile, we can research the strategies which the participants adopt to complete their narration. By analyzing these strategies, we can infer the inter-phase relationship between their native language and other languages.

Review of the Methods of Research on Pronominal Verbs
Since the 16th century, foreign linguists have been researching pronominal verbs because of their complexity. Currently, the research is not confined to the field of linguistics, it has also become a popular target of research in the field of psychology, philosophy, literature and the like. From the 16th century to the 19th century, the traditional quartation (reciprocals, reflexives, neuters, & passivity) of French grammar has been generally accepted by linguists. However, entering the 20th century, the quartation has caused doubts among some researchers such as Hatcher (1942), Geniushiene (1987) and Zribi-Hertz (1987). In his masterpiece La Voie pronominale; la systématique des tours pronominaux en français moderne, representative Ludo Melis reviews the history of various methods of research, which is dominated by the method of lexical semantics led by Dangeau and Laveau and method of sentence meaning led by GeniuŠien and Guillaume.
As various theories developed, all the past researches revealed their limitations on the analysis of forms, semantics and syntax, and some more comprehensive researches involving attributes, researching methods and typology of pronominal expression have come into our scope. In his thesis *Les tours pronominaux dans la grammaire traditionnelle française: statut, typologie et problèmes*, Peter Lauwers (2007) proposes three perspectives: whether pronominal verbs are a special form of verbs or a semantic form or a new type of conjugation? First, there is no such single thing as solving all the problems regarding pronominal expression, especially the last two problems involving neuter and passivity. Second, when putting these theories to use, problems always arise on these two problems. Peter Lauwers also summarizes two characteristics of pronominal verbs: one is the contrariety of the two groups, with the latter always the focus of problem; the other emphasizes the complexity of the criterion of typological classification. The big difference between the two groups of meaning is the reason why this paper only researches the acquisition of the first group, not the whole meaning of the pronominal verbs.

Thus, since we regard reflexives and reciprocals as the main targets of this research, we have to perceive the relationship between reflexives and reciprocals first. As for this point, Mélis came to a conclusion in his article by comparison and analysis: seemingly, the reciprocals are distinguished from reflexives by implementing actions on themselves. Indeed, reciprocals are characterized by plural or collective subjects. From a traditional definition, there is no marked distinction either from the functional analysis or corresponding comparison of sentences without pronominal verbs.

However, linguists Konig & Kokutani (2006) proposed the research on typology of reciprocals. In the symposium compiled by Ekkehard König & Volker Gast (2008), *Reciprocals and Reflexives: Theoretical and Typological Exploration*, they expounded their point of view aiming to research the distinction between reciprocal meaning and reflexive meaning that the main distinction lies in the multiple functions of reciprocals. The symposium also introduced relative viewpoints of other scholars. For example, Reinhart & Siloni (2005) distinguished two types of verbs which can express reciprocal meanings: one type with reciprocal meanings inside the verbs and the other type requiring adding prefixes or other phrases to express reciprocal meanings.

**The Deficiency of Pronominal Verbs in Chinese**

Due to the linguistic difference between Chinese and French, the Chinese verbs don’t have the characteristics of grammatical change. Instead they have semantic expressions. That means both the languages are able to express the same scenes but in different forms. Regarding reflexives, in *L’énoncé réfléchi* by André Rousseau (2007), they are divided into five categories.

**Complete Reflexives**

E.g. Il se soigne = 他照顾自己 (he takes care of himself)
Analysis: in this category, ‘自己 (ziji)’ in Chinese is used to convey reflexive meaning which resembles ‘soi-même’ in French and -self in English.

**Reflexives including Adjectives**

E.g. Il se reconnaît coupable = 他承认 (自己) 有罪 (he admits himself guilty)
Analysis: in this category, we can observe that ‘自己 (ziji)’ here is not indispensable. Reflexive meaning in this case can be conveyed either explicitly or implicitly.
Reflexives involving Parts of the Body

E.g. Il se mouche le nez = 他擤鼻涕 (he blows his nose)
Analysis: in this category, obviously, reflexive meaning is expressed implicitly in Chinese. It’s self-evident that blowing one’s nose should be done by oneself. Nose is one part of the body. Therefore, there is no need to convey explicitly that it is oneself who blow the nose.

Reflexives with Actions (in Contrast with Reflexive Verbs with Static Meaning)

E.g. il se réveille = 他醒了 (he wakes up)
Analysis: in this category, as in Example 3, in Chinese, there is no need to convey explicitly that it is oneself who conducts the action. If ‘自己 (ziji)’ is added here, it emphasizes that one wakes up naturally without being awakened by someone else or the alarm clocks.

Reflexives with Absent Objects

E.g. il se prépare à l’examen = 他自己主动为考试做准备 (he is prepared for the examination himself)
Analysis: in this structure, ‘自己 (ziji)’ and ‘主动 (zhudong)’ are used in Chinese to express reflexive meaning and spontaneous meaning respectively.

From the analysis of the five categories, we can draw the following conclusion:

Both ‘自己 (ziji)’ in Chinese and ‘se’ in French serving as reflexive symbols can express reflexive meanings either explicitly or implicitly. Take Example 3 (reflexives involving parts of body) for instance, ‘自己 (ziji)’ cannot be used to express reflexive meaning; once used, the meaning of the whole sentence could be altered. On the contrary, as for reciprocal meaning, according to the research of Siloni (2005), verbs with reciprocal meanings are classified into two categories. One constitutes the verbs with reciprocal meaning within the verbs e.g. ‘打架’ (fight). The other constitutes the verbs without reciprocal meaning inside the verbs, but they require the help of other words or phrases to express the reciprocal meaning. e.g. ‘互相认识’ (know each other), and ‘互相了解’ (get to know each other), etc.

• E.g. (1): ils se connaissent = 他们互相认识 (they know each other)
  Analysis: in Chinese, ‘认识’ (know) doesn’t fall into the category of verbs with reciprocal meaning itself, so when it is used, words like ‘互相 (huxiang), or ‘对方 (duifang)’ are added to express reciprocal meaning.

• E.g. (2): ils se battent=他们在打架
  Analysis: in this example, ‘打架’ (fight) falls into the category of verbs with reciprocal meanings, for one cannot fight with himself. Therefore, no other supplementary words are needed to express the reciprocal meaning. in other words, ‘他们互相打架’ (they fight with each other) is not acceptable in Chinese, because the reciprocal meaning is expressed repetitively.

Thus, we may draw the following conclusion: in Chinese, verbs with reciprocal meanings and verbs without reciprocal meanings fall into two categories. While in French, ‘se’ is used for all verbs to express the reciprocal meanings. In Chinese, verbs with reciprocal meanings can be used separately, while verbs without reciprocal meanings need adding words like ‘互相’ and ‘彼此’ (both mean ‘each other’) to help express reciprocal meanings.

Kong & Kokutani’s article refers to the three categories classified by Maslova (2008) of the relation of these two meanings in different language.

1. The signs expressing reflexive meanings accords with the signs expressing reciprocal meanings
2. The signs expressing reciprocal meanings include both signs expressing reflexive meanings and other complementary constituents.

3. The signs expressing reflexive meanings differ from the signs expressing reciprocal meanings.

From the above analysis, French belongs to the first category, while Chinese belongs to the third. That is to say in French, the pronoun ‘se’ has multiple functions, expressing both reflexive and reciprocal meanings. While in Chinese, ‘自己’ (oneself) and ‘相互’ (each other) are two different forms with different expressive forms. Thus, we assume the multiplicity of pronoun ‘se’ in French causes a major difficulty for Chinese students in the process of acquisition of French pronominal verbs. But more empirical statistics are required to prove the assumption.

**Hypothesis**

Through analyzing factors influencing reflexives and reciprocals of pronominal verbs and difficulties hindering Chinese students, the author raises the following hypotheses basing on previous study:

1. The different types of the two languages, especially deficiencies of reflexives and reciprocals of pronominal verbs on meaning and format side, trouble Chinese students. By comparing the two deficiencies, a hypothesis can be raised that format deficiency can be remedied more easily than meaning deficiency because grammar rules are helpful to the former, while the latter needs abstract reaction.

2. Chinese students study English when they are in junior high school and French is their second foreign language. Therefore, English plays a very important role in their study. The second hypothesis is that the effect from English to beginners is more serious than to the students who have higher level of knowledge.

**Language Experiment**

An experiment was designed to reproduce Chinese students’ acquisition of reflexives and reciprocals of pronominal verbs. Some material with pictures was offered to the participants. The answer was recorded one by one.

There were four groups of participants. 10 persons whose mother languages are French and Chinese, respectively, formed the first group. The other three groups members were Chinese students who took French as foreign language and whose ability was elementary, intermediate or higher. 10 members were in each group, which led to 40 participants altogether. After recording, all the participants were asked to fill the forms to collect relative information, including age, ability to use French, major, educational history and so on.

**Errors and Strategies in Language**

For the members in the elementary group, several errors of reflexives can be summarized from the data. 1. ‘e’, the reflexive, is absent. Take ‘Elle dépêche’ as an example, whose correct form should be ‘elle se dépêche’. 2. ‘Be + past participle’, an English sentence structure, is patterned. ‘il est dormi’ should be ‘il se dormi’. 3. Sentence structures of the mother language are patterned, which means some members added extra reflexives in order to stress reflexive meaning. For example, they used ‘il dit soi-même’ which should be ‘il se dit’. The errors of reciprocals are similar to those of reflexives, except the differences on semantic side. 4. ‘se’, is absent. Take ‘il fait bisous’ as an example, whose correct form should be ‘ils se sont fait
bisous’.  5. ‘Be + past participle’, an English sentence structure, is patterned. ‘ils sont embrassés’ should be ‘ils se sont embrassés’. 6. Sentence structures of the mother language are patterned, which means some members added non-reciprocals. For example, they used ‘Ils échanger le cadeau ensemble’ which should be ‘ils s’échangent le cadeau’.

Mistakes made by the intermediate group members are similar to those by the elementary group members. All wrong sentence structures are due to the negative transfer of mother language and English. On the form side, the grammatical errors, including mistakes on conjugation, tenses or collocations, made by the first group can still be seen in the second group. However, there is a new type of error, which is the misapplication of ‘se’, such as ‘se ranger’, ‘se balayer’, ‘se faire un peu de ménage’ and so on. This type of error does not appear in the first group. This case suggests that the students begin to adapt to pronominal verbs, but they do not master them. Moreover, the students’ thinking mode can be observed, which means the process for them is to constantly look for the correct forms of pronominal verbs. The case in the first group is similar but the degree and content of self-correcting is different. In the first group, the members always try to find the correct verbs again and again. However, in the second group, their self-correcting content is mainly about forms of conjugation, such as “Elle se, se, elle se, s’est couchée plus tard” …, “elle se réveille, elle se réveille, and elle s’est réveillée …”

Analyzed from the data of higher group, the presentation is much better than the former groups, even though there are still some mistakes of several obscure verbs, such as se coucher, dormir, et s’endormir. However, the misapplication of “se” is in an up trend. They still make the similar errors like the second group, taking “se bavarder, se discuter…” as an example. Some members even use “se penser” instead of “penser”, “se récupérer” instead of “aller prendre”, “se passer” instead of “passer une journée”. The development means they are experiencing the process of adaptation. This reaction is effective in acquiring a new structure and errors in this process are unavoidable due to self-adjusting. The number of grammatical errors is decreasing, but the members still can not use French like native speakers. Furthermore, other strategies are diversified and approach to the correct use of language.

Through analyzing the experiment results of elementary group, it is concluded that all mistakes can be divided into format mistakes and semantic mistakes. Format mistakes are mainly grammatical mistakes and semantic mistakes focus on the use of “se”, a reflective pronoun. In the intermediate group, the accuracy of using pronominal verbs is higher, except missing and misapplying “se” and borrowing of English words and sentence patterns. However, some words without function of reflexives and reciprocals, such as “soi-même” and “ensemble” are not used in this group, which suggests the members can distinguish reflexives and the stress use of personal pronouns, and group moves and reciprocal moves. However, borrowing English sentence patterns means a deep influence from English. The members in the higher group can use “se” much better and the mistakes only appear in the use of several promiscuous words. This suggests that they master the reflexives and reciprocals function of “se” through long-term study. To other strategies, the members use syllogism and lexical methods1. There are no words or sentence structures borrowed from English, which means the members’ ability to use language is higher, with less influence from English. However, it is surprising that misapplication of “se’ is more serious. This may indicate the process of master

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1 Several ways to express mutuality: inference method which uses a sentence to express mutuality (such as il lui a offert un cadeau, elle lui a offert aussi and so on ); words, noun phrases and adverb phrases expressing mutually (such as en retour, en échange and so on).
the language is still far to end. With studying for long time, format mistakes will be fewer and fewer. But correcting semantic mistakes needs longer time.

Causes and Conclusion

The conclusion drawn from analyzing the data is that the source of members’ strategies is the source of their mistakes. Specifically, the differences of language types and the differences of languages lead to difficulties of cognition. These differences are based on absence of semantic side and format side of grammar in Chinese and the complex use of “se”. It is not wise to neglect other factors, such as influence from mother language and foreign language, and complexity of target language, etc. The mistakes on semantic side and format side exist in the whole language learning. Students in the higher group commit some semantic mistakes, but not many format mistakes or even no format mistakes. This indicates that format mistakes can be corrected with further learning and enhancing memory while correcting semantic mistakes and internalizing language need longer time and process. The influence from mother language and English is not so obvious in the higher group, but the most difficult session is to internalize the corresponding semantic part absent in mother language.

This article only focuses on acquisition of reflexives and reciprocals. Hopefully this is helpful to studying acquisition of French pronominal verbs. Study on neuter meaning and passive meaning should be conducted further.

References


A Study of College English Teaching from the Perspective of Constructivism

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[Abstract] Constructivism is a psychological theory in Western countries, which has become the latest teaching and learning theory in recent years both at home and abroad. Constructivism lays emphasis on the center role of students without neglecting the teacher's role in teaching. This paper studies the college English teaching model from the perspective of constructivism. Its application in the college English teaching model will be discussed. Obviously, the constructivist theory has great implications for improving college English teaching efficiency and cultivating creative English students.

[Keywords] constructivism; college English; teaching model

Introduction
In recent years, many researchers have conducted research about the application of constructivism in English teaching. Constructivism is a cognitive theory, which was first proposed by the famous psychologist Jean Piaget in the 1960s. And now, it has played a significant role in many fields, such as culture, economics, and education, etc. It focuses on knowledge construction, based on one’s experiences, mental models and faith, and emphasizes the subjective initiative, sociality and situationality of learning. It has put forward a number of learning and teaching perspectives. At present, education reform and quality education are greatly promoted, therefore the constructivist theory has a profound implication for college English teaching. It transforms the roles of the teachers and students, and pays more attention to the students’ knowledge construction, which can contribute to the improvement of their learning achievement.

Constructivism
Constructivism is a psychological theory of knowledge which holds the view that individuals construct knowledge from their previous experience.

Constructivist-Based Learning View
Constructivism believes that learning is the process of construction knowledge actively. The “construction” refers not only to the construction of a new message, but also to the reconstruction of the existing experience (Piaget, 1968). It focuses on learners’ objectives and autonomy. That is to say, learners absorb the information selectively according to their prior experience. During the process, learners have to analyze the new information actively in order to acquire it. Meanwhile, the teachers and teaching models have to adjust in meeting the needs of developing students’ learning autonomy. What’s more, students should make their own decisions in the process of learning.

Constructivist-Based Teaching View
Constructivism believes that the teaching process is not passively giving knowledge, but instead helps students to construct and reconstruct the knowledge in an active way by means of various tasks. The tasks and activities should be designed to be suitable for the learning goals. The students are the active builders
of their knowledge. That is to say, the teacher’s role changes from telling to guiding. Teachers are responsible for creating real environments for the learners and inducing them to focus on realistic approaches to solve problems. Therefore, in a constructivist classroom, learners are encouraged to be responsible and autonomous in their learning. The teacher should design tasks to guide students’ learning, to assist them to be the center of learning process.

**Problems of the Current College English Teaching Model**

For many years, many colleges paid more attention to the results of CET4 and CET6. In the traditional teaching model, the teacher is considered to be the main source of knowledge, and the focus is mainly on the meaning of new words, and the structure of sentences, but virtually neglects other skills of the students, such as listening and speaking skills. The students’ ability of reconstruction of their knowledge is weak. The opportunities given to students to practice their spoken English are relatively limited; therefore, even though the students have learned words and grammar, they can’t use the language in the right way in real life situations. The disadvantage of this classroom activity is that students with higher language abilities always control the activity and the students who have lower language abilities are passive learners. Consequently, even though the students have learned enough knowledge, they have difficulties in using English, and their communicative ability is relatively poor. As a result, they lose interests in English learning.

**Conjunction of Constructivist-theory and College English Teaching**

Obviously, there are associations and conjunctions between constructivist-based learning and teaching views and current college English teaching. Constructivism has proposed a series of new assumptions which will enlighten the innovative teaching of college English teaching. First, constructivism maintains that learning is a process of mutual construction, in which the learners construct meanings actively. On the one hand, the understanding of information is constructed through existing experience, which is beyond the information provided. On the other hand, the information extracted from the memory system should also be reconstructed according to the variation of the specific situation.

**Application of Constructivist-theory models in College English Teaching**

At present, there are several teaching models based on the constructivist theory, this paper mainly makes analysis of three models, which are Scaffolding Instruction, Anchored Instruction, Random Access Instruction and Cooperative Learning.

**Scaffolding Instruction**

Scaffolding Instruction is the most significant and widely used instruction. “Scaffold” is a term used in architecture; here it is used to describe a teaching model. Scaffolding assists students in “making connections, building mental schemata, and developing new concepts from previous understanding” (Hogan & Pressley, 1997, p. 8). In the Scaffolding Instruction model, the teacher provides scaffolding or supports for the students to facilitate their development. With the guidance of the teacher, students can acquire the ability in which their knowledge is constructed and internalized. The following parts constitute Scaffolding Instruction, which are scaffolding, presentation of situation, exploration and experiment, individual excursion, collaborative learning and assessment. For space limitation, the various parts will not be discussed in detail.
This instruction can be applied in teaching procedures of a genre-based approach in writing class. After analyzing the type of modeling essay, teachers and students can together write an article which is the same type as the modeling essay. Thus, students can experience the whole process of creation themselves. In this process, the role of the teacher is the provider and negotiator of information. Afterwards, students can choose a topic, and imitate the modeling essay to write articles.

**Anchored Instruction**

Anchored Instruction aims to make students work collaboratively to solve realistic problems in learning with the help of anchoring instruction about a certain topic. The “anchor” should be interesting and it can provide a general goal for learners (Bransford, Sherwood, Hasselbring, Kinzer, & Williams, 1990). It can contribute to effective problem solving and critical thinking. Moreover, in Anchored Instruction class, students study collaboratively with peers and the teacher. Anchored Instruction includes the following parts: designing the situation, identifying the problems, individual learning, collaborative learning and assessment.

Taking the writing class as an example, the goal of an anchor is to make learners identify writing topics or themes and make an effort to construct ideas about the topics to be written. The anchor is represented by a graph, a story, pictures, photos, or issues to be solved. Anchored modules should embed all the information needed or provide hints used as scaffolding. After presenting anchors in context, the teachers construct discussion in the classroom and the students can actively participate in the discussion. Meanwhile, collaborative learning is needed to integrate into the instruction activity, to motivate the students, and arouse their interest in learning. As this process is real and problem-solving, students’ learning effects can be reflected directly. Consequently, the assessment of this teaching model needs no special tests, and students’ performance can be observed directly during the process.

**Random Access Instruction**

As one of the three major modes of instruction based on the constructivism theory, which is derived from Cognitive Flexibility Theory, Random Access Instruction refers to “electronic learning environments that allow students to get away from the chapter-by-chapter approach, and use the new media to easily access different cases and gain multiple perspectives” (Spiro & Jehng, 1990). In the traditional instruction, learner’s autonomy and interests are neglected, and consequently, students just repeat and imitate what they have been taught in the class and gradually lose their interest in learning English. However, in Random Access Instruction, various opportunities are provided for students to develop their learning autonomy, allowing them to be active in the learning process, and require them to study collaboratively. Random Access Instruction is composed of five parts: creating situations, random access learning, training students’ abilities of thinking, collaborative learning, and assessment. The final goals of Random Access Instruction are to help students to engage in in-depth exploration in realistic situations, to motivate learning interest, and to promote collaborative learning ability.

For instance, in an English writing class, students can yield richer information for learning through given opportunities to explore the topic from multiple perspectives. Teachers should give students enough time and space to write and think independently, so that students’ learning autonomy can be cultivated. What’s more, this kind of freedom can enhance their learning quality, interest and motivation. As result, a great number of alternative items of information from students’ memory storage will be produced.
Creativity can be generated through students’ divergent thinking. This process is critical to foster students’ divergent thinking ability in random access instruction.

**Cooperative Learning**
Learning to be cooperative is one of the principles of survival in future society. Constructivism also pays much attention to learning through communication and cooperation. Since its rise, cooperative learning has become a mainstream in the teaching field. Cooperative learning means that the students, under the teachers’ guidance, work in small groups, which should be small enough, on the same goals and receive rewards based on their group performance. Each group member’s unique effort and contribution are required and indispensable for group success.

Cooperative learning has several key elements. First and foremost, the cooperative group should be small enough so that each member has adequate opportunities to take part in the group activities. In the second part, interaction between group members is imperative in order to achieve the common goals. Students within one group will exchange their information, help and encourage each other, discuss, argue, reach mutual understanding, and finally solve the conflicts. In the third part, the group should attain a common goal and students in one group are accountable and responsible for each other. And last, but not least, the teachers are no longer dominators of the class, but the guides, helpers, organizers and facilitators in classes.

**Conclusion**
To train students’ comprehensive abilities is the main purpose of college English teaching, and its final goal is to help students to become lifelong learners rather than only giving them fixed knowledge. In addition, it also enables students to practice their skills, and to resolve real problems by themselves. Compared with traditional English teaching models, the constructivist theory is a profound educational revolution. It has proposed a series of active new assumptions for English learning and teaching. In the constructivist-based teaching models, teachers have to transform their teaching concepts, abandon the traditional teaching models which are teachers-centered, and now the teacher and students are partners during the process of teaching and learning. Dialectically, we should recognize the basic problems during the learning and teaching process, meanwhile, we should also accept the reasonable parts of it, thereby to construct our own learning and teaching theories which are geared to China’s college English teaching.

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Internet-Assisted PBL Model for English News Reading Courses

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[Abstract] Project-Based Learning (PBL) is a learner-centered teaching model. Under the PBL model, students may apply their language skills to practical use through a series of project activities. Experts have done many researches on the application of the PBL model. The initial idea of project based learning comes from John Dewey’s “learning by doing”. In this study, we applied the PBL model to English news reading teaching. The internet has been proven to be a pedagogical and useful tool for language learning. The positive research results show that students are in favor of using the Internet as a source for news reading courses. The PBL model of Instruction contributes to college students’ reading comprehension abilities by motivating students’ learning competence.

[Keywords] Internet; PBL; news; reading; teaching

Introduction
In China, the English news reading course is not simply a selective course for the English major, but also an explorative course for the non-English major. Most universities in China have launched English news reading courses and there are almost 54 types of learning materials. Most materials that teachers use are edited compilations of outdated news. Most edited information is adapted in favor of the editors’ ideology. Traditional teaching strategies for general English are adopted in most classrooms, which suppress students’ learning subjectivity and hinder their acquisition process, which leads to fruitless results of English news reading with no actual improvement of learners’ comprehensive and linguistic abilities. Instructors are in great need of authentic news sources and news teaching strategies to arouse the learners’ attention.

The internet has been greatly integrated into the field of language teaching with its features of being user-friendly and open-to-anyone. Substantial researches concerning varied aspects – Web 2.0 tools (Liam Morgan, 2012), web-assisted courses for construction English (Fernandez, 2001), and online teaching in various foreign languages (Kartal & Uzun, 2010), have shown that the internet can assist second foreign language learning. In news reading courses, learners may easily obtain access to English news on the internet. The internet has currently been regarded as a natural source of news instructions, as most foreign news authorities have online services. Learners may easily get different reports of the same news from varied news agencies. These authentic news reports may improve learners’ reading abilities and cultivate their critical thinking spontaneously.

Project-Based Learning (PBL) is a learner-centered teaching model. Under the PBL model, students may apply their language skills to practical use through a series of project activities. The initial idea of project-based learning comes from John Dewey’s “Learning by Doing” (1933). According to Sarwar’s operational definition, PBL can be defined as a voluntary collaborative or individual educational process initiated by a teacher to provide EFL learners a context for learning (2000). The purpose of PBL is to offer learners opportunities to develop linguistic abilities by expanding their language repertoire through projects.
This study is the integration of the Internet into the news reading courses and applying the PBL approach, with the purpose to arouse students’ learning motivation and subjectivity.

The Study
The study was implemented at a Chinese University of Science and Technology in a news reading course which followed the principles of the PBL approach. The course design blends the use of the Internet with PBL-oriented news reading instruction. The participants were forty Chinese college students. All participants have passed the CET-4\(^1\) and have attended a traditional English news reading course for a month. They are competent in English news reading and doing research. Students are randomly divided into eight research groups. Each group set up a QQ chat group and launched a group zone, which demonstrated their research findings and functioned as an activated blog. The reading process was divided into five interactive procedures: project setting, basic knowledge learning, researching in groups, presenting findings, and evaluating and revising.

In order to measure the effectiveness of the Internet-assisted PBL model, students were given a pre-course test and a post-course test. A Post Instruction Perception Questionnaire was given at the end of study to figure out students’ attitudes towards the PBL model of instruction. The measure focused on three aspects: (1) effect on overall reading performance; (2) effect on learners’ reading comprehension; and (3) effect on interest, motivation and Internet use. The data were analyzed through quantitative and descriptive analysis.

Discussions and Findings
The pre-course test was given before the PBL model was applied and the post-test was given after the PBL model was used by students. Contents of the two tests were mainly selected from the latest political news. Both the pre-course test and post-course test included three parts. The first part was the fast-reading part, which included an approximate 200-word passage and ten true or false questions. Students were required to finish this part within fifteen minutes. The second part was vocabulary, which included ten fill in the blank questions about political acronyms and abbreviations. The third part was reading comprehension, which included four passages and twenty relevant questions. The total score of the test was 100 points – Part I was 10 points, Part II was 10 points, and Part III was 80 points.

Results of Pre-Course and Post-Course Tests

Table 1. Average Score of Pre-Course and Post-Course Tests

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Test/Score</th>
<th>Part I</th>
<th>Part II</th>
<th>Part III</th>
<th>Average</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre-course</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-course</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>74</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As clearly shown in Table 1, the average score of the students in the pre-course test was 68, while the average score of the students in the post-course test was 74. There was a 6-point increase between the average scores of the two tests. There were also obvious increases in the scores of each part. It is clear that the students got higher marks in Part I in the post-course test. As for the increase shown in Part II, students are more acquainted with political titles and abbreviations after applying the PBL model. The margin of Part III suggests that students had better reading skills and have cultivated their reading

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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.
comprehension. All the results show that the students improved their reading abilities and skills in the Internet-assisted PBL model.

Table 2. Distribution of Mean and Model in Pre-Course and Post-Course Tests

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Data/Test</th>
<th>Pre-course</th>
<th>Post-course</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Median / SD</td>
<td>66.4/6.2</td>
<td>70.1/5.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The data in Table 2 shows the median score in the pre-course and post-course tests. It also shows the scores that most students got in both tests. The data can also be expressed in the equation: H1: r>0, where “r” stands for the difference between the students’ average results of the two tests. The median score in the post-course tests was greater than the score in the pre-course test. Furthermore, it is noted that the standard deviation (SD) of the median score in the post-course tests was slightly smaller than that of pre-course test. From the viewpoint of statistics, the effect of post-course test is better than the effect of the pre-course test. From the data in Table 2, we may draw the conclusion that the Internet-assisted PBL model is an effective teaching approach in English news reading courses.

Students’ Opinions about the Internet-Assisted PBL Model

Since the PBL model is mainly learner-centered and instructor-assisted, students are the main research objects. Consequently, students were asked to express their opinions about the Internet-assisted PBL model in connection with feedback and revision. Table 3 shows the students’ opinions about the study.

Table 3. Opinions about the Internet-Assisted PBL Model

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Internet-assisted PBL model and Reading performance</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>No idea</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Internet-assisted PBL model improved reading skills</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>50</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internet-assisted PBL model aroused reading interest</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>12.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>22</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As is obvious from Table 3, most participants had a favorable perception towards the effect of the Internet-assisted PBL model. Seventy percent (70%) of the students agreed that their reading skills were improved after applying the PBL model. The fact that more than 85% of the students verified that they behaved much better in the Internet-assisted news reading courses than in the traditional news reading courses. The Internet-assisted PBL model has improved their reading proficiency. Students demonstrated what they had obtained from the Internet in their online zones as assignment of the project. As a result, they developed audiences of their blogs, which is hard to achieve in the traditional classroom teaching model with the teacher acting as the sole audience. Ninety percent (90%) of the students stated that the assigned project aroused their interest and motivated their willingness to read. Compared with the traditional teaching approach, the Internet-assisted PBL model was better accepted by students.

The PBL Model and Students’ Reading Performance

The Project-Based Learning Model trains learners’ critical comprehension, literal comprehension and affective comprehension at the same time, as the results in Table 4 demonstrate.
Table 4. PBL Model and Reading Performance

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PBL Model and Reading performance</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>No idea</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PBL Model improved literal comprehension</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PBL Model improved critical comprehension</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PBL Model improved affective comprehension</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7.5</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A significant percentage of students (78%) responded that they found that their literal comprehension had been increased. Ninety percent (90%) of the students found that their critical comprehension had been improved. The Internet-assisted PBL model provides students with a good chance of viewing diverse critiques, news, and comments about the same event, which may promote their critical comprehension. Through the project, students established a self-selective system for choosing news sources. They learned from the Internet, autonomously and innovatively. They established a habit of critical thinking. In the survey, 67.5% of the students indicated that their affective comprehension abilities had been improved.

**PBL Model and Linguistic skills**

Despites reading performance, other linguistic skills of students were also increased in the Internet-assisted PBL courses.

Table 5. Effect of Internet-Assisted PBL Model

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Effect of Internet-assisted PBL</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>No idea</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Effect on reading speed</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Effect on vocabulary</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Effect on language use</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7.5</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Effect on comprehension</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As Table 5 shows, most students found that their vocabulary was increased. They did not simply learn from the in-class instruction, but also learned from the projects. As most of the news they obtained was from foreign news agencies, the words and expressions used in the news were more authentic and idiomatic. Students learned the practical way of using the language. They exhibited their research results on the Internet, which was also another process of using the language. Students became independent, strategic and meta-cognitive readers. They volunteered to develop, control and facilitate comprehension strategies to ensure that they could understand what they had read. Students gradually became aware of the newsworthiness and news structures, which reversely motivated students to read more widely.

**Students’ Experience of the Internet-Assisted PBL Model**

To summarize, we must take students’ experience into consideration, as indicated in Table 6.
Table 6. Students’ Overall Experience of the Internet-Assisted PBL Model

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Students’ overall experience of Internet-assisted PBL model</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>No idea</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>f %</td>
<td>f %</td>
<td>f %</td>
<td>f %</td>
<td>f %</td>
<td>f %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The model motivates me towards news reading.</td>
<td>- -</td>
<td>- -</td>
<td>3 7.5</td>
<td>17 42.5</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I prefer news paper reading on Internet.</td>
<td>1 2.5</td>
<td>4 10</td>
<td>5 12.5</td>
<td>20 50</td>
<td>10 25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I like to apply the learning model to my future study.</td>
<td>- -</td>
<td>- -</td>
<td>10 25</td>
<td>10 25</td>
<td>20 50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I met technological problems in the study.</td>
<td>- -</td>
<td>3 7.5</td>
<td>5 12.5</td>
<td>22 55</td>
<td>10 25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have language difficulties in applying the model.</td>
<td>- -</td>
<td>5 12.5</td>
<td>7 17.5</td>
<td>18 45</td>
<td>10 25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I become more strategic in reading news.</td>
<td>3 7.5</td>
<td>5 12.5</td>
<td>6 15</td>
<td>20 50</td>
<td>8 20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the survey, seven students found the Internet-Assisted PBL model very effective. Ten students considered the model as relatively helpful. Four students found it non-effective. Five students showed their uncertainties as they have had some technological problems. Only a small portion of students reported that they had language problems in applying the PBL model. A significant number of students showed their anticipations to apply this Internet-assisted PBL model in their future studies.

Conclusion

Constructivist approaches to learning (Schull, 1988) states that learning is an active, constructive, cumulative and goal-directed activity. With the application of the Internet-assisted PBL model, the classroom can be converted into a place where students enjoy staying, despite the challenging research goal. Teachers took the role of supervision rather than instruction. Internet-assisted project-based learning can be an alternative to the paper-based, rote memorization, and teacher-led classroom. The course is learner-centered and project-targeted. With the assistance of teachers, students set the theme of the project, and search news information on the Internet via group discussion and cooperation. They synthesize the news information, demonstrate it in their zones or blogs, and develop presentations. The whole process is a vivid interaction among the students and the instructor. Students become more innovative while reading. With the presentation part, students improved their reading comprehension as well as their writing.

From this study, it is clear that Internet-assisted PBL motivates students to read widely. The Internet-assisted PBL model plays an important role in leading students to read voluntarily and promoting their levels of literacy. Students’ experiences in the study show that an easy-to-access reading opportunity is essential in their learning process. Students are more willing to read when the access of news is diverse and the project is set by students themselves. They gain a more enjoyable and entertaining learning experience in Internet-assisted project-based news reading courses. They get more chances to communicate with both instructors and other students. Students are encouraged to read and study independently. Instructors give suggestions, evaluations and revisions on students’ work.

In the Internet-assisted PBL model, the traditional roles of teachers and students in classroom are changed. PBL depends on learning groups. It encourages students to take full responsibility for their
learning. Students work together to transmit information provided by teachers and to convert news that they get from the Internet into knowledge of their own. Students play a decisive role in obtaining, displaying and manipulating news information. The Internet makes it possible for students to think critically and actively. The student’s role is to raise questions, acquire knowledge and find solutions to problems raised by the project.

The teacher’s role in Project Based Learning is not as a dominator, but as a facilitator. Teachers are not in charge of the classroom or the students’ learning processes. They just create a learning atmosphere for students. Teachers explain the basic knowledge about English news, such as text types, vocabulary, writing feature and structure.

Teaching tasks are more demanding. Teachers must give answers to random questions proposed by students, which have a higher requirement for reaction. Once the project is settled, teachers should regulate the investigation process in order to keep the project focused. When the project is finished, teachers provide students with feedback that will help them strengthen their learning for their next project. Teachers are supposed to take students’ interests and English levels into account while giving suggestions. Teachers interact with students in the entire learning process.

In this study, the Internet has been proven to be a pedagogical and useful tool for language learning. The positive research results show that students are in favor of using the Internet as a source for their news reading course. PBL strategies have been proven effective in English news reading courses despite that a few students found that the project-based news reading course was more difficult and demanding than the traditional news reading course. This Internet-assisted PBL model is especially beneficial for the situation when time, facilities and faculties are in shortage.

References
Cultivating Students’ Integrated Skills with the Help of Reading Materials

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[Abstract] The idea of cultivating students’ integrated English skills is put forward in order to change the situation of traditional English teaching. One of the reading materials in middle school English textbooks is taken to expound how to cultivate students’ skills in English class. Listening before reading the article is to have a general idea about the material; talking after reading is to help students understand the material better; and writing after talking is to cement what the students have read. In this way, not only are students’ integrated skills cultivated, but the classroom atmosphere also becomes active.

[Keywords] integrated skills; Whole Language Approach; reading materials; training

Introduction

Integrated skills include listening, speaking, reading and writing skill. Only one single skill has long been trained in traditional English classes. This dull teaching method is not helpful in the development of students’ skills. In recent years, the concept of cultivating students’ integrated skills, which is mainly based on the theory of Whole Language Approach, has been presented.

The Whole Language Approach lays the foundation for the development of students’ integrated skills. “Whole Language advocates believe that language should be whole, meaningful, and relevant to the learners” (Huang, 2011). Some experts also had further study in line with the basis from the theory and practice of whole language teaching. Hu (2008) analyzed the integration of foreign language teaching and research, and Chomsky (1969), who wrote Linguistics and Philosophy, explained the theory from the view of philosophy.

A passage in a textbook is taken as an example to show how to cultivate the listening, speaking and writing skills with the help of reading materials. In the teaching process, a listening material that is interesting and related to the theme of the article is introduced to the students at first to excite their amusement in the topic. Then in the activity of reading, which is the core of the activity, the training of the skills to read with many methods is focused on. And after reading, the students are asked to think and have a discussion according to the reading material. Finally, the students are required to write on a particular topic.

Definition and Theoretical Basis of Integrated Skills

Traditional English teaching usually covers a single teaching style, which cannot have an effective result for communication. In order to solve this problem, the integrated skill theory was put forward.

Definition of English Integrated Skills

The integrated skill theory was created in the 1960s in Europe and America, and refers to where in a class or a certain occasion, students are trained to use any of the four skills, two or more skills at one time, or focus on one skill and training other skills at the same time (Liao, 2001, p. 57).

Many educationalists stress the significance of building new knowledge on what students have already known and what they can do. So if students are able to read a short story, this skill will help them
write their own story. In the same way, if they can understand a dialogue about buying things in a shop, they can use this as a model for practicing their own speaking skills in a similar situation. Also, integrating these skills allows teachers to build more variety into the lessons because the range of activities will be wider. For example, in a reading activity, instead of just having reading practice, the students can also have listening, speaking, and writing practice. This can improve their motivation in learning English.

When people deal with one activity, they need different kinds of skills at the same time. For example, one who is listening to a speech, he may need to make notes, come up with a conclusion, or he may be asked to introduce the contents to his friends. He uses listening, speaking, and writing skills in the process (Wen, 1992, p. 72). Integrating the skills means students have to pay attention to the use of the language, not just learning words, phrases or sentences.

Theoretical Basis of Integrated Skills
For decades, linguistic theories contributed greatly to the improvement of English teaching quality. From the traditional grammar-translation method to the communicative approach, the audio lingual method, reading and writing method, and task-based approach, etc., the Whole Language Approach was created, in which the integrated skill method relies.

The Whole Language approach. Oxford (1990) thought many experts had different definitions on the Whole Language Approach, but they are roughly similar – all have the important aspects in language teaching, and they all emphasize its integrity. Yuan (2001) thought that “the whole” is not a simple plus of each part; it is an integration of them. She also had a further study on the characteristics of the Whole Language:

1. The Whole Language refers to all aspects of the language, including the whole discourse and whole language skills (Mu, 2014, p. 50). The whole discourse is not necessarily the whole of the original book. As long as it has a complete meaning in a proper occasion, it is the whole discourse. The whole skills include listening, speaking, reading and writing, and the “whole” also refers to their connections, which means we should not teach them separately, but instead focus on improving the integrated skills of the language learners.

2. The Whole Language requires a full method. A full method means not to put the method separately into the learning process; the choice of teaching methods should be on the basis of the needs of the learning situation. The surroundings are also included into it, for the Whole Language is a result of the combination of knowledge and social environment.

3. The Whole Language faces whole learners. Learners are the central part of education, so in teaching, we need to consider the characteristics of the learners, such as their interests, advantages, disadvantages and their needs, and so on.

Teaching modes related to the Whole Language approach.
1. Content-based teaching. The content-based teaching mode refers to learning language through the content of a professional curriculum. It combines language learning and disciplinary knowledge together, so students’ language competence can be improved with the development of subject knowledge and cognitive competence at the same time.

Scarella & Oxford (1992) agreed with others’ characteristics of teaching mode based on the content: learning the language, centering subject knowledge, using real language materials as learning content, and learning new information, etc.
2. Task-based teaching. Task-based teaching takes a specific task such as learning motivation, and uses the completion of the task to reflect the teaching results (rather than results from test scores). Task-based language teaching mode advocates that the study of language should be as close as possible to the language used in daily life. Its main idea is to simulate all kinds of activities people use in society or school life, combine language teaching and use for learners in everyday life, and lay stress on learning communication through the target language. Therefore, the tasks are purposeful activities people do in their daily life, putting real language materials in the task into the learning environment, and trying to put the classroom language learning with language activities into real society.

**Practical Training of Integrated Skills in the Reading Process**

The text of Grade 7 is taken as an example to show how to integrate the four skills with the help of reading materials (the script is omitted). It is a passage about protecting elephants written by two students from Thailand. There are a total of three paragraphs. The first paragraph tells us the purpose of protecting the elephants; the second paragraph describes how smart and lovely the elephants are; and in the last part, they emphasize that elephants are in great danger and call for people to protect them.

We can see that this article is very close to students’ real life, and it will resurface in their hearts. Though students may lack the knowledge about the background of elephants, they can compare them with other animals they love. Teachers can cultivate the students’ love and protection of animals to achieve an emotional purpose.

Then come the concrete steps of integrating the four language skills into the lesson.

**Training the Listening Skill**

The teacher can let students listen to radio material that is related to animals or animal protection, which is an interesting topic, such as a fragment of a movie or TV show. We can serve listening material about a student’s speech like this:

*Watching the birds flying in the sky, the fish in the water surf, you might think that there are a lot of animals in the world! But you know some animals are very rare, and even some animals have become extinct. The world’s animal species become fewer and fewer. If we cannot save them timely, perhaps only human beings live on the earth in the future! I am not “alarmist”, I can tell you....*

Before listening, teachers typically begin by introducing the theme of the speech, stimulate their students’ interests, and then let the them have a quick browse of the materials related to the content, to gain a clear understanding of the purpose, and to predict the content, and then give tasks to the students to finish after listening. They can predict the theme at the same time. By forecasting, students can learn where to find the answers and their accuracy rate will be improved.

And then, students are required to listen to the materials to capture the details. Teachers must remind students to have a reasonable tendency of listening to the content of the material, and then to capture useful information. At the same time, students should learn to reduce the difficulty of listening to the materials. By finishing the tasks in the listening stage, the difficulty of the second task is reduced.
Training Reading Skill

Now we will go into the process of reading the passage. The passage in this unit is quite suitable for students to read because it is close to their lives and can inspire their emotions and sympathy. As we all know, the choice of reading materials plays an important role in the process.

To make the choice of reading materials, first teachers should take into account the reader’s own interests and his or her cultural backgrounds. As to the difficulty that may be caused by structure and vocabulary, it can be implemented in the design of comprehensive exercises according to different requirements. Therefore, what the teachers choose must be in accordance with the learners’ interests, even materials that are close to our real lives, in order to get a better result. Secondly, teachers should break tradition in the concept, not being confined to an English short story or a small article about history. Reading, as one of the four skills, is also to serve the other skills. The purpose of reading is to let the learners understand what others have said, and give descriptions orally or in writing. So, we can add or extend reading materials on the basis of a set of teaching materials. Reading materials may be short or long, elegant or vulgar. They can be as short as an English label on clothes or can be as long as the news commentary to the text in the newspaper. The space of reading is also flexible, which can both be done in the classroom within the stipulated time and it can be read outside the classroom and after collecting materials in daily life and then communicating about them in the classroom. This reflects English reading in our lives is everywhere; English learning is no longer confined to books.

In the teaching process, it can break the previous dull, boring classroom form, while the communicative approach is used. Classroom teaching can be designed with a few steps as follows: first, within a limited time, the students can have an extensive reading to complete the design exercises. The teacher can examine the degree of students’ understanding by the test results. Simultaneously, they can also complete the tasks the teaching materials required. At this stage, new vocabulary introduction and simple explanation can also be done.

Then we will go into the stage of training reading skills. Generally, the reading activity includes five parts: skimming, intensive reading, proficient reading, study reading and conclusion. For skimming, we can design questions like concluding the thesis or main idea of the text. And in the intensive reading part, we can let students do some tasks in details, like finding out the topic sentence, guessing word meanings, and asking questions in details. When it comes to proficient reading, we can ask students to do paragraph division, which demands students to have a detailed understanding, and to know the key point of the article. Du (1996) thought that the study of reading is a process of thinking, which requires students to deal with the knowledge served in the passage creatively, and try to get some new ideas. And the last part is the conclusion, which includes general questions like multiple choices, true or false items, Yes or No questions, cloze and so on.

Training Oral Skill

The oral activity after reading is a conclusion and extension from the aspect of contents (Li, 2003, p. 132). In this activity, the teacher can let the students have a discussion in groups on what they will do to save animals in danger of becoming extinct. In this process, teachers should follow these principles. First, they should maintain a balance between fluency and accuracy (Chen, 2012, p. 179). Accuracy and fluency are in conflict with each other in the language learning process. If you pay attention to accuracy, you may not do well in fluency, and if you want to be fluent, you might make mistakes. Meanwhile, teachers need to encourage students to open their mouths. In this way, students dare to express in English and make
mistakes. Teachers also need to pay attention to the wording when correcting students’ mistakes, and should not affect their enthusiasm of speaking English.

Second, design contextualized and personalized exercises to help students develop strategies of speaking. Teachers should strive to create a relaxed atmosphere for students to speak English, to eliminate students’ tensions and fears of speaking in English. For example, take the different themes of each unit as topics for students to discuss in groups, and let every student, no matter their level (high, medium or low) in learning English to have friendly cooperation, and to have the opportunity of expression.

Eventually, offer effective language input while teaching in class. The teacher should attach importance to the amount of what he or she says. If the teacher speaks very little, it will directly affect the students’ amount of information input, because in the English classroom, the content the teacher says affects students’ acceptance of foreign language information; if there’s too much, it will take up the students’ practice time. Teachers should make a moderate plan on the basis of the purpose of teaching each lesson.

It has been proven that the more the learners can choose in the classroom about the content of what they want to read, listen to, see and talk about, the more successful teaching speaking is. Teachers can use dialogue which is related to daily life to develop oral English activities. By this way, students will not only have immense interest, but they will also have much to say. Students can use English to communicate effectively. The new way of classroom teaching in English reading is a reform to change the situation of the old, dull reading teaching.

**Training Writing Skill**
The process of training writing skill can be divided into three stages: brainstorming, setting clear requirements, and doing classroom comments.

**Brainstorming.** In the students’ writing stage, teachers should have a brainstorming on writing content. In this process students mainly fulfill their task of information collecting before writing in order to write later. Brainstorming should be completed in class so that students can learn from each other and share their resources through this activity.

In this process, teachers should not only help students to get knowledge on what they are not familiar with, but also help them to remember some of the vocabulary or terms they may use as much as possible, and try to clear their language barriers before arranging the writing tasks, to enable students to complete the writing task easily. For example, in this lesson, the teacher can enrich students’ background knowledge through many ways. The teacher can add some important vocabulary that is related for students’ use in their writings. Some videos can be shown in order to enlarge students’ background knowledge. In this way, they can form the correct view at some level, and they can have a native way of expression when writing by imitating those passages.

**Setting Clear Writing Requirements.** After brainstorming is completed, teachers should put specific requirements for students. These requirements should include: the article genre, the basic framework of the article, writing format, writing methods, the use of conjunctions and idioms and so on. Rigorous requirements of writing will avoid students’ abstract ways, and reduce the teacher’s correcting difficulty. In this lesson, it is better to ask students to write an argument to express their ideas.

**Doing Classroom Comments.** Generally, the stage of classroom comments is started after correcting the students’ tasks. This stage is sometimes deleted due to the tight time of the task. It turns out that this kind of deletion has drawbacks. One of the drawbacks is that the students’ sense of accomplishment
cannot be met. Students are looking forward to the teacher’s evaluation, because they have put much of their effort into their work. Some students are also eager to get the teacher’s appreciation and praise. If teachers do not comment on their works in time, students may gradually lose interest in writing and therefore, this part of teaching may not be conducted well in the future. The second drawback is that the errors the students make in the exercises are unable to get timely and effective redress. There are quite a lot of passive English learners who often ignore the teachers’ corrections, and if classroom assessment is conducted, the students would have a better error correction.

Classroom assessment can be divided into several stages: first, collect the wrong sentences that appear universally in students’ writing; second, sort out the authentic expressions in students’ writing and ask other students to borrow them flexibly; third, read one or two outstanding essays or ask students to copy the excellent essay, and then paste them on the classroom “learning garden” for other students to learn from.

The training of integrated skills is the most important task in each unit, and the quality of completion has a firsthand influence on the success of each unit. It is a stage for students to leap from the cognitive stage to the application stage. In the teaching process of learning this content, the rational scientific teaching strategies are especially important which will promote the teaching of the entire unit. Furthermore, since the classroom assessment stage is conducted after marking students’ work, it is suggested that teachers should set aside at least two lessons to the section of integrated skills, so the learning effect will be more pronounced.

**Cautions in Training Integrated Skills**

Though integrating the four skills has great advantages, there are some things to be aware of, for everything has its limits.

**Balance between Integration and Separation**

As the integrated skills are very useful for language learners to develop their communicative competence, we should not desert the training of the separate items, for they are surely helpful to improve our language ability. If trained well, these aspects can accelerate the students’ language learning. It is therefore necessary for teachers to maintain an appropriate balance between integration and separation.

**Requirements for the Teacher**

Integrating the four language skills requires the teacher to have a good comprehension of the discourse, and to be able to use textbooks flexibly. This can also be time-consuming, requiring a lot of preparation. Sometimes teachers are so busy that they can not spare much time for extra preparatory work.

Another problem is designing suitable materials according to students’ different skill levels. The four skills tend to develop at different paces: receptive skills are stronger than productive skills. This means that teachers have to be skillful in selecting or designing integrated activities for their students.

However, these limitations should not prevent teachers from using the integrative approach. As we have seen from this chapter, the focus on realistic language in use can help students develop communicative competence. Learning English can be more motivating, because the students are using language for a real purpose, instead of just practicing the grammar. Integration requires time-consuming teaching, but it can bring worthwhile results.
Conclusion
To cultivate the students' integrated skills, the focal point is to design materials in hand organically, to realize the purpose of training their listening, speaking, reading and writing. In the process of teaching English reading, during the preparation phase, we first lead in through interesting and related listening material. It can not only drill students’ listening capacity, but also let students guess what is going on in the reading material. Students’ interests will be aroused at the same time. The process of reading, which is the prime section of this lesson, will still be conducted with the skills of skimming, fast reading, finding keywords and other means of training, to cultivate the students’ reading ability. When the training of reading is over, the teacher can set up several related topics in the text, and let the students have group discussions. Through the teacher’s guidance, students think positively, organize the results of the discussions, and express themselves in a relatively relaxed environment. In this way, students not only have training on their expressing ability, but also realize the sharing of knowledge with each other. Furthermore, it improves the affection between the classmates. Finally, it is the stage of writing, a stage during which the teacher lets the students think independently. After the training with the processes above, students have already had a comprehensive understanding of related topics in their mind, and also formed their own views; therefore, it contributes to their writing. In addition, in terms of the writing content, since the teacher has expanded the writing material, the students’ vocabulary becomes abundant, and idiomatic expressions are also increased, which will all help them to complete writing in an even better fashion.

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The Correlation between Learner Autonomy and Learning Anxiety
in College English Teaching in China

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[Abstract] The present study aims to explore detailed information on the correlations between learner autonomy and EFL learning anxiety. In order to obtain reliable data, both quantitative and qualitative approaches are employed in the study. The research results show that learners’ ability of monitoring their learning process has the highest level of correlation with all of the three subtypes of English learning anxiety, and the learners’ attitude toward learner autonomy shows the lowest coefficient with English learning anxiety. Based on the research findings, some suggestions are put forward to utilize the positive roles of students’ learning anxiety in EFL teaching and control the negative ones.

[Keywords] learner autonomy; learning anxiety; college English; correlation

Introduction
Traditional language teaching methods focus on transferring knowledge from teachers to students, which largely constrains students’ learning enthusiasm and autonomous learning ability. With the development of social science and teaching technology, more and more teachers and researchers (e.g. Holec, 1981; Dickinson, 1987; Boud, 1988; Littlewood, 1999, etc.) realized that it is one of the prominent issues for educators to cultivate their students’ autonomous learning ability in language teaching. The term autonomous learning was initiated from the debate about the development of life-long learning skills and how to develop independent thinkers in the 1960s (Gardner & Miller, 2002). After Holec (1981) introduced the term “learner autonomy” into the field of ESL teaching, Nunan (1996) gave the definition of learner autonomy from the students’ perspective. He suggested that autonomous learning happens: when learners are actively involved in the production of the target language; when learners are given opportunities to select content tasks and when they are given opportunities to evaluate their own progress; and, when learners are encouraged to seek opportunities to use their language outside the class; when learners are encouraged to self-monitor and self-assess.

Since 1990s, learner autonomy has become a hot topic in China. However, the implementation of learner autonomy in China has encountered many kinds of obstacles including learners’ intrinsic and extrinsic factors. It leads to unsatisfactory results in the present situation of students’ autonomous learning ability. Xu. et al (2004) conducted a survey among 1,340 non-English major college students in China, and found that the overall level of autonomous learning ability of Chinese students was still low.

Cultivation of learners’ autonomous learning ability in EFL teaching involves many individual factors such as personality, anxiety, motivation, learning strategies, and self-efficiency, etc. Among them, learning anxiety is considered to be one of the most important affecting factors, as anxiety interferes with many types of learning and is considered to be one of the most highly examined variables in all of psychology and education (Spielberger, 1983, MacIntyre & Gardner, 1989; Philips, 1992; Saito, et al., 1999). Spielberger (1983) argued that anxiety is the subjective feeling of tension, apprehension, nervousness, and worry associated with an arousal of the autonomic nervous system. Horwitz (2001) asserts that foreign
language anxiety consists of three components: communication apprehension, test anxiety, and the fear of negative evaluation.

In viewing the previous study on the correlation between learner autonomy and learning anxiety, it was found that most of the studies were very superficial. Less detailed information can be obtained from these researches, such as how learning anxiety effect each aspects of autonomous learning ability, which dimension of the learning anxiety affects learners’ autonomous learning ability more. Thus, the present research is conducted to find out the detailed information on the correlations between learner autonomy and EFL learning anxiety. The research results may have great significance in providing breakthrough points for the investigation of the effective teaching strategies to enhance students’ autonomous learning ability in China.

**Research Design**

**Research Purpose**
The survey research is designed to investigate the correlations between learner autonomy and EFL learning anxiety. The research findings will provide some theoretical evidence for the investigation of the teaching strategies for enhancing students’ autonomous learning ability. This research seeks answers to the following questions:

1. Which subtype of EFL learning anxiety effects students’ autonomous learning ability most among Chinese university students?
2. Among the six dimensions of learner autonomy, which dimension is easily being affected by students’ learning anxiety?

**Research Methods**
The subjects of this study were the second-year non-English majors in Linyi University. The reasons for choosing sophomores as the subjects of this research are as follows: sophomores have already taken a compulsory autonomous English learning course for 2 semesters, (2 classes per week); therefore, they have already formed relatively stable English learning habits. 392 sophomores took part in the questionnaire survey, dropping 13 cases due to missing data, with a total sample of 379 subjects. The subjects major in Business Administration, Law and Engineering. English is one of their compulsory subjects. Ninety-three students (93) also took part in the open-ended question survey.

In order to obtain reliable data, both quantitative and qualitative approaches are employed in the study. A questionnaire is administered to collect quantitative data. The open-ended question survey was to collect qualitative data, which were used to supplement the research findings. Considering that the existing questionnaires in these fields have already been proved to be effective, it was not necessary for us to design new questionnaires. Therefore, the researcher decided to adopt the existing questionnaires as our research instruments. The whole questionnaire is composed of three parts: 1) personal profiles of the subjects; 2) Learner Autonomy Questionnaire (Xu & Zhan, 2004); 3) Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety (FLCAS) (Horwitz et al., 1986). FLCAS was originally designed in English. To make the subjects have a full understanding of each item, the Chinese versions were adopted. The Chinese version of FLCAS was quoted from Cao (2011).

The questionnaire survey was administered in June 2014. The subjects finished answering the questionnaires independently without any negotiation with each other. In total, 392 questionnaire sheets
were distributed. After the questionnaire sheets were returned, each of the questionnaire sheets was examined by the researcher to make sure that it was properly answered. The questionnaire sheets from students who failed to complete all the items were considered invalid and abandoned, resulting in total of 379 questionnaires for further analysis. The response rate was 96%. After the administration and collection of the questionnaire sheets, the data were entered into the computer. SPSS 11.5 was used to obtain descriptive statistics and reliability coefficients and to conduct factor analysis.

The open-ended questions were all designed in Chinese and the survey was conducted the same time with the questionnaire survey in June 2014. Ninety-three (93) subjects were chosen randomly to answer the open-ended questions. Considering the students’ levels in English writing, they were allowed to answer the questions in Chinese.

**Results and Discussion**

Table 1 indicates that communication apprehension negatively correlated with learner autonomy \( (r = -0.438) \). That is to say, the higher level of communication apprehension throws a negative effect on the ability of autonomous learning ability, especially on the ability of monitoring the learning process, as the correlation between learners’ ability of monitoring their learning process and communication apprehension is the highest one \( (r = -0.478) \) among the six. The students with higher levels of communication apprehension generally failed to monitor their learning process. At the same time, the students who failed to monitor their learning process showed higher communication apprehension.

On the contrary, communication apprehension shows less effect on the students’ attitudes toward learner autonomy; the correlation coefficient between learners’ attitude toward LA and communication apprehension is only -0.060, which is largely lower than the other five. That is to say, whether the students feel nervous in their communication in English does not affect their attitude toward autonomous learning. All in all, in cultivating students’ autonomous learning abilities, teachers should find effective measures to reduce their communication apprehension. On the other hand, if the students’ ability of monitoring their learning process is improved, their communication apprehension level will consequently largely be reduced.

Table 1 also shows that test anxiety negatively correlates with learner autonomy \( (r = -0.473, \text{significant at } 0.01 \text{ level}) \). That is to say, students with higher levels of test anxiety will have lower abilities in autonomous learning. It is also found that the correlation between learner autonomy and test anxiety is higher than that between learner autonomy and communication apprehension. That is to say, test anxiety affects learner autonomy more than communication apprehension.

In a close-up view of the correlations between learner autonomy and test anxiety, the researcher found that the highest level of correlation among the six dimensions of learner autonomy was still related with learners’ ability to monitor their learning process in autonomous learning \( (r = -0.400) \). And furthermore, the lowest one is with the learners’ attitude toward learner autonomy \( (r = -0.180) \). That is to say, the students with higher levels of test anxiety have stronger effects on their abilities of monitoring their learning process. Or it could be thought that because the students fail to monitor their learning process, they have no confidence on what they have already learned and feel nervous and unsettled about the tests. Here, the researcher does not intend to discuss which is the cause and which is the result. What the researcher tries to find out is whether they affected each other and to what level.
Table 1. Correlations Between the Six Dimensions of LA and CA

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LA</th>
<th></th>
<th>CA</th>
<th>TA</th>
<th>FNE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>-0.438(**)</td>
<td>-0.473(**)</td>
<td>-0.413(**)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LA1</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>-0.060</td>
<td>-0.180(**)</td>
<td>-0.087</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>0.446</td>
<td>0.001</td>
<td>0.092</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LA2</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>-0.294(**)</td>
<td>-0.335(**)</td>
<td>-0.264(**)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LA3</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>-0.368(**)</td>
<td>-0.395(**)</td>
<td>-0.346(**)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LA4</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>-0.386(**)</td>
<td>-0.387(**)</td>
<td>-0.370(**)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LA5</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>-0.340(**)</td>
<td>-0.345(**)</td>
<td>-0.317(**)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LA6</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>-0.478(**)</td>
<td>-0.400(**)</td>
<td>-0.424(**)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.000</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

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

And at the same time, fear of negative evaluation has the closest relationship with learners’ ability of monitoring their learning process among the six dimensions ($r = -0.424$) (see Table 1). It means that the students who are more skillful at monitoring their learning process have a lower level of fear of negative evaluation.

To sum up, learner autonomy has a negative correlation with EFL anxiety. Among the six dimensions of learner autonomy, learners’ ability of monitoring their learning process has the highest correlation level with all of the three kinds of English learning anxiety, and the learners’ attitude toward learner autonomy shows the lowest coefficient with English learning anxiety. The results suggest that English learning anxiety has much more effect on the EFL learners’ actual learning performance in autonomous learning, but has little effect on spiritual aspect, such as awareness and attitude.

**Pedagogical Implication**

EFL learning anxiety plays an important role on language learners’ autonomous learning ability, thus it is very necessary for teachers take it into considerations in language teaching. To reduce students’ EFL learning anxiety, it is advisable to adopt cooperative learning activities both inside and outside the class.

Learner autonomy is, by no means, eradicating collaboration (Littlewood, 1999); it presupposes interdependence (Little, 1991), and cooperative learning is a social activity that is complementary to independent learning. In the open-ended questionnaire survey, to Question 6 – “What do you think is the most serious obstacle that students face in their English autonomous learning at present?”, more than half of the students answered that they have poor self-control ability, and they could not control themselves

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1. LA= learner autonomy; LA1: attitudes towards LA; LA2: identifying teaching objectives; LA3:formulating learning objectives; LA4: selecting and implementing learning strategies; LA5: monitoring and assessing the use of learning strategies LA6: learners’ ability to monitor the learning process

CA=Communication Apprehension, TA=Test Anxiety, FNE= Fear of Negative Evaluation
from thinking of other things while studying English autonomously. This shows that students are not competent at monitoring their learning process, so their attention shifted easily to other things. In the correlation research, the researcher found that learners’ ability of monitoring their learning process has closest correlation with language learning anxiety. Thus, this researcher suggests using cooperative learning activities. Compared with the traditional ask-and-answer teaching style in China, cooperative learning provides a more relaxing learning environment in which the learners’ language learning anxiety is reduced. The discussion is carried out in small groups, and students are not afraid of losing face in public.

Moreover, cooperative learning provides learners a small environment in which they can plan what they are going to do in a certain time according to their own reasons, and implement their goals step-by-step with their partners or individually during which they continually assess their results and their learning methods; they can also adjust their learning methods if necessary.

However, in organizing cooperative activities, teachers should be careful in building a sense of learning from each other among the group members. In face-to-face interactions, students are aware of each other’s strengths and weaknesses and can slowly build a support network both inside and outside the classroom. By doing so, the students can gradually build up their language skills, and meanwhile their learning anxiety will be reduced.

**Conclusion**

This study was an attempt to investigate detailed information on the correlation between learner autonomy and EFL learning anxiety. By performing Pearson correlation analysis, we obtained the correlation coefficients between learner autonomy and EFL learning anxiety. The results showed that there are significant interrelations between learner autonomy and EFL learning anxiety. The correlation between learner autonomy and EFL learning anxiety is negative.

The detailed information is as follows: Among the six dimensions of learner autonomy, learners’ ability of monitoring their learning process had the highest level of correlation with all of the three subtypes of English learning anxiety, and the learners’ attitude toward learner autonomy showed the lowest coefficient with English learning anxiety. That is to say, students with high level of language learning anxiety are more likely to fail at monitoring their autonomous learning process.

Based on the research findings, this researcher provides some suggestions for improving EFL learners autonomous learning abilities, such as adopting cooperative learning activities in the EFL autonomous learning process. It is hoped that the findings and suggestions of this research can broaden the practical understanding of the correlation between learner autonomy and learning anxiety in EFL learning.

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**References**


TBLT Building in Japanese Listening Teaching

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[Abstract] TBLT (Task-Based Language Teaching) is a kind of language teaching method to plan and organize the class that takes the task as the core unit and emphasizes "learning by doing", and it is the development of Communicative Language Teaching. This article tries to discuss how to build up TBLT mode in Japanese Listening Teaching in such three processes as the pre-listening process, listening process and post-listening process, according to the practice of TBLT and its five principles. After using this mode, it will actively improve students' Japanese practicing ability.

[Keywords] Task-Based Language Teaching; teaching mode; Japanese Listening Teaching; building

Introduction
Listening comprehension competency has become a more and more important standard to measure learners’ linguistic proficiency. However, the listening level is also the hardest part to improve for Japanese learners. The traditional “listen - do exercises - check answer” teaching way is hard to improve students' listening skills, and students may be tired of the listening study. In the 1980s, TBLT was gradually formed, based on communicative language teaching, and widely accepted. This article discusses how to apply TBLT in Japanese Listening classes according to the principles of TBLT, by analyzing the pre-listening process, listening process and post-listening process so as to build up an effective teaching mode that can improve learners’ Japanese Listening proficiency.

TBLT Teaching Method
TBLT refers to the teaching method in which the teacher instructs the language learners to complete certain tasks in the class. It is the development of the communicative language teaching that emphasizes “learning by doing” of the language teaching methods. Many linguists such as Long (1981), Willis (1996), Skehan (1995) and Nunan (2004) have made in-depth studies on TBLT. Nunan believes that a communicative task is a piece of classroom work which involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing, or interacting in the target language while their attention is principally focused on meaning rather than on form. The task is constructive, and it is composed of such five parts as teaching objectives, inputs, activity form, roles of teachers & students and environments (Gong & Luo, 2006).

Different from the “exercise” that concentrates on form, the “task” focuses on meaning. It will strictly control language in exercise, while the task will be more free in language use; the exercise can be assessed in language form, while the task will be evaluated by whether it can be completed or not. The task can further combine the language exercise with real life situations so as to better improve students’ language practical applications.

Willis (1996) offered five principles for the implementation of TBLT:
1. There should be exposure to worthwhile and authentic language.
2. There should be use of language.
3. Tasks should motivate learners to engage in language use.
4. There should be a focus on language at some points in a task cycle.
5. The focus on language should be more or less prominent at different times. (Willis, 1996)

At the same time, Willis proposed three steps for TBLT, which include: the pre-task phase that teachers will introduce the task, the task cycle where students perform the task and students in different group prepare how to report to the whole class and record the task completion status, and finally, the post-task where teacher instructs students to analyze the execution status of other groups by recordings and practice of the language difficulty points.

**Task-Based Listening Teaching Mode**

According to the above principles and steps, the TBLT mode can be also carried out in Japanese Listening Teaching. Teachers should design certain tasks based on an objective to be achieved, by providing relevant information and requirement, letting students to complete the task independently or in teams, and then control students’ activities in the whole process. When setting up the task, teachers should fully consider the difficulty of the task. Factors that may influence the difficulty of task may include the difficulty of the information, and such learner factors as the learner’s background knowledge, self-confidence, studying motivation, studying experience, and language skills. It also includes certain process factors such as the correlation degree of task, complexity, prior knowledge, language information processing capacity, and the time to complete the task, etc.

**Pre-Listening Process**

Before assigning tasks, teachers should make clear to students of the task’s purpose, so that they can actively accept the task. This stage is the preparative phase before playing the recordings, and at this stage, teachers need to activate all the required existing schemata through a variety of activities. At the same time, teachers can prompt the relevant words and grammar, as well as certain background knowledge, so that it will not limit students understanding of the questions by language and background knowledge to make the task go more smoothly. In addition, teachers can also direct students to predict specific listening contents just from the recording topic. For example, when using comparative prediction tasks, while listening to recordings about Japanese New Year, teachers can direct students to compare the New Year customs for China and Japan, which can raise students’ interest in learning, actively mastering the relevant cultural knowledge, and effectively make training on language skills. Teachers can also organize group discussion, to make solid foundation for information input. It may be difficult for non-native students to complete certain task, but if teacher can raise students' interest in advance, students will overcome these difficulties.

**Listening Process**

This phase is to improve students’ linguistic accuracy and fluency. Teachers should combine the speaking, reading and writing skills into tasks, so that students can make further improvement in such four skills as listening, speaking, reading and writing. During this phase, teachers can carry out the dictation exercises or cloze tests. Teachers can also direct students to take notes, recording the main points during listening teaching.

In the listening process, teachers can organize students to divide into several groups to complete the task as a team together. The task can be diversified. For example, the teacher can create exercises on sorting tasks, which is to disorder the picture sequence and let students listen to a story and then sort the pictures in the correct order according to what they have heard. Teachers can also arrange predicting tasks which can effectively improve student’s listening ability. For example, when listening to a recording
about a healthy lifestyle, teachers can direct students to discuss what healthy behaviors are and what unhealthy behaviors are in teams in advance, so that students can predict what the recording is going to talk about. After completing the task, each team can make related reports on results.

Post-Listening Process
Teachers can carry out linguistic teaching after listening to the recordings. For example, teachers can point out the expressions with difficult grammar, or abbreviations, etc., so that students can better grasp the linguistic difficulty. In this phase, teachers can feedback on the task that the students completed, summarize knowledge points and make expansive exercises.

At the same time, listening, speaking, reading and writing skills can be comprehensively combined to further expand the teaching contents. Problem-solving tasks such as interviews, surveys, advertising design and research & solving specific matters and so on can be also applied. For example, supposing a student has become the general manager of a well-known company ten years after graduation, and other students can interview him by asking all kinds of questions that they are concerned about or interested in, so that the interviewer and the interviewee will be trying to understand each other to continue the dialogue. Otherwise, teachers can imitate the entire job-seeking process and let students seek for jobs in newspapers, and then complete certain tasks totally in Japanese. Teachers can also arrange different teams to make scene dialogues, role play or make exercises of playing realistic scenes in certain Japanese series or movies. In this process, teachers can guide students to learn vocabulary, grammar points concerned with the tasks, or to participate in with other students to complete the tasks together.

Task-Based Listening Teaching Case
Here we will take Lesson 16 「病院」(Hospital) in 「楽しく聞こう」(Tanoshikukiko) Volume 1 (文化外国語専門学校, 2007, p. 50-51.) as an example, to make specific explanation on the task-based listening teaching mode construction in Japanese listening teaching.

First, the Pre-Listening Process
Tell students that the title of lesson is “病院 (hospital)”, and then have some warm-up exercises to make students predict the symptoms of an illness, so that students can tell how to say 「頭が痛い」と “headache”, 「熱がある」と “fever”, and 「咳が出る」と “cough”, etc. in Japanese. Some students may not be clear how to say certain symptoms in Japanese, but only can tell how to say 「吐き気がする」と “feel sick”, 「くしゃみが出る」と “sneeze”, or 「鼻が詰まる」と “stuffy nose” in Chinese. At this time, the teacher can write these related Japanese expressions on the blackboard to provide hints to the students. Similarly, for medicines and their usage, it can be generally predicted as 「食前」 “before dinner”, 「食後」 “after dinner”, 「カプセル」と “capsule”, 「粉剤」と “granules”, or 「錠剤」と “tablet”, etc. The teacher can also show some pictures related to diseases, such as a toothache, chills, and then let students describe them in Japanese. To sum up, teachers should use all kinds of methods to build up linguistic schema related to the lessons for students in this phase, so as to lay foundation for the following tasks.

Second, the Listening Process
In this process, the teacher can arrange the students to make exercises on multiple choice. For example, when you hear dialogue like:

A: 昨日はどうしたんですか。 (A: What happened to you?)
B: 熱が 39 度も出て、寝ていたんです。 (B: Yesterday I got a fever for 39 degrees,
A: 大丈夫ですか。(A: Are you OK now?)
B: ええ、大丈夫です。(B: Yes. I’m fine now.)

Student should at once be able to select the choice with one person measuring body temperature and holding a piece of ice at head. In addition, the teacher can make exercises of writing down the symptom after listening to the recordings. For example:

A: どうしたんですか。(A: What’s wrong with you?)
B: 先生、頭が痛いんです。(B: Head aching.)
A: 熱があるみたいですね。ちょっと測ってみましょう。あれ、40 度もありますよ。(A: Seems to be fever. Here I’ll take your body temperature. Oh, 40 degrees. It is high fever.)
B: ええっ、それに咳が止まらないんです。(B: Ah? I am still coughing.)
A: これは完全に風邪ですね…」(A: You have caught a cold.)

When the teacher directs the students to listen to this recording, students can record the patient’s symptom 「頭が痛い、熱がある、咳が止まらない」“headache, fever, cough”, since the information contained passes very fast, so it is important to record the dialogue information quickly. The teacher can direct students to quickly record the following information: 「頭が痛い、熱、咳」“headache, fever, cough”. The teacher can also let students tell their own experience of seeing a doctor, and then the students can review the new words, and grammar points to be grasped during this process.

The teacher can also arrange students to do exercise of JLPT questions to help them grasp the knowledge points in textbooks. We will take an examination question in 1992 JLPT 3 as an example,

薬屋さんが薬の飲み方を説明しています。黄色い薬はどんな時に飲みますか。
(A pharmacy staff is explaining how to use drugs. When the yellow pill can be taken?)

男: この白い薬は喉が痛いときや、鼻水が出る時に飲んでください。この黄色い薬は熱が出た時に飲んでください。飲むと眠くなりますから、車の運転をする時には、飲まないようにしてください。じゃ、お大事に。
(Man: You should take the white pill when you have a sore throat or runny nose, while take the yellow pill when you got a fever, as you may feel sleepy after taking the yellow medicine, so please do not drive after taking this drug. Please take care.)

質問: 黄色い薬はどんな時に飲みますか。
(Question: When should I take the yellow pill?)

①熱がある時です。(①When you have a fever)
②喉が痛い時です。(②When you feel a sore throat)
③鼻水が出る時です。(③When you have runny nose)
④眠くなった時です。(④When you feel sleepy)

By the warm-up in the pre-listening process and training in the listening process, students will be familiar with these related expressions in Japanese, so it’s easy to judge the correct answer to this question, and then the content they have learned can be also consolidated.
Third, the Post-Listening Process
The TBLT should follow the principle of authenticity: using realistic teaching materials, and designing realistic tasks (Feng, 2011. p. 42). Therefore, the teacher can design some real tasks after making various training, arranging the students to simulate the dialogues between doctor and patients in role play. Student who plays the patient should tell his symptom and the student who plays the doctor should listen to patient’s symptom descriptions, and then give the prescription to the patient. The patient should finally repeat the doctor’s prescriptions and directions, and then pick up the medicine. During this process, student can also use his body language, for example as holding his head with painful expressions, or jumping with just one leg to indicate a sprained ankle, or walking with another student supporting his arm. All of these actions will make the role play more fun. At the same time, since the situation is urgent as the patient is sick, the patient and the doctor should try to clearly express what they want and then try to understand what each other are talking about, so as to be treated as soon as possible. In this way, both the listening and speaking can be improved greatly. After completing this task, students can evaluate each other within a team, or the teacher can make evaluations on each student’s task completion, pointing out their strengths and weak points that need further improvement, so as to further improve their studying levels. The teacher can also arrange students to make revision after class, and look up certain information to make comparison on the flow of seeing a doctor in hospital in China and Japan.

By implementing the TBLT in listening class, we can see that the TBLT will stimulate students’ initiative. It needs students to complete certain tasks, so the students can actively use the language. Meanwhile, as the students are the main part in a classroom, the teacher can select certain topics to make them actively participate. At the same time, during completion of the task, students will be able to combine their language knowledge with their practical skills. This will change the traditional rote learning mode, and it is better to improve skills. In addition, when students complete the task together as a team, students will cooperate with others, so that it will further improve student’s cooperation and communication skills in this process.

Conclusion
The core of TBLT is to take study as a series of tasks (Nunan, 2004). Nunan pointed out several principles of TBLT: reproduction to creation, integration of form and function, task dependency, active learning, and scaffolding, which means that the language teaching should pay attention to students and give them enough support, which is similar to the scaffolding in building (Willis, 1996). According to this principle and TBLT practice, when we build the task-based listening teaching mode, we should pay attention to the following points. First, the task difficulty. If the task is too simple, it will not improve student’s listening capacity. But if the task is too difficult, it will not only waste time, but also let student feel frustrated and lose interest in learning. Therefore, the teacher needs to make a good choice on the task difficulty, so that the task can be better operated. Second, tasks should be able to stimulate students' interests. A task that cannot raise students’ interests will become the burden of students, and students will of course not go all out to accomplish such kind of task. Third, the task should be able to improve students’ communication and their ability to solve practical problems. If this cannot be achieved, it will lose the meaning of setting this task. Finally, the teacher should also integrate multimedia to enhance the teaching effect.
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Defining Relative Clauses in Chinese Researchers’ Academic Writings

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[Abstract] Relative clauses are an important index of a non-native writer’s command of English. This article reports an investigation of Chinese researchers’ use of defining relative clauses with ‘which’ in academic writings through a corpus-based comparative analysis. A corpus of Chinese researchers’ recent academic writings (CCRAW) is first constructed. A sub-corpus of academic writings in British Academic Written English (BAWE) is taken as a reference corpus. The overall distributions of four types of defining relative clauses, namely SU (subject clause), DO (direct object clause), IO (indirect object clause) and PREP (preposition clause) are under investigation in this paper. The research findings show that the frequencies of DO and PREP of defining RCs in CCRAW are significantly different from BAWE. Potential causes for the distribution characteristics of RCs with ‘which’ in CCRAW are discussed. Some pedagogical suggestions are given at the end of the paper.

[Keywords] defining relative clauses; academic writing; corpus

Introduction

Academic papers in English written by Chinese researchers are increasing each year. Corpus researches reveal that Chinese researchers’ English academic writing skills still need improvement, especially in syntactic expression. The present paper deals with problems in Chinese researchers’ use of English relative clauses (RCs) in their academic writings through a comparative analysis method based on corpus. A corpus of Chinese researchers’ recent academic writings (CCRAW) is first constructed. The corpus consists of 60 Chinese researchers’ English papers published in international conferences in the field of natural sciences from 2004 to 2014. The English RC is a type of complex post nominal adjectival modifier used in both written and spoken English. It is a type of embedded clause, which is noun modification construction in which one clause is subordinate to another (Gao, 2014, p. 83). The structures of relative clauses in Chinese generally have no variation, indicating the boundlessness with main clauses. RCs in Chinese can be used as subjects, predicates, objects, attributes, adverbials, object complements, predicatives and appositives, while structures of relative clauses in English do vary. Usually signifiers precede RCs, which means there is a clear boundary between the main clauses and the RCs. Relative clauses in English can be as subjects, objects, attributes, adverbials, and appositives, as well as predicative. Some hypotheses have been put forward to account for learners’ acquisition of English RCs, indicating the difficulty in acquiring different types of relative clauses, including Noun Phrase Accessibility Hierarchy Hypothesis (Keenan & Comrie, 1977) and Subject-Object Hierarchy Hypothesis (Hamilton, 1994).

Discussed Problems

Relative Clauses Studied in This Research

English RCs vary a lot in both function and form. As far as the signifiers are concerned, there are that, which, who, whom, where, when and why, with the most prevalent one being that, and which can be omitted in informal language. Since that clauses have already been studied with great depth, there have
not been many researches done to analyze Chinese writers’ use of relative clause types with which. The present research takes Chinese writers’ use of RCs with which as a research focus. The RC types studied in this paper are defining RCs with which and non-defining RCs with which. They can be classified as SU (subject clause), DO (direct object clause), IO (indirect object clause) and PREP (preposition clause). There are also other RC classifications, including GEN (genitive clause) and COMP (comparative clause). Since GEN type of clauses refer to those formed by the word whose, this type of RC is not under investigation in this paper, and neither is the COMP type of RCs, for reasons that they are very limited in amount even in native speakers’ writings.

Research Methodology
In this research, a combination of quantitative and qualitative methods, based on corpus, is employed. First a corpus of Chinese researchers’ academic writings in natural science (CCRAW) is constructed. The corpus involves 60 international conference papers from 2004 to 2014. The total number of tokens in CCRAW is 272,356. The reference corpus is British Academic Written English (BAWE) corpus (2004-2007), which was developed with ESRC funding as part of the project entitled “An investigation of genres of assessed writing in British Higher Education”. The project aimed to identify the characteristics of proficient student writing, and to compare these across disciplines and levels of study. The corpus consists of just under 3000 student assignments of 6,506,995 words, at all levels from first year undergraduate to taught masters degree, and in many disciplines. It consists of academic writings of arts & humanities, social sciences, life sciences and physical sciences. Only essays on issues of life sciences and physical sciences in BAWE are taken as research materials in this study. The total number of tokens in the sub-corpus of BAWE in this research is 602,153.

Results and Discussion
The number of defining RCs with which in BAWE is 1790. Whereas in CCRAW, the total frequency of which is 284, and there are altogether 183 instances where which is used in defining relative clauses. The numbers of each clause type within the category of defining RCs are shown in Table 1. SU refers to RCs where which is in the position of a subject; DO refers to RCs where which is in the position of a direct object; IO refers to RCs where which is in the position of an indirect object; while PREP refers to RCs where which is a preposition object. As can be seen from Table 1, the number of times which is used in the SU type of RCs tops the list in both of the two corpora, and the instances of which used in the IO type of RCs are both rare, while there is a significantly larger amount of PREPs in BAWE than in CCRAW.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>RC Type</th>
<th>BAWE</th>
<th>CCRAW</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SU</td>
<td>867</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DO</td>
<td>195</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IO</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PREP</td>
<td>716</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chi-square tests were conducted to compare the distribution of each clause type within the category of defining RCs in BAWE and CCRAW. Table 2 shows the differences in frequencies of defining clauses that used which in BAWE and CCRAW.
As can be seen from Table 1, the Sig. values of SU and PREP are all 0.000, lower than 0.05, which indicates that between BAWE and CCRAW significant differences exist in the frequencies of the two types of *which* clauses. The Sig. value of DO type is 0.304, higher than 0.05, which means that between BAWE and CCRAW no significant differences exist in the frequency of the type of *which* clause.

Note that there is only one instance of *which* used in an IO type of clause in CCRAW. According to research findings in statistics, Fisher’s Exact Test is suggested when n<5. So the Sig. value of IO type of clause is 1.000, which means that between BAWE and CCRAW no significant differences exist in the frequency of IO type of *which* clause.

**Causes for the Features of Chinese Writers’ Use of RCs**

*Complexity and Difficulty of Each Clause Type*

According to Keenan and Comrie’s (1977) Noun Phrase Accessibility Hierarchy (NPAH), for all non-native speakers, subjective clauses are the easiest to command, while indirect object clauses and preposition object clauses are the most challenging to use. So, subjective clauses are most frequently resorted to, however indirect object clauses and preposition object clauses are often avoided by Chinese writers. The order of difficulty in acquisition for non-native writers is shown as follows:

i) SU > DO > IO > PREP > GEN > COMP

The research findings in this study largely correspond with the above hypothesis. As can be seen from Tables 1 and 2, in both groups of defining and non-defining clauses with *which*, the largest amount of RC types are both SU type of clauses, with 90 instances of defining RCs and 65 instances of non-defining RCs in CCRAW. The following one is DO, with 65 instances of defining RCs and 10 instances of non-defining RCs. As for IO and PREP, the research findings in this study are not consistent with the NPAH. There are more instances of PREP clauses found than IO clauses in both BAWE and CCRAW.

Another influential hypothesis about the acquisition difficulties of different RCs is Kuno’s (1974) Perceptual Difficulty Hypothesis (PDH). The PDH predicts that due to short term memory limitations, center embedding is perceptually more difficult to process than right embedding (Odlin, 1989, p. 56). The
PDH predicts that RCs formed on the subject are more difficult than those formed on the object. The acquisition order of RCs is shown as below:

ii) OS/OO > SS/SO

The data in both Tables 1 and 2 show that Chinese writers are more inclined to use relative clauses to modify the subject and object of the main clause, and to make the modified NP the subject of the relative clause. Relative clauses used to modify the preposition object of the main clause are rather limited. These results correspond with the PDH hypothesis. For example, in all the defining RCs with *which*, there are 90 instances of subjective clauses, while there are only 28 instances of indirect object clauses. As for non-defining RCs with *which*, no indirect object clause is found in CCRAW. By contrast, the number of which used in subjective clause is 65, larger than two times of the total amount of the rest three clause types.

**L1 Transfer**

A lot of researches show that a learner’s second language learning is largely influenced by his previous experience in language learning. “Language transfer is a kind of cross-linguistic influence, which originates from the differentiations and similarities between the target language and learners’ inter-language” (Zhu, 2014, p. 615). When the sentence structures concerned are considered more difficult or unfamiliar, non-native writers tend to rely much on their L1, which means that “turning to L1 when producing output in L2 is a fairly common strategy to overcome difficulties in production of unfamiliar target language strings” (Gao, 2010, p. 95). Non-native writers subconsciously express their thoughts using sentence patterns in their native language, which causes some errors. Signifiers are indispensable in English RCs, but they are not necessary in Chinese. So most Chinese writers need extra practice to be familiar with the structures of English RCs. The research findings in this paper show that both defining and non-defining RCs with *which* investigated in this research are underused by Chinese writers.

**Avoidance Strategy**

Schachter (1974) first found that Chinese students avoided using relative clauses in English. Avoidance, being a common phenomenon in second/foreign language learning and use, is in nature a type of communication strategy and it occurs when learners are aware of the target language rules, yet not certain how to apply those rules in their language production (Kleinmann, 1977). So the difficulties in learning a target language predicted by comparative analysis may result in avoidance of certain language patterns rather than errors. There are clear distinctions between Chinese and English relative clauses. The most obvious one is the position of NP being described and restricted by a relative clause. Therefore, Avoidance Strategy might consequently increase the chance of using a comparatively simpler and clause type. As Table 2 shows that in all defining RCs with *which*, PREP type of clauses are significantly underused by Chinese writers. This might result from the fact that in Chinese there is no sentence structure which resembles the structure of PREP type of RCs in English, making this type of RC more challenging for most Chinese writers to use. Thus, it is quite possible that in order to make less mistakes, the PREP type of clauses is avoided consciously or unconsciously by writers.
Inadequacy of Syntax Teaching in Class

The last factor contributing to the underuse of which clauses might be the inadequacy of syntax teaching in English teaching practice. Take non-defining RCs with which as an example, because they are generally restricted to written language rather than language in daily practice, they have a comparatively low frequency. This means the teaching of this clause type won’t receive much attention in an EFL environment, and in language learning, a lower rate of frequency means lower rate of reoccurrence, which finally leads to a lower rate of acquisition.

Conclusion

Chinese and English belong to different language families and their language structures are different, and the distinctions are especially obvious when it comes to relative clauses. In teaching practice, learners’ syntax ability needs to be given due attention to. Certain interventions are needed in the teaching practice of English writing, such as comparing the syntax in learners’ and native speakers’ writings to strengthen learners’ syntax awareness. More exercises are also needed to raise learners’ awareness of using varied sentence structures according to specific contexts rather than overusing any one type of clause structure.

Acknowledgements

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References


Research on the Impact of English-Majors’ Vocabulary Preparation on Their Listening Comprehension in a Local Engineering University

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[Abstract] Many students think that vocabulary has a great impact on their listening comprehension; they often prepare vocabulary before listening comprehension tests in a local engineering university in China. This paper aims to find out whether English-Majors’ vocabulary preparation has an impact on their listening comprehension. The experimental three groups in this study were given three different preparation times to prepare new vocabulary that would be heard in the listening text. The English-Majors’ performances of vocabulary and listening comprehension were tested and analyzed statistically. The analyses show that students’ vocabulary preparation has no significant differences on their listening comprehension, but has significant differences on their vocabulary performances. The result indicates that the English-Majors’ listening comprehension mainly depends on their level of listening comprehension and listening strategies rather than vocabulary preparation; vocabulary preparation can impact their vocabulary performance and their confidence. From the results, some strategies are proposed to improve the English-Majors’ listening comprehension in a local engineering university.

[Keywords] vocabulary preparation; listening comprehension; confidence; local engineering university; English-Majors

Introduction
English listening comprehension is a problem that many schools, students and parents are concerned about, especially the English-Majors in a Local Engineering University in China. The English-Majors have difficulty in listening and understanding English completely and clearly. The main reasons are that their first language plays an important role in most of their communication and learning how to listen is largely through formal instruction in the classroom and with limited exposure to English outside formal study. They are usually confronted with a number of difficulties, such as limited vocabulary, unfamiliar topics, fast speech, unfamiliar dialects and so on. Among these factors, the lack of vocabulary knowledge seems to be the most difficult for them (Boyle, 1984; Chang, 2005). As a result, many students often prepare vocabulary before a listening test.

Whether vocabulary preparation has impact on students’ listening comprehension is an important issue. Many scholars have studied the preparation research of classrooms; for example, Ellis (1987) and Crookes (1989) claimed that pre-task activities have been demonstrated to be helpful in fluency and complexity in the performance of oral narratives and with writing skills (Kroll, 1990). Skehan (1989) also proposed three major types of pre-task activities: teaching, consciousness-raising, and planning. Teaching is about the introduction of new language to the inter-language. Consciousness-raising activities involve pre-tasks, discussions, and exposure to materials relevant to the task. Planning involves the issue of time. Several other studies suggest that planning time influences the output task to a great degree in terms of
fluency, complexity and accuracy. In order to improve the students’ comprehensive English listening, this paper focuses on whether planning time has great impact on listening comprehension of English-Majors in a local engineering university.

**Literature Review**

Until now, there is not much research about this field. However, there are a few studies focusing on pre-teaching vocabulary. Berne (1995) looked at how vocabulary-preview and question-preview affected her Spanish learners. The results show that the question-preview group scored higher than the vocabulary-preview group, but the difference was not significant. Elkhafaifi (2005) replicated Berne’s study and the results were found comparable. Chang and Read (2006) also found that neither high, nor low, level learners seemed to have benefited from the vocabulary preparation they received immediately before the test. Chang (2005) even found that students had no time or very little time to practice the vocabulary before a test. Buck (2001) notes, “when second language learners learn some new element of a language, at first they have to pay conscious attention and think about it; that takes time and their use of it is slow.” Based on the findings of these studies, this study aims to investigate whether English-Majors in local engineering university students will perform differently when vocabulary lists are given with different preparation times. This paper will solve the following questions: whether varying vocabulary preparation time makes a difference to the English-Majors’ listening comprehension, whether different vocabulary preparation time makes a difference to the English-Majors’ performance of vocabulary and whether different vocabulary preparation time make a difference in the English-Majors’ confidence.

**Research Procedure**

This research aimed at whether English-Majors’ vocabulary preparation had an impact on their listening comprehension in a local engineering university of China. The researchers try to find out the performance of the English-Majors’ listening comprehension, vocabulary performances and their confidence caused by different vocabulary preparation time. The impact of vocabulary preparation time on their listening comprehension and performance of vocabulary is analyzed statistically.

**Research Participants**

The research participants are 120 English-Majors (52 girls and 68 boys) in a local engineering university of Hubei province, China, aging from 18 to 22, who were from three intact classes with English listening courses. At the beginning of the new academic year they were all given a listening test, and the test results indicated no significant differences across the three classes. In addition, these three classes had the same teacher, same textbook and the same teaching methods, and the research was being conducted at the same time. English-Majors were divided into three experimental groups: (Group A, Group B, Group C).

**Research Design**

The three groups had three different times to prepare vocabulary before tests. They were told that vocabulary on the list would occur in the listening text of the test. Group A was given a list of vocabulary a week before the listening comprehension test, and Group B, only one day before. Group C was not given any materials for home use, but they studied the vocabulary in the classroom for 30 minutes and then discussed the vocabulary. Below, Table 1 shows the research design.
Table 1. Research Design

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Experimental groups</th>
<th>Group A</th>
<th>Group B</th>
<th>Group C</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Preparation time</td>
<td>1 week</td>
<td>1 day</td>
<td>30 min</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>participants</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Research Instruments

The instruments include a listening material, a vocabulary test and a listening comprehension test.

*The listening material.* The listening material in this study was a 792-word short story from Penguin Young Readers. The listening text was read by a native speaker of English. This listening material was chosen because it is not a popular one and it is very unlikely that the participants would know the story, so the background knowledge would not be a factor affecting the listening performance.

*A vocabulary test.* Based on the vocabulary list of the material, 25 words were selected to test whether participants had learned the words.

*A listening comprehension test.* The whole test contained three tests: 4 multiple-choices, 4 gap-fillings, and 2 short-answer questions.

Research Methods

Group A got the vocabulary list a week before the test, and Group B, a day before the test. Group C was given the vocabulary list 30 minutes before the test, and then the teacher collected the list. The 120 participants took part in the vocabulary test, then the listening comprehension test. When the test was finished, they were interviewed about their confidence when they prepared for the vocabulary before listening comprehension test.

Research Results

The data analysis was carried out with SPSS Statistics 17.0. A Generalized Linear Model (GLM) was conducted to evaluate the impact of vocabulary preparation on the English-Majors’ performance of vocabulary, listening comprehension, and confidence. The scores are the dependent variables; and Group A–C are the independent variables.

The Results of the Vocabulary Test and Listening Test

The results of the vocabulary test and listening test can be seen in Table 2. It shows that students scored higher on the vocabulary than the listening comprehension test. In the vocabulary test, Group A answered 76% correctly, higher than Group B with 65%, and Group C at 63%; however, the difference between Groups B and C was only 2%. In the test of listening comprehension, Group A scored highest, 59%, Group B, 56% and Group C, 54%. Although the differences among the three groups were minimal, the scores seem that the longer the preparation time, the higher scores they achieved, but the exact significant effect should be analyzed by the instrument.

Table 2. Results of the Vocabulary Test and Listening Test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Experimental groups</th>
<th>Group A</th>
<th>Group B</th>
<th>Group C</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Vocabulary Test</td>
<td>77.6</td>
<td>66.4</td>
<td>64.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Listening Test</td>
<td>59.7</td>
<td>57.0</td>
<td>56.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The Results of the Effect of Vocabulary preparation on vocabulary performance

Table 3 shows the effect of vocabulary preparation on the English-Majors’ performances of listening comprehension. A GLM analysis of variance was performed to reveal what factors contributed to differences and whether the differences were significant. The result shows that the scores in vocabulary are higher than those of listening comprehension. So Table 3 is a summary of the GLM analysis on the effects of preparation time on the English-Majors’ vocabulary performance. This table presents that different preparation times have significant main effects on the vocabulary performance of the groups, P=.000<.05.

Table 3. Results of the Effects of Vocabulary Preparation Time on the English-Majors’ Vocabulary Performance

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>SSIII</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Effect size (eta squared)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Model</td>
<td>586435</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>13963</td>
<td>254.4</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.993</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group</td>
<td>2073</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>.97</td>
<td>.533</td>
<td>.326</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VPT</td>
<td>3897</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1949</td>
<td>35.5</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.477</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>4281</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>55</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>590716</td>
<td>120</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: VPT= vocabulary Preparation Time

The Results of the Effect of Vocabulary Preparation Time on Listening Comprehension

Table 4 is a summary of the GLM analysis on the effects of vocabulary preparation time on the English-Majors’ listening comprehension. The independent variables were the same as in the previous section, but the dependent variable was the score of listening comprehension. This table shows that different preparation times have less significant effects on listening comprehension, P=.082>.05. The results suggest that the English-Majors’ listening comprehension depends more on their listening proficiency than on the amount of preparation time with vocabulary, and listening comprehension cannot be improved only by preparing vocabulary.

Table 4. Results of the Effects of Vocabulary Preparation Time on Listening Comprehension

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>SSIII</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Effect size (eta squared)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Model</td>
<td>402304</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>9579</td>
<td>214.4</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.991</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group</td>
<td>1866</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>1.07</td>
<td>.390</td>
<td>.349</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VPT</td>
<td>231</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>2.58</td>
<td>.082</td>
<td>.062</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>3484</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>45</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>405788</td>
<td>120</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: VPT= vocabulary Preparation Time

Strategies to Improve the Students’ Listening Comprehension

Providing Students with Proper Time of Vocabulary Preparation

The results show that vocabulary preparation has some impact on the English-Majors’ confidence level of listening. From the interviews, a lot of students think that studying vocabulary was very helpful to their comprehension and many of them were able to use the given words to predict some content. In addition to vocabulary preparation, there are many other forms of preparation, such as including visual aids, background information or allowing multiple listening (Chang, 2005). Language teachers may choose some preparations that fit their English-Majors’ language leaning. However, it is very important to allow sufficient time for the students to prepare in a classroom listening test; providing students with sufficient time for preparation may help them familiarize with the pronunciation, link the lexical items to the aural text. Underwood (1989) argued that it is unfair to plunge students straight into the listening text. So
before listening, students should be given time so they know what to expect. We have to remember that our goal is to give the students the experience of success and to help them understand spoken English. So in listening teaching, the teacher should provide English Majors with proper time of vocabulary preparation, but not just preparation of vocabulary.

**Adopting Oral Repetition Strategy**
In this study, very few students in Groups A and B enunciate the vocabulary. This influenced the effect of listening comprehension through vocabulary. On the contrary, most students in Group C said that they had tried to articulate every word and discuss them, but Group C had the least time for preparing the vocabulary, and they still achieved a score comparable with the other two groups.

From the research above, we know that the improvement of listening comprehension needs listening strategies. Adopting oral repetition is one of important listening comprehension, so it is very important to adopt oral repetition strategy to familiarize the pronunciation. Some researchers thought knowing the pronunciation of a word included being able to recognize the word when it is heard and also being able to produce the spoken form (Nation, 2001). During teaching, many English-Majors said that they could not match the sound and the written form of a word. So in future listening practice, students should be encouraged to speak the words that are not familiar to them. Gu and Johnson (1996) claimed that the use of oral repetition strategy is positively correlated with general language proficiency, whereas visual repetition was the strongest negative predictor of general language proficiency. Gathercole and Baddeley (1989) believed keeping a word in your phonological short-term memory is an important factor in influencing vocabulary learning. So it is important to adopt oral repetition strategies in listening teaching in the local engineering university of China.

**Encouraging Discussion in Class**
The interviews showed that providing more time to prepare with discussion cannot guarantee better listening comprehension, but it can guarantee higher confidence levels in listening. So listening teaching demands encouraging discussion in the classroom. In the listening classroom, students often feel anxious, even frightened because they fear they can’t understand what is heard. So it is very important to care about student’s affection. Wang Chuming (2001) claimed affection is the booster to continue learning. In the listening class, teachers should give students more opportunities for discussion to remove their anxieties, and to enhance their confidence levels and their levels of listening performance. Dansereau (1988) proposed discussion in the classroom and realized cooperative learning can promote active processing of information and enhance motivation of the participants. Therefore, encouraging discussion in the classroom and encouraging group study may be a good approach to improve listening comprehension (Wu, 2000).

**Urging the Students to Predict the Contents Before Listening and Take Notes During Listening**
Before listening, predicting the contents of the listening material can give the students a general idea of the material in mind so that they can understand the material better. So teachers should suggest students read up on the content beforehand, not just the words. Each listening lecture is usually accompanied by a list of texts which students should read in advance of the lecture. This will familiarize them with the ideas and information they will hear. If students can’t read the recommended texts, they should predict the content of the texts by focusing on the title of the lecture and think about what they already know, or questions that they would like answered.
During listening, key words are very important. Therefore, the students should be required to select what is important or useful, and to learn to take notes of key words. Developing their own note-taking styles is very necessary; at the same time, not listening for every word can better their understanding of the listening materials.

**Conclusion**

This research mainly examined the impact of vocabulary preparation time on the English-Majors’ performances of listening comprehension in a local engineering university of China. We found that different preparation times have a less significant impact on the students’ listening comprehension, but it can enhance their vocabulary performance and their confidence by testing and interviewing. From the results of this research, we claim that providing students with the vocabulary of an aural text before the listening test cannot greatly improve the English-Majors’ listening comprehension, and their listening comprehension cannot be improved only by familiarizing themselves with the vocabulary. Instead, their listening comprehension can be improved primarily by listening strategy adoption and confidence levels in listening. So in this paper, we proposed several strategies to boost students’ listening comprehension. Of course there are other strategies worth exploring in the future. The limitation of this research is that it is difficult to control the amount of time the students really spent on the preparation of vocabulary. Therefore, in future research, in order to better control the allotted time, we suggested to carry out timed classroom study.

**Acknowledgement**

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**References**


A Research on Effective English Teaching in IT-based Settings
– A Case Study of Linyi University

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[Abstract] This paper discusses the importance of effective classroom teaching and makes a tentative attempt at proposing a network-based diversified and interactive teaching model. Then, a detailed account of the teaching practice based on the synchronous technology – Adobe Connect – is presented. It is found that an information technology-based diversified and interactive teaching model helps to achieve effective classroom teaching. The author hopes to shed light on further researches on effective language teaching.

[Keywords] effective teaching; diversified and interactive teaching model; Adobe Connect

Introduction
Computer-based modern technology has merged into college English classroom teaching, causing change to traditional language teaching (Chen, 2010, p. 6). Factors ranging from teachers’ teaching ideas, teaching processes, teaching activities, and teaching methods for students’ learning strategies and evaluations have to make corresponding changes. However, information technology itself can not help study, and it functions when it is properly merged into daily English classroom teaching. Therefore, how to integrate information technology into our English classroom teaching is a worthy topic. Modern foreign language teaching aims to cultivate talents with communicative ability, cooperative ability and positive thinking ability, and the combination of language teaching and information technology may be of help to achieve that.

Since the late 1960s, effective teaching has been heatedly discussed among the educationalists in the west (Ren, 2013, p. 732). Due to the complexity, flexibility and uncertainty of classroom teaching, pure theoretical study is far from enough for effective teaching. Effective teaching strategies should be delved into for real practice. Also, the preference of traditional teaching methods by some teachers and the ignorance of students’ activeness leads to the failure of effective classroom teaching.

Based on the requirements of the Ten Year Education Informatimization Development Plan (2011-2020) (The Ministry of Education, 2012, p. 3.) and the teaching reform carried out in Linyi University, this paper tries to probe into the way that information technology helps the realization of effective classroom teaching. It is hoped to shed light on teachers’ teaching and students’ learning under the network-based environment.

Effective Teaching and Effective Teaching Models

Effective Teaching
Effective teaching lays stress on “effectiveness”, but what kind of teaching is considered as effective teaching? Some researchers describe effective teaching as one that produces higher-than-prediction gains on standardized tests (Good, 1979, p. 54), and emphasizes gains on students’ learning; teachers’ teaching should also be evaluated by standardized tests. Wang Binhua argues that interest, self-inspiring motivation and initiative of students should be required for effective teaching (Wang, 1997, p. 58). He
holds that effective teaching can help promote autonomous learning. Norton, in his book *The Effective Teaching of Language Arts (Second Edition)* has discussed effective teaching from the perspective of English teaching (Norton, 1985). According to him, effective teaching requires that students be taught according to their needs (Norton, 1985, p. 129). Therefore, effective teachers should be able to perceive the individual needs of students, and to provide exciting and effective learning activities. Cui Yundun holds that effective teaching is a modern teaching philosophy that improves teachers’ working efficiency and enhances process evaluation and management for results. He discusses five main points involved in effective teaching: students progress and development, teaching efficiency, measurability of variables, teacher’s awareness of self-examination, and particular teaching strategies (Cui, 2001, p. 46). Progress or development can be interpreted in three areas. First, it means that students can fulfil more learning tasks with the same amount of input of time and energy. Second, attitude and emotions are improved in the acquisition of knowledge and learning ability is improved in the process of enjoyable learning. Third, the complete goal of education has been achieved and students have better development. While pursuing effective teaching, those three layers of effectiveness should be valued, or else it is not real effective teaching.

**Effective Teaching Models**

“The most extensive studies on developing effective teaching models have been carried out by Bruce Joyce and several colleagues” (Joyce, Calhoun, & Hopkins, 1997). According to Joyce, et al., four families of teaching models are classified based on the types of learning they promote and on their orientation of how people learn in general (Harris, 1998, p. 172). Those four families of teaching models are: 1) the information processing families; 2) social family models of teaching; 3) personal family models of teaching and learning; 4) behavioral systems family of models of teaching and learning. The information processing models help students learn how to construct knowledge, as they focus directly on intellectual capacity. The social family of teaching models help students learn how to sharpen their own cognition through interaction, and how to work cooperatively and productively with individuals. The personal models of teaching focus on the individual and seeks to encourage learner independence, so that individual learners can become increasingly self-aware and responsible for their own destiny. This behavioral systems family of models is also known as behavior modification, behavior therapy and cybernetics since learners learn through feedback and adjustment. It is found out that classroom teaching will be more effective when these models and strategies of teaching are used in combination.

**Construction of Effective Teaching Mode Based on Adobe Connect**

**Adobe Connect**

As a web-conferencing tool, Adobe Connect provide synchronous, multi-mode teaching and communicating chances for learners. In the past decade, web-conferencing has been warmly welcomed as an e-learning tool for its flexibility (Falloon, 2011, p. 191). The synchronous technology can bring together learners from different places. Learners can communicate with each other by way of voice, video, and text and they can also have discussions with each other through individual presentation, group discussion, or a collaborative whiteboard, etc. Web-conferencing can help students gain a new understanding of the course taken, motivate more students involved in the learning process and enhance learning motivation (Hudson, Knight & Collins, 2012, p. 33). It helps to build good interpersonal
relationships, establish a sense of belonging, and get rid of the loneliness caused by online learning (Falloon, 2011, p. 194).

**Diversified and Interactive Teaching Model in an IT-Based Setting**

In teaching practice, the diversified and interactive teaching model in an IT-based setting is composed of five main procedures: task-design, students’ preparation, multiple interaction, instant feedback and diversified evaluation. Figure 1 demonstrates the flow chart for the diversified and interactive teaching mode. The teaching procedures along the middle axle are the nucleus and are represented in full curve.

Chinese and American online collaborative teaching is carried out with the help of synchronous technology – Adobe Connect Pro Meeting. American teachers are the main hosts and methods such as lecture and discussion are preferred in class. Before class, American and Chinese students are required to prepare according to predesigned topics in groups. In class, group representatives present their preparation through video and voice. Both sides are involved in discussion and questioning, and they can also communicate with each other by way of text. To guarantee that class teaching can be carried out smoothly, a website is set up for teachers to upload the related reading, audio and video materials to provide background information and topic-related viewpoints for students, so that they can get fully prepared for their presentations and discussion in class. After discussion and presentation, teachers and students on both sides are required to make comments based on what they have heard, said and seen. After class, students can further communicate with each other in the website forum, improve their own presentations and submit them online.

![Figure 1. Diversified and Interactive Teaching Model in IT-Based Setting](image-url)
The diversified interactions in this mode refer to the interactions between teachers and students, interactions between students, and interactions between students and the online environment either in class, or in the cyber environment and after-class activities. During the process, teachers act as facilitators, promoters, organizers and guiders, while the students, the main body of classroom activities, fulfil their tasks and improve language skills through practice and collaboration. Being guides and organizers, teachers are adept at manipulating flexible teaching methods, like effective questioning, role play, group work, scenario simulation, debate, and summary, etc.

Multi-varied evaluation is valued in this model. Teachers and students, being equal in the process of evaluation, discuss, negotiate and debate over some controversial questions to establish a collaborative learning atmosphere. Different forms of evaluation are employed, such as self-appraise, others appraise, peer review, formative evaluation and summative evaluation. Also, teachers, other students and students themselves can make proper and immediate comments on the task they have just participated in. Positive comments can stimulate and inspire students’ learning motivations and enthusiasm for the new task, while negative comments can help students to improve with the advice and criticism of others.

The combination of language knowledge and application of language has been achieved in the proposed teaching mode with the help of information technology, and students are trained to cultivate comprehensive language ability and autonomous learning ability.

**The Practice of Diversified and Interactive Teaching Mode in an IT-Based Setting**

Action research is essentially research through action. It is usually a collaborative activity, involving input from people who are likely to be affected by the research. Action research is an effective way to study for teachers, since they can observe and reflect upon their own teaching behaviors and deepen their own understanding through communication with collaborators and specialists. Empirical research can be generalized as obtaining objective materials through observance, tests or questionnaires to subjects under investigation. The essential attributes and law of development can be induced by empirical research.

**Action Research and Empirical Research**

The American and Chinese collaborative online teaching practice started in October, 2010. English majors Class Five and Six were chosen as participants in the experiment. Those on the American side were teachers from the Education College of Florida Gulf Coast University and 20 postgraduates majoring in education technology. The classroom teaching was conducted through synchronous technology, Adobe Connect Pro Meeting. During the program, the Chinese and American students were required to communicate at least one hour online to fulfil their learning tasks through Adobe Connect. The teaching content covered language study, cultural knowledge, and understanding of modern information technology, etc. The following chart shows the records of the mean time used in each semester, the number of times of online collaborative teaching, and the overall time records.

**Table 1. Number of Times of Online Collaborative Teaching, the Mean Time Used in Each Semester and the Overall Time Spent**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th></th>
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<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of times of collaborative teaching</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The mean time used*</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall time**</td>
<td>239</td>
<td>441</td>
<td>490</td>
<td>715</td>
<td>1885</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As for the after-class task, the Chinese students were required to watch the teaching video to learn languages and to share their feedback and opinions on the teaching activity. The American students were required to write a report to reflect on the teaching process with their educational knowledge and skills. Teachers and teaching assistants need to observe every teaching video, make notes, comment the behaviors of students on both sides, and put forward proper suggestions for further improvement on learning and teaching. Students on both sides share the observance records. Though during the practical operation, some technical and communicative questions arose, a satisfactory result has been achieved in the program. It has been found that online collaborative teaching helps to enrich the learning experiences of both the American and Chinese students, improve their own study, raise their learning motivation and their ego efficacy.

The pre-study and post-study surveys revealed that students improved in some aspects, such as learning motivation, learning ability, confidence, understanding of English study, and willingness to communicate with English native speakers. The following chart shows us that significant differences exist between the pre-study and post-study surveys. It is shown that the ego efficacies of Chinese students in learning motivation, learning ability, confidence, and willingness to communicate with English native speakers have been improved.

Table 2. T-Test Before and After Study Experiment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Pre-study</th>
<th>Post-study</th>
<th>T value</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Average</td>
<td>Standard Deviation</td>
<td>Average</td>
<td>Standard Deviation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English learning motivation</td>
<td>4.1250</td>
<td>1.0701</td>
<td>4.6765</td>
<td>0.7675</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning ability</td>
<td>2.9375</td>
<td>1.2165</td>
<td>3.5294</td>
<td>0.9919</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Confidence</td>
<td>2.7813</td>
<td>0.8701</td>
<td>3.5000</td>
<td>1.0225</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understanding of English study</td>
<td>3.2188</td>
<td>0.8322</td>
<td>3.2647</td>
<td>0.7904</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Willingness to communicate with native speakers</td>
<td>2.0625</td>
<td>0.9483</td>
<td>3.1471</td>
<td>1.2094</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Results Achieved

The diversified and interactive teaching mode has been easily accepted by Chinese students. Their English listening, speaking ability and communicative ability have been improved, their interest in English study has also been ignited, and their potential has also been developed. About 80% of the students interviewed felt that this brand-new learning experience made them fully aware of the charm and potential of online learning. Network-based online teaching allows people in different places to study synchronously and interactively regardless of time and space limitations. Ninety percent (90%) of the participants agreed that being immersed in the English-only environment, enabled them to continually receive different stimuli given by English native speakers, so their interest in English study was increased and their communicative ability in English was promoted. It is worth mentioning that the network-based teaching can satisfy students’ curiosity and individual needs, and provide chances for them to explore, create and interact in an open environment with rich materials, so that they can learn to study independently, critically and creatively.
Suggestions for IT-Based College English Teaching

The Importance of the Teacher’s Role

Student-centered teaching is the mainstream of current language education, and language teachers should feel that imparting knowledge is their sole task for their classes. Student participation and interaction in the class and knowledge development will undoubtedly become the focus of modern foreign language classes. One tough problem that bothers language teachers is how to stimulate students’ learning enthusiasm or motivation. Student-centered teaching does not deny the significant role of teachers in the learning process. Teachers should be fully aware of the individual differences of each learner and organize student-centered classroom teaching in an effective way.

Effective Interaction between Teachers and Students

Interaction between teachers and students is the most important factor of effective teaching. Good interaction in class will enhance teaching efficacy and create a positive climate to prompt teaching and learning. In an IT-based setting, students have easy access to various learning resources, such as texts, pictures, sounds, animations, and the interaction between teachers and students is far less than necessary for the study of language. Therefore, teachers are to give students specific guidance in the process of learning and carry out effective interaction with students to help them to study independently. Also, interaction with students provide more chances for teachers to learn about each individual, such as their learning ability, their learning progress, their motivation, and their advantages and disadvantages in their study, etc., so that teachers can adjust their teaching strategies to enhance the learning effect.

Conclusion

Classroom teaching is the nucleus of foreign language study, and currently low efficiency class is still a problem faced by foreign language teachers. This paper discusses the importance of effective classroom teaching and makes a tentative attempt at proposing a diversified and interactive teaching model based on the action research carried out between our university and an American university. It is hoped to shed light on the construction of an effective language teaching class for language teachers and students. The teaching practice based on the website conferencing – Adobe Connect – is just an attempt to combine information technology and foreign language education. There is no denying that such information technology is not widely used in language education at the present time. However, this synchronous technology provides chances for interactions and communications between teachers and students, and is helpful for effective teaching and learning. We believe that with the rapid development of information technology, synchronous technology will be widely used in more fields of education.

References


### Appendix 1

Please answer the following questions. 1 totally disagree, 2 disagree, 3 not clear, 4 agree, 5 totally agree

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>I know how to download a music file on my computer.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>I know how to move a file to a new location on a computer.</td>
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<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>I know the difference between <em>save</em> and <em>save as</em>.</td>
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<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>I know what an extension name (e.g. PPT, Doc., gif.) means in a file.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>I know how to download and install a program on a computer.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>I know how to create and publish a blog.</td>
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<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>I know how to operate a digital camera.</td>
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<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>I know how to operate a digital video camera.</td>
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<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>I know how to use different search engines for locating different information online.</td>
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<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>My blog includes pictures from my camera.</td>
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<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>My blog includes video clips</td>
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<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>I have used online audio and video communication tools such as QQ, MSN Messenger, Yahoo Messenger, PoPo, Skype, and etc. to chat with people.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>I have participated in online discussions in my course study.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>This is the first time to use Adobe Connect for learning.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>This is my first time to use Skype for learning.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>I have had experience with online shopping.</td>
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<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>I usually play online games for at least 3-5 hours a week.</td>
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<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>I have a special ability to learn English well.</td>
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<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>My overall language learning ability is above average in my class.</td>
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<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>I believe that I will be able to understand all the English spoken by English speakers.</td>
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<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>I am confident to speak English with English speakers.</td>
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<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>I enjoy practice English with English speakers.</td>
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<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>I feel great when I communicate with English speakers.</td>
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<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>I can easily make myself understood when speaking with English speakers.</td>
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<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>I feel difficult to understand what English speakers say or mean when communicating with them.</td>
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<tr>
<td>26</td>
<td>I will soon become a fluent English speaker.</td>
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<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>It is important to speak English with an excellent pronunciation.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>28</td>
<td>If I learn English very well, I will have better opportunities for a good job.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>29</td>
<td>It is necessary to know about English-speaking cultures in order to speak English well.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>The most important part of learning a foreign language is learning vocabulary.</td>
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<tr>
<td>31</td>
<td>Learning English is more than learning a language.</td>
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<tr>
<td>32</td>
<td>I have a friend who is an English speaker.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Principles of Culture Instruction in English Teaching

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Email: cloud502@126.com

[Abstract] Culture instruction currently plays an increasingly crucial role in English teaching, and many scholars and teachers are seeking kinds of strategies on culture teaching. This paper tries to explore some basic principles on culture instruction, including the principles of contrasting and comparison, tolerance and assimilation, and others, aiming to enable culture instruction to work smoothly and efficiently in the fields of English teaching.

[Keywords] culture instruction; practicability; comparison; tolerance; assimilation

Introduction
As a series of behaviors and social acceptation, culture is greatly vital in learning a second or foreign language (Brown, 2007). With the growing awareness of the importance of culture instruction in English teaching, many researchers and language teachers have suggested appropriate techniques to deal with cultural behaviors when teaching second or foreign language linguistics abilities (Byram, 1989, 1997; Byram & Morgan, 1994; Damen, 1987; Kramsch, 1991, 1993; Scarino & Liddicoat, 2009; Stuart & Nocon, 1996; Hinkel, 1999; Roh, 2011), and they are keen to find out the possible and effective ways to facilitate English learning and teaching. Currently in China, culture is usually taught in the class through conveying and memorizing facts provided by relevant materials without them actually being understood or comprehended in their nature (Roh, 2011; Omaggio, 1993). In order to scientifically and practically provide culture instruction, certain principles are necessary to adopt and follow in the process so as to reduce and avoid the bind and discretionary management in culture cultivation. According to the understanding based on relevant literary reading and my own teaching experience, the following principles should be taken into consideration in culture instruction.

Principle of Practicability
According to Moran (2009), the overall aim of culture learning is to enable learners to integrate into the ways of living in the community where the target language is spoken, to establish coherent harmonious relationships with the people of the community using the target language, and to blend in with the target culture’s daily lives with members of the group. As a result, one of the most important principles of culture instruction is the principle of practicability (Wu & Wang, 2008; Pan, 2001).

Communicativity
With the objective to improve the communicative competence, learners may first stress about the cultural information that is closely related to cultural communication (Wu & Wang, 2008; Roh, 2011) as some basic culture information can most enable the college students to perform well in cross-cultural interactions (Shemshadsara, 2012). Therefore, it is important for the teachers to identify the communicativity and feasibility of the information used for culture instruction. The content of culture instruction should be closely associated with the language content (Summer, 1940; Bonvillain, 2000) that
students learn, associated with the everyday communication of the target culture (Wu & Wang, 2008; Roh, 2011), and also associated with the future careers of the students (Wu & Wang, 2008).

**Authenticity**

It is expected that both teachers and students should be aware of the objectivity of culture (Bonvillain, 2000; Sapir, 1949) in language teaching, so it is necessary for teachers to provide authentic cultural settings (Summer, 1940) along with practical materials for students to comprehend the culture of the target language (Wu & Wang, 2008) so as to avoid culture shock in real intercultural communication. The knowledge or information used for culture instruction should be selected from original materials of the target culture (Sapir, 1949) so that to guarantee the authenticity (Summer, 1940; Cakir, 2006).

**Principle of Overall Process and Overall Domain**

**Overall Process**

Culture teaching should run through the entire process of language teaching (Hu & Zhang, 2011). Culture acquisition possesses the features of chronicity and difficulty (Hu & Zhang, 2011). As Nida (1993) says, culture learning is much more difficult than language learning. Zhang (1994) argued that because the culture elements which directly affect communication not only exist but also turn up for the first time of learning its language, we should excavate and grasp it at the beginning of language teaching. Therefore, culture teaching should start from the very beginning of language learning and teaching, and all through the entire process of language learning (Hu & Zhang, 2011; Zhang, 1994). That is to say, we have to guarantee that culture teaching is always combined with the language teaching, and throughout the overall process of language teaching (Zhang, 1994; Hu & Zhang, 2011).

**Overall Domain**

Culture teaching should engage into the subjects of all fields in language teaching, including the basic fields – listening, reading, speaking, writing and translating (Hu & Zhang, 2011; Cui, 1994). Teachers tend to focus more on imparting knowledge or on cultivating abilities and skills (Hu & Zhang, 2011). When teachers teach the courses about vocabulary and communication they may reference relevant culture connotations, but they do not pay much attention to culture in other courses like listening and writing (Hu & Zhang, 2011) since these are usually considered as courses aimed at practicing learners’ listening and writing capacity rather than culture or communication which concerns culture elements. Cui (1994) argued that one reason for the learners failing to understand the meaning of some listening materials is that they know little about the necessary culture knowledge of the western culture.

**Principle of Orderliness and Moderateness**

**Orderliness**

Language teaching is an evolutionary process from the shallower to the deepest, from easy to difficult, so culture teaching should also obey this rule of orderliness, proceeding step-by-step (Wu & Wang, 2008). The content, emphasis, ways and volume of culture instruction should be decided on the base of learners’ language proficiency, receptivity, and comprehend capacity (Wu & Wang, 2008). We should decide the content of the culture introduction based on the student’s ability level from easy to difficult, from appearance to essence. For those learners whose English is on the initial elementary stage or whose English level is not high, teachers should focus more on the cultural information supplied in the textbooks to introduce the students to the culture and avoid to recommending too much extra knowledge beyond the
textbooks (Wu & Wang, 2008). For those who are in the later elementary stage or for those learners whose English is relatively better, teachers can introduce more cryptic information beneath the textbooks (Wu & Wang, 2008).

**Moderateness**
The content and the methods of culture teaching should be suitable and appropriate (Wu & Wang, 2008). The content chosen for teaching should be in the typical mainstream (Wu & Wang, 2008). The content of culture is very broad, so teachers are not able to present every aspect, but instead they have to choose the most important and necessary parts (Wu & Wang, 2008) to teach, which concerns and reflects the core values of the target culture. Culture knowledge is rather broad, so it is impossible for teachers to settle all problems or interpret all the cultural knowledge within one or a few classes (Wu & Wang, 2008).

**Universality.** Cultural knowledge that is representative, or from the dominant target culture, should be interpreted in detail, and practiced repeatedly, and the learners should be asked to draw inferences about other cases. Wu and Wang (2008) argue that what should be taught to the learners is the communicative cultural knowledge and models in the society of the target language rather than that within a small geographic group or region. Teachers should make an effort to deal with the relationship between the historic and contemporary cultural knowledge, and they should introduce relevant knowledge based on synchronic culture knowledge, primarily on the contemporary culture, to assist the students’ learning about the context of some cultural customs and conventions (Wu & Wang, 2008).

**Correlation.** At present, almost all the language textbooks are edited with selected original articles as the texts (Wu & Wang, 2008). These articles contain both the chief source of language knowledge learning such as grammar, vocabulary, and sentence structure, as well the source for introducing the target culture. Considering the elements such as students’ demands in the elementary stage and the relatively limited class hours, the content of culture teaching should be selected from textbooks of the language (Wu & Wang, 2008). The teacher should introduce knowledge with correlation rather than introduce irrelevant cultural topics to the students. It is unlikely and unnecessary to collect a lot of cultural materials outside of the textbooks in class because it uses a lot of the teachers’ time and energy, and increases the learners’ learning burden (Wu & Wang, 2008), so the outcome would be ineffective.

**Principle of Comparison**

**Enhancing Learning with Culture Similarity**
Samovar and Porter (1988) suggested that the first step for being a good intercultural communicator is to know clearly about his own culture and to know fully about himself (Li, 2012; Peterson & Coltrane, 2003; Kramsch, 1993; Roh, 2011). Furthermore, the communicator should have the ability to reflect thoughtfully on how he perceives things and how he acts according to those perceptions (Samovar & Porter, 1988; Roh, 2011; Peterson & Coltrane, 2003). Therefore, an effective way to teach culture is to emphasize the similarities between the learners’ native and the target cultures (Hu & Zhang, 2011; Saniei, 2012; Cakir, 2006). In this case, the topics of culture instruction taught should be carried out in the contexts with both the target culture and the native one (Cakir, 2006; Roh, 2011), which means while instructing the culture of a target language, the equivalent information of the learners’ native culture can be offered at the same time to assist learning (Saniei, 2012; Hu & Zhang, 2011).
Comparing the Culture Differences

Human beings are brought up in certain culture environments, being affected by the culture, so “learners cannot simply shake off their own culture and step into another, their culture is a part of themselves and created them as social being” (Byram & Morgan, 1994, p. 43), their speech and behaviors should be stamped with the culture. Many phenomena that are habitual for the native people may be peculiar or even inexplicably for people from other cultures, and people from different culture backgrounds may encounter some barriers (Hu & Zhang, 2011; Li, 2012) in intercultural communications. In order to have the social communication go on with swing, culture teaching should identify the learners’ native culture (Roh, 2011) first, and then make a comparison and find out the differences between the native and target cultures (Hu & Zhang, 2011), so that the learners are able to reduce the misunderstanding caused by the culture differences (Lafayette, 1997; Roh, 2011; Li, 2012). Learners should make a better preparation to recognize and understand the differences of the behaviors between the target cultures, including dissimilar beliefs, values, and customs (Lafayette, 1997), which helps them to engage in the real context of the target language and behave well (Saniei, 2012; Genc & Bada, 2005).

Principle of Tolerance and Assimilation

Culture should be instructed without any precondition; that is, culture teaching should take place without carrying the distinctions of values or judgments between the learners’ native culture and the target culture (Peterson & Coltrane, 2003), so the learners have chances to receive the information from both their native and the target culture relatively equally (Kramsch, 1993; Peterson & Coltrane, 2003).

Tolerance

Tolerance is also very important in culture teaching (Li, 2012). We adopt the tolerance principle because in the current situation of economic and social globalization, there is no exception that every culture is facing problems of preservation, improvement and development (Li, 2012). Otherwise, a person’s values, worldview, their ways of thinking and behaving can be disturbed by contact with people of another culture background (Genc & Bada, 2005) because the distinctive discrepancies differ from their native culture (Brown, 2007). Such problems can be serious sometimes, and since people in such cases possibly suffer what is called Culture Shock (Brown, 2007), which includes the phenomena from a slight perception to extreme mental fear (Brown, 2007). Tolerance means no discrimination towards the target language culture (Li, 2012; Peterson & Coltrane, 2003), and comprises three types: ethnocentrism, culture stereotypes, and cultural bias (Li, 2012).

Ethnocentrism. Summer (1940) indicated that ethnocentrism means a nation regards itself as the center of the world and takes its own culture as the frame of reference for other cultures. Language learners judge the behaviors of other cultures with their native cultural standards and segregate their culture from others’. Influenced by this ideology, it is usually taken for granted that the values, social norm and social language rules of their culture are more authentic and valid than those of other cultures (Li, 2012; Gene & Bada, 2005; Kramch 2001). They show an unacceptable and hostile attitude toward other cultures (Li, 2012).

Culture stereotype. According to Jia (2004) and Brown (2007), culture stereotype is a mindset, a faith of attributing to the people or social group from a certain culture. Essentially, culture stereotype is a faith or attitude that is over vague generalized, simplified, with particular differences ignored and exaggerated with the related people from a cultural background (Peterson & Coltrane, 2003) or a simplified cognition (Li, 2012; Jia, 2004; Brown, 2007). Cultural stereotypes prevent learners from
acquiring the knowledge of other cultures, and they may tend to ignore or refuse other cultures (Gene & Bada, 2005; Kramsch 2001).

**Cultural bias.** Culture bias is an unfair and declinational attitude towards other cultures (Li, 2012). Culture bias denies other cultures, and it is not a general misconception, but a rigescent attitude based on misdiagnosis (Li, 2012) or their strongest first impression. Most people hold ethnocentric views because of cultural bias (Gene & Bada, 2005), which results in some problems when they encounter a culture that differs from their own. Because of cultural stereotype and cultural bias, those people try to reject the new culture (Gene & Bada, 2005) rather than understand and accept it. They may draw a hierarchy of cultures in their minds, and locate their native culture at the site of hegemony (Gene & Bada, 2005; Kramsch, 2001).

**Assimilation**

In the process of culture instruction, in addition to enabling the students to learn about the culture that the target language is based on and to identify the similarity or dissimilarity between the target culture and their native culture (Peterson & Coltrane, 2003) through comparison (Li, 2012). Exploiting the culture of the target language is more important (Li, 2012), which is regarded as the core of assimilation (Peterson & Coltrane, 2003; Li, 2012). Students who learn a second or foreign language should be able to understand the lifestyle, beliefs, and values of the target culture within their native culture (Saniei, 2012; Cakir, 2006; Roh, 2011; Omaggio, 1993; Kramsch, 2001). Only through absorbing and assimilating the target language culture, can the target culture be properly comprehended.

However, culture assimilation does not mean that target language learning will change the learner’s identity (Saniei, 2012). Learners who assimilate into another culture should try to use the target language properly and adopt the good elements of the culture, retaining their own lifestyle (Schumann, 2004) without changing the values and beliefs of their native culture (Wu & Wang, 2008; Saniei, 2012).

**Principle of Enjoyment**

Learning a foreign language itself is a boring task to some extent, but culture enables language learning to become interesting with certain related culture information, as well as activities in class (Wu & Wang, 2008). Cultural learning increases learners’ curiosity about the community of the target language and the interest in the community (Wu & Wang, 2008), preventing the language class from being too boring (Kitao, 2000). In the teaching process teachers should try to create a language environment for students through lively activities (Saniei, 2012), such as contests, singing, videos, games, parties, reciting poems, doing research on countries and people, and other forms (Wu & Wang, 2008), to motivate students’ learning enthusiasm, providing them a comfortable and pleasant atmosphere for the learning of the foreign language and culture knowledge (Wu & Wang, 2008). The students will like the language more once they understand a little more about its origins and its culture, and their interests may be raised as they know the “why” of many things in the target language (Gene & Bada, 2005).

**Conclusion**

Culture in language teaching should be instructed as an interpersonal process rather than simply imparting cultural facts, and teachers should arouse the learners’ cultural awareness through the comparison of the native and target cultures and help learners to understand the information implied within the cultures. It is impossible for teachers to teach all of the culture knowledge in the class about the target culture due to variability and diversity of the culture, as well as the constraints of the syllabus, so the students should be
trained and encouraged to learn how to learn about culture, namely, when they engage with new aspects of culture, they should develop their knowledge and awareness and find ways to act according to their new learning. Consequently, teaching culture does not only mean conveying cultural facts, but instead on certain principles cultivating the learners’ ability to acquire essential culture elements both disclosed and implied in some given situations through relevant cultural comparison and contrasting.

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References


Construction of a School-based College English Curriculum System with Multiple Teaching Objectives

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[Abstract] According to the suggestions of the College English Teaching Guide, the necessary and urgent construction of a school-based curriculum system for college English that is dynamic and open, scientific and justified, and reflects school characteristics, is analyzed. The principles this new type of curriculum system should conform to instrumental and humanistic features, diversification and appropriateness, as well as service features, and the measures that safeguard the achievement of multiple teaching objectives are proposed. Based on the case analysis of a key provincial comprehensive university of agriculture as its advantage and feature, the suggestion that college English curriculum system should embody pluralism and multiple levels to satisfy students’ individualized development needs and social demands is put forward.

[Keywords] college English; teaching objective; school-based curriculum system; College English Teaching Guide

Introduction

Since the restoration of the National College Entrance Examination in 1978, college English teaching has undergone three major developmental stages. The beginning stage (1978-1984) – the main characteristics of which are low teaching levels, unsystematic state of teaching objectives and requirements, and a lack of unity of teaching arrangements among different universities (Cai, 2009). The norm unification stage (1985-2003) started in 1985 and 1986 when the State Commission of Education issued College English Syllabus for Undergraduates of Sciences and Engineering and College English Syllabus for Undergraduates of Arts and Sciences, the cores of which graded teaching (bands 1-6), united vocabulary, created syntactic structure, functional idea, and language skills tables, and stipulated, quantitatively and qualitatively, the teaching content and requirements for each band. “This not only benefits foreign language teachers’ teaching organization, but it also promotes interschool exchanges (Ying, 1996). In 1999, College English Teaching Syllabus (Revised) was officially issued. The Syllabus initiated, for the first time, nationally united teaching objectives and requirements, and made ineffaceable historical contributions to promoting college English teaching reform and development. Meanwhile, however, because of the discrepancy of teaching and actual demands, students were short in strong learning motives, and teaching and learning effects left much to be desired. Dai Weidong (2001), the famous linguist in China, evaluated college English teaching of that stage in this way, “This not only results in regrettable waste of learning resources, waste of time and waste of efforts, but in a slack in English learning as well”. The third stage – the teaching system formation stage (2004-2014) – showed an increase of international exchanges and a decline of teaching quality caused by increased enrollment, so the Advanced Education Division of the Ministry of Education issued College English Curriculum Requirements (Trial Edition) in 2004 and the formal edition in 2007, making general requirements on teaching quality improvement and new-era talent cultivation. The drastic changes of college English teaching nationwide at this stage were based on the establishment of a computer-based college English teaching mode, the formation of teachers’ modern teaching ideas, and the cultivation of students’
comprehensive competence in listening, speaking, reading, writing and translation. College English teaching system has been gradually formed (Wang, 2008 & 2010).

The Syllabus and the Teaching Requirements have played important roles in standardizing college English teaching, but simultaneously, they have also, to some extent, bound the development of college English teaching of different levels and in different types of colleges and universities, and is unfit for the needs of the times on pluralistic and individualistic development of higher education. With the rapid changes of objective and subjective factors in higher education, the problem that the existing college English curriculum system failed at was to be distinctly graded, consequently making it so the curriculum was unable to meet the demands of different-level students from universities of different types, and became increasingly serious. On this basis, the 2014 Key Work Points of the Advanced Education Division of the Ministry of Education pointed out that “college English teaching reform should be promoted actively and safely, the College English Teaching Guide should be studied and formulated, and colleges and universities should be guided in providing graded high-quality college English teaching.” Prof. Wang Shouren from Nanjing University, chairman of the National College Foreign Languages Teaching Advisory Board, under the Ministry of Education, led the board members to conduct a complete and thorough study on new-era college English teaching (Wang, 2011; Wang & Wang, 2011). In April 2014, the new Advisory Board displayed its periodical study results at the “College English Teaching Reform and Development Symposium” held in Beijing, demonstrating the new college English teaching reform: to establish multiple teaching objectives and to provide multiple choices, signifying that college English teaching is entering an important transitional period. In December 2014, the consultation Guide was completed, which advances clearer guidance for general curriculum frames for college English, “Colleges and universities should design their corresponding teaching content and class hours according to their school types, levels, student sources, schooling orientation, talent cultivation orientation, and language teaching and learning rules, and construct open and dynamic, scientific and justified, and school-featured college English curriculum systems.

Principles of Constructing a New-type College English Curriculum System

Principle of Integrating Humanistic and Instrumental Value
The college English curriculum system should fully tap the humanistic connotations of the college English curriculum system, and cultivate students’ rational knowledge of the world, nation, society, and life, as well as their autonomous learning ability and international vision. Simultaneously, the college English curriculum system should also serve as the students’ instrument in their oral and written communication at work and in society, thus satisfying their developmental demands in career and social live.

Principle of diversification and appropriateness.
Schools of different levels and different types should construct curriculum systems that fit their students and schooling orientation. Even within the same school, individualized curriculum systems should be constructed based on different specialties, different individualistic demands, and different-basis students.

Principle of service.
As an important public basis course, the college English curriculum system should actively serve students’ all-round development, the school’s schooling orientation, specialty development demands and
the students’ individualized development. It should play an important role in the internationalization of education.

**Safeguards of a New-type Curriculum System with Multiple Teaching Objectives**

- Implement graded teaching to satisfy different-level students’ demands on college English.
- Deal with the relationship between the general knowledge course and the module course properly. Besides the required course of “comprehensive English” or “basic English”, module courses should also be offered, including general English courses, English courses for special purposes, and cross-cultural English courses, to satisfy students’ individualized learning demands.
- Realize the transfer of the teacher-centered methodology to a student-centered and teacher-guided methodology, and use output to drive input.
- Bring watching, listening and speaking into the classroom, making full use of rich teaching resources of the great data age like MOOCs, micro-courses, and flipped classrooms, etc., and gradually realize informationalization of teaching.
- Organize module course teaching teams to guarantee specialization and detail of teachers’ work. Formulate and effectively carry out teachers’ developing plan, promote synchronous development of college English teachers’ teaching and research, and help college English teachers orient their scientific research.

**Empirical Analysis of the School-based College English Curriculum System**

Jilin Agricultural University (JAU) is a key provincial compressive teaching-research university which is authorized to confer doctor’s degree and was co-developed by the local government and the Ministry of Agriculture. In September 2013, a lead group of JAU for college English teaching reform started a systematic study on the construction of a school-based college English curriculum system. The related situations are as follows.

**Research Plan**

With *College English Curriculum Requirements* and *College English Teaching Guide* as guidance, and through theoretical study, expert consultation, extra-school investigation, internet surveys, teaching practice and investigative questionnaires, data was collected on JAU English learners’ English basis, specialty study aims and effects, specialty planning and personal interests, as well as on administrative personnel’s and college English teachers’ understanding of and attitudes towards the new college English reform. This collected data was analyzed thoroughly and on this basis to construct a college English curriculum system that was appropriate for the school situation.

**Methodology**

Field survey and expert meeting method – In September 2013, JAU’s vice president in charge of teaching, the deans of the Teaching Affairs’ Office, and the dean of the Foreign Languages College conducted field surveys at the Northwest Agriculture and Forestry University, Sichuan Agricultural University and Henan Agricultural University. In April 2014, related administrative personnel and teachers attended the “College English Teaching Reform and Development Symposium” in Beijing and obtained more information and guidance for college English teaching reform trends and measures.

Questionnaire and forum method – Questionnaires were designed for and forums held among students of 2012 and 2013, college English teachers, teachers from different specialties and administrative personnel from the Students’ Affairs’ Office and the Foreign Languages College, investigating the existing teaching objectives and modes, students’ learning situations, teaching administration status quo, and teachers’ and students’ suggestions on college English teaching reform, etc.

Research Aim

1. To construct a school-based college English curriculum system with multiple teaching objectives, and to provide new ways of talent cultivation for ordinary agricultural universities. The new-type curriculum system gives consideration to instrumental, specialized and humanistic features of college English, and abides by the principle of giving priority to students’ individualized learning demands on general academic English and general English education.

2. To perfect school-based college English curriculum systems in practice, including teaching objectives and ideas, curriculum arrangement, teaching methods, teaching resources and means, evaluation systems, and teaching administration.

Research Content

1. Teaching objectives – To embody pluralism in teaching objectives. To grade students into three types, that is, students with a poor English foundation, students whose English proficiency is at medium level and students whose English proficiency is at fairly high level. To establish the three-level students’ college English teaching objectives from the perspectives of general English competence, academic English competence, capacity of work in English, cross-cultural communicative competence, based on their English levels, cognitive abilities, specialty development demands and personal interests.

2. Curriculum arrangement – College English is not a single course, which is determined by its multi-objectives. It should be made up of a series of courses or course modules, mainly including general English courses, English courses for special purposes and English courses for general knowledge. This research not only designs individualized course modules, but it also designs innovative language practice skill courses.

3. Teaching method – To study the teaching mode of integrating classroom teaching and students’ autonomous learning and to develop students’ sustainable learning abilities. To study the methods of improving the teaching effect of oral and aural class and attach importance to the development of students’ output capability of English (speaking, writing and translation).

4. Assessment and testing – To construct school-based comprehensive assessment system. To establish multiple assessment standards with teachers, students and administrative personnel as
assessment subjects. To integrate summative assessment and formative assessment, language comprehensive application ability test and individual skills test.

(5) Teaching resources and means. To study how to effectively realize the aiding role of online interactive learning platform and internet public medium resources in college English teaching under the background of big data age and to promote the application of modern educational technology in college English teaching of the school.

(6) Teaching administration. To explore the organic combination and coordination of responsibility, right and benefits of students, teachers and administrative personnel to guarantee the improvement of teaching quality. To discuss the ways of establishing a sound teachers’ professional development planning and a quantitative and qualitative appraisal mechanism to strengthen the building of college English teachers’ team and to improve the quality of administrative personnel.

Main Achievements
JAU’s school-based college English curriculum system was constructed, including curriculum, syllabus for basic English, a syllabus for module courses, practice teaching plans, online autonomous learning plans, teaching administrative rules, and teachers’ on-job training plans, etc. Teaching objectives: To cultivate students’ basic language skills and English comprehensive application abilities, especially the ability to listen and to write, in order to enable them to conduct effective oral and written communications later at work and in society in English; to give consideration to the development of students’ autonomous learning abilities and international vision, and to improve students’ comprehensive qualities, in order to enable them to adapt to China’s economic development and international exchanges.

Three-level teaching mode. According to the results of the English proficiency test and vocabulary quantity test, the freshmen were graded into A, B, or C-levels, which respectively corresponds to students with poor English foundation, students with a medium English level or students with a fairly high English level. Combined with JAU’s reality, guided by the Guide, the requirements on listening, speaking, reading, writing and translation of A, B and C are proposed, respectively correspondent to improving objectives, basic objectives and slightly lower than basic objectives in the Guide. A feasible teaching plan is formulated and practiced, with variations in teaching progress.

“R+E+P+A” curriculum system. A required course (basic English) + elective module courses + language practice skill courses + internet autonomous learning. Compared with college English before the reform, the new-type curriculum system has the following changes:

(1) One course is changed to a series of courses. The former college English is renamed basic English, with changes of class hours (from 264 to 192) and credits (from 16 to 12), which is required to cover reading, writing, translation and oral and aural teaching materials in four semesters;

(2) Elective module courses and language practice skill courses are added to the system, with the intention of satisfying students’ individualized needs and enhancing its instrumental and humanistic value. Elective module courses are composed of four modules, and each module is composed of two courses, with 16, 24, 32 or 48 class hours each (1, 1.5, 2 or 3 credits), offered from semester 3 to semester 7. English practical skills module contains “English translation and writing”, and “English watching, listening and speaking”, advanced English module contains “advanced English reading” and “advanced English skills training”, general education English
module contains “seminar on culture of English speaking countries” and “guidance to English and American literature”, and general academic English module contains “reading of English for agricultural science and technology” and “translation and writing of English for agricultural science and technology”;

(3) Language practice skill courses include four courses, with “English dubbing experience” and “English film appreciation” offered in the 1st semester and “English drama performance experience” and “English speech training” in the 2nd semester, with 8-12 class hours and 0.5 to 1 credit each;

(4) The mode of students’ conducting autonomous learning in school’s English Autonomous Learning Center is changed to students’ free autonomous learning on the online platform. Teachers assign tasks in class, and implement guidance and supervision online (Guo, 2008).

**Detailed assessment rules for basic English.** Formative assessment accounts for 50%, the items of which are attendance, comprehensive performance in class and periodical test results. Periodical tests contain task-based tests and diagnostic tests. At the beginning of each semester, teachers assign students after-class autonomous learning content, requirements and assessment methods, and help students make a reasonable autonomous learning schedule. Through tests of assessing students’ English comprehensive application abilities, teachers evaluate their validity in different periods’ learning and adjust teaching by diagnosing the common mistakes and learning difficulties. Students’ achievements in academic contests of all kinds, such as the National English Competition for College Students, “FLTRP Cup” English Speaking Contest, “FLTRP Cup” English Writing Contest, and JAU’s Foreign Language Experiencing Classroom activities, etc., are awarded with credits.

**College English teaching teams.** According to teachers’ research areas and personal interests, college English teachers are divided into four module teaching teams. Owing to their diverse teaching tasks, the four teams are expected to study and practice their teaching requirements respectively, and to master teaching theories, method environments and conditions respectively required by each module. Simultaneously, well-directed teachers’ training and cultivation plans are required. JAU has formulated detailed training and cultivation for the four teaching groups and planned to further study module curriculum, teaching objectives, content, methods and means, and testing models, etc., and perfect teaching and examination syllabus for each module within two years.

**Conclusion**
The new-type curriculum system of JAU proceeds from social demands and students’ needs, conforms to foreign language teaching rules, and adapts to JAU’s schooling situations and features. And hence, it is expected to improve, to a large extent, the college English teaching levels of JAU, and benefit the building of an innovative, courageous and hard-working teaching staff. To safeguard the smooth implementation of the reform, JAU endeavors to create a good atmosphere all over the school in order to enhance teachers’ and administrative personnel’s awareness of the necessity and feasibility of the new college English reform, and to improve teachers’ capability of coping with this reform.

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On Cohesive Strategies of Listening & Speaking in ELT between College and High School

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[Abstract] English language teaching between college and high school is an organic whole; it should be connected naturally and effectively. The fact is, the problem of the teaching disconnection between college and high school in listening and speaking of ELT seems to be more serious with the further development of the college English teaching reform, especially in the poor western and middle regions of China. This paper first analyzes the reasons why college English teaching is disconnected from high school English teaching, and then comes up with some cohesive strategies to solve this problem.

[Keywords] cohesive strategies; listening & speaking in ELT; college and high school

Introduction
English language teaching between college and high school should be connected naturally, however, the problem of ELT disconnection between the two stages has plagued college teachers for a long time. At the end of the last century, the research on the Streamline ELT System among primary schools, middle schools and colleges in the entire country attracted many experts and scholars’ attentions. “The streamline ELT system” refers to the implementation of continuity, and a consistency principle from primary schools to colleges in various foreign language teaching stages. It is also called “A Dragon” Planning of English Teaching in Primary Schools, Middle Schools and Colleges. Fan Wenfang (2000) and Dai Weidong (2001) discussed the system construction from the macro theoretical view, while other scholars focused on the practical explorations in the disconnection problem between college and high school, such as Zhang Xinfeng (2007) and Ren Daling (2012). However, the disjointed problem still exists, and the gap of teaching disconnection in listening and speaking of ELT between these two stages seems to have grown, especially in the western and middle regions of China due to various reasons. So it is necessary and urgent to solve this problem.

The Analysis of Present Situations and the Reasons
According to a new survey, more than half of the college freshmen believe that the biggest difference in English teaching between college and high school lies in listening and speaking courses, which makes them feel they are the most difficult to learn. Listening, on this issue, seems more prominent, so they have to spend nearly half of the year in adapting to college English teaching in class. In fact, the level of teaching of listening and speaking courses in high school among most of the poor western and middle regions, where qualified teachers and hardware facilities are short, is below the national average. That is to say, that most of our full-time secondary schools hardly offer listening and speaking classes to the students, so freshmen are unable to understand what the college teacher is saying in class and to communicate with others in English, similar to the deaf and the dumb.

When it comes to the reasons for “high consumption and inefficiency” in English education, Cai Gigang (2005) considered the main factor to be a lack of effective cohesion among the different teaching
stages. Yang Feng and Wu Shiyu (2013) also point out that the Ministry of Education, which promulgated *College English Curriculum Teaching Requirements* in 2007, puts too much emphasis on listening and speaking skills, but ignores the effective cohesion from high school. While the former makes clear requirements that “The goal of College English teaching is to cultivate students’ comprehensive ability in English, especially their listening and speaking ones” (Ministry of Education, 2007). So how to bridge this gap is a great challenge to college teachers.

**Teaching Differences in ELT between College and High School**

**Differences in Mental Preparation and the Environment**

After experiencing the tight National College Entrance Examination, freshmen face a new environment, and most of them hold the idea of relaxation in their minds – they have never thought of the sharp contrast in English listening examinations before. To their great astonishment, the English listening examination accounts for 35% or 70% in CET, while before, it was never examined or only was considered as a reference point in the National College Entrance Examination. Most freshman have not attended English listening and speaking classes or have any specialized training in high school. Perhaps their English scores were not low, but there is a serious imbalance between their scores and their listening and speaking abilities. No sooner have they gotten enough mental preparation, then the harder challenges await them. On the other hand, the number of students are smaller and more stable in each teaching class of high school, where there is little difference in students’ achievement grades, and similar teaching methods are used in the same area, while the number of college students is larger for each class and the level of English is uneven and more complex, which brings more trouble to the college normal teaching activities and environment.

**Differences in the Teaching Focal Points**

At the secondary school, all the students regard the College Entrance Examination as their learning goal and usually are submerged in all kinds of exercises and exams while the teachers mainly focus on teaching accumulated knowledge, grammar, sentence structures, and writing and reading skills. The majority of students in the learning process lack autonomy and self-efficacy under the control of the parents and teachers. College teaching emphasizes independent learning, focuses on improving students’ English comprehensive application abilities and places special emphasis on listening and speaking abilities. Some of the vocabulary and text study may be left to students as part of self-learning exercises. If the freshmen can’t adapt to this change, they will feel overwhelmed and frustrated at first, which will hinder their improvement in the overall quality of English teaching.

**Differences in Textbooks**

The Ministry compiled the general textbook as the only source of teaching material in high school while college English textbooks are various, flexible, and non-specified materials. In addition to the main reading materials which are selected from original British and American texts, they are also equipped with the appropriate listening and speaking teaching materials. Freshmen find that the quantity of new words and expressions of each text are in a big storm, but their use of repetition is less frequent than before, so they can't absorb and digest them as well as in high school. What’s more, they could have hardly expected any of the following, such as the lengthy texts, complex sentence structures, unfamiliar cross-cultural backgrounds and difficult exercises. The sharp disconnect in textbooks should be paid more attention.
Different Methods in Teaching and Learning

At the secondary schools, the majority of students tend to turn around the teachers and develop the habit of depending on them in English learning. They believe that the more the teacher explains in class, the more they can obtain from it. What they should do is just to listen to the teacher carefully, take notes from the blackboard and do the exercises. The teaching methods are more flexible and diverse, and the teacher often focuses on the analysis of the reading and writing skills from the entire text’s view. The teaching information has wide coverage and rapid presentation by the usage of multi-media. As for the new vocabulary and grammar, study is often left to the students as extracurricular self-study tasks. The teaching methods are shifted from teacher-centered to student-centered. As for the teaching organizations, many teachers in high school speak Chinese to teach English, while all of the college teachers use English to teach English.

Cohesive Teaching Strategies between the Two Stages

Cohesive Strategies in Emotional Attitudes

Teachers’ enlightenment should always be accompanied by action in the teaching process, especially in terms of newly-enrolled students. First of all, the new students must be led to understand that English learning needs long-term practice for every individual, to adapt themselves to the characteristics of college English teaching, and to accept the concepts of autonomous learning as soon as possible. Secondly, teachers should pay more attention to the first semester’s teaching progress, trying to find out the differences in the students’ bases, then choosing the appropriate teaching methods to achieve a smooth transition. Thirdly, teachers need to cultivate and protect students’ positive attitudes and inspire them to keep their active, persistent and long-term motivations to learn English.

Cohesive Strategies in Learning Strategies

As we all know, a language is not to be taught but learned. College teachers’ tasks are not only to complete the task of teaching, but also to develop the students’ self-learning abilities step-by-step, so that they can gradually depend on themselves in learning English. Wen Qiufang (1996), in English Learning Strategies Theory, pointed out, "The differences in academic achievement originate not only from intelligent level but from the ability of management learning as well, which has become a key element of many factors in learning English.” According to the existing survey, unsuccessful learners often poorly, or rarely, use management approaches. Through the guidance of relevant skills in learning strategies, the students can make full use of their potentials. Teachers should also create a good language environment to cultivate the students’ habit of speaking English as often as possible, combined with the use of modern teaching methods, such as audios, videos, televisions, Internet and multimedia courseware.

Cohesive Strategies in Teaching Modes and Methods

The teacher-centered teaching model should be shifted to a student-centered teaching paradigm, and the teaching method should be transferred from the center of teaching language to the center of improving the capacity of the English comprehensive application. At the beginning, it may be appropriate to follow a teaching model and method in high school, then it can be gradually transferred to the requirements of university teaching. During this period, some problems need to be solved. First, the vocabulary that the students have learned in high school is poor and it is difficult to meet college requirements of listening and speaking skills. In this case, college teachers should have a good look at textbooks in high school first, the
first thing is to teach students how to memorize college vocabulary accurately and quickly. Second, two extreme tendencies should be corrected in grammar learning: one is misunderstanding it, the other is ignoring it. The syntax ability from grammar learning can help learners understand the words and create a good oral or written works (Hu Zhuanglin, 2001, p. 8). So the teachers have to compensate for their lack in grammar, and attract their attention to the use of flexible teaching mode. Third, the assessment of students’ achievements should be comprehensive and integrated, rather than short-term or one-sided, so formative and summative assessment can be combined together, in order to facilitate a fair evaluation of the status and trends for the students’ actual detection of language development.

**Conclusion**

In short, the fact that college English teaching is disjointed from middle school in listening and speaking is true, and how to make freshmen adapt to college English teaching quickly is the bounden duty for the college teachers. The teachers should take the initiatives to change their old teaching ideas and teaching mode, so as the students to become capable of high-quality personnel. We hope that more scientific, cohesive strategies will be able to seek through the active cooperation of teachers between college and high school.

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Study on the Teaching Strategies in an Oral English Class in China: 
Based on Structure Mode in Recorded Conversations 
between Unacquainted Collegians

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Abstract] Oral English has become more and more important for Chinese learners. The study of English conversation modes can assist teachers in employing effective methods in teaching spoken English. This paper first analyzes structure mode in unacquainted collegians’ English conversations. It was found that in the recorded 49 pairs of conversations there were three types of structure: Initiation-Response, Initiation-Response-Follow-up and Initiation-Response-Follow-up-Initiation. Centered on initiation, response and follow-up procedures, this paper later introduces several teaching strategies for oral English teachers about how to question and how to give feedback in interactions with unfamiliar people.

Keywords] English conversations; structure mode; oral English teaching

Introduction
In the past forty-odd years, a large number of studies have been related to conversation analysis (e.g. Austin, 1975; Brown & Yule, 1983; Coulthard, 1992; Fan, 2011; Jefferson, 1985; Hutchby & Wooffitt, 1998; Levinson, 1983; Liu, 2007; Ten Have, 2007; Tsui, 1994; Tsui, 1995; Wang, 2006; Yu, 2008). And among all the research work on oral English teaching in China, only Kaye and Yu (1999) discussed how to chat with unacquainted people in English, but no others have been based on recordings of authentic interactions. In order to explore effective oral teaching methods, this paper first analyzes structure mode in 49 pairs of unacquainted collegians’ conversations in relatively natural settings (in the dormitory, station, playground, schoolyard, on the train, auditorium, classrooms, and stores, etc.). Then two kinds of strategies for oral English teaching are proposed.

The researchers in this paper conducted the surveys by recording all the conversations. The participants were all volunteer college students. All the recordings were transcribed. In the following transcribed examples, only the related lines are displayed, with A and B representing the two interlocutors, numbers refer to the line number; the noisy words were omitted, a few obvious grammar errors corrected, and irrelevant paralinguistic elements were not transcribed. Chen and Guo (2011) explored three modes in conversations, which are the structure mode, communication mode, and directing mode. This paper focuses on structure mode and discusses the implications for oral English teaching.

Literature Review
In the early 1970s, Sacks, Schegloff, and Jefferson put forward that conversation was a turn-taking activity. “Turn-taking is used for the ordering of moves in games for talking in meetings” (Sacks, Schegloff, & Jefferson, 1974, p. 696). Turn-taking is the process by which people in a conversation decide who is to speak next. Different pragmatic units like a word, phrase, sentence and clause can function in the turns. Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) proposed the use of the IRF (Initiation-Response-Feedback) model for the analysis of teacher-student classroom conversations. Initiation, response and feedback are the three moves
in the conversation according to the model. In China, based on transcriptions of English corner conversations, Li analyzed the structures and two major patterns in English corner conversations – I-R and I-R-F (Li, 2009). Chen and Guo (2011) probed into conversation modes in Doctor-patient Discourse.

Structure Mode in Recorded English Conversations
On the basis of the structure mode (Chen, 2011), Sinclair and Coulthard’s IRF model (Sinclair, 1975) and the transcription of 49 pairs of recorded talks, in the paper, three types in the conversations are summed up – Initiation-Response-Follow-up, Initiation-Response, and Initiation-Response-Follow-up-Initiation – the first two of which are the main types of interaction. Here “follow-up” is almost the same as “feedback” in Sinclair and Coulthard’s IRF model.

I-R-F Type
The I-R-F (Initiation-Response-Follow-up) type is suitable for analyzing English conversations between unacquainted people. It was found that the I-R-F type exists in 40 out of the 49 conversations. As the example below shows, A1 initiates the question, “What kinds of such job are you fond of?”, and B1 responds. Then according to B1’s answer, A2 follows up with “I think it’s a good choice.”

A1: What kinds of such job are you fond of → ? = (Initiation)
B1: = Maybe: to be an English teacher or (.) to be merchandise. (Response)
A2: O: h, I think it’s a good choice ↑ . (Follow-up)

This type is common in English conversations between teachers and students. The interaction can be initiated by either the teachers’ or students’ responses to each other, and then they express their opinions according to the responses. The F step is the key to promoting communications. The IRF type makes students’ interactions quite close to real life.

I-R Type
The initiation and response (I-R) type is also very common in the recorded conversations. One speaker initiates a topic and the other responds. Then another initiation comes and is followed by another new response. This type appears in both different turns and the same turn. See the following example. First, after answering A (3)’s question, B (3) continues the talk in the same turn by initiating another move, “Have you ever tried shopping online?” In this way, B (3) keeps the turn to herself and elicits a new topic for the other party. It is seen here that the initiation and response are in the same turn. Secondly, when B (3) asks A (4) a question, which is a new initiation move, A (4) responds with never. Both the initiation and the response exist in different turns.

A (3): My name is Eve. How about you ↓ ? = (Initiation)
B (3): = I’m Lucy. Have you ever tried shopping online ↓ ? = (Response – Initiation)
A (4): No, never ↑ . I prefer to actually see and touch (.) what I’m buying (.) before I pay for it, especially for clothes and shoes. (Response)

In addition, in this talk it is obvious that throughout the conversation, it is A who controls the conversation and plays a predominant role in topic selection. When B (3) initiates a new move after her response, A (4) immediately responds with “No, never. I prefer to ....”.

I-R-F-I Type
The I-R-F-I type is the shortened form of Initiation-Response-Follow-Up-Initiation. It is the mixture of the first two types. Both the initiation move and follow-up move can occur in the same turn. After a follow-up
move, the speaker elicits a new initiation move. In the following dialogue, B1 answers A1’s question and introduces herself, and then A2 immediately follows up with her own name. After that, A2 initiates another move with questions. The new initiation and the follow-up moves exist in the same turn.

A1: Excuse me. Are you going to the library? = (Initiation)
B1: = Yeah. I will. My name is Adele. (Response)
A2: I’m Nancy. What are you doing there? Are you going to borrow some books? = (Follow-up - Initiation)

The Strategies for Oral English Teaching
The research of the structure mode in the conversations produced in the 49 pairs of unacquainted collegians is of great help for oral English teaching. In order to make the conversations with unacquainted people develop smoothly, teachers are supposed to adopt some effective strategies on how to train students to initiate and follow-up in the conversation. The proposed strategies here include a questioning (initiation) strategy and a feedback (follow-up) strategy.

Questioning strategy
Questioning is the most effective way of starting an interaction with unfamiliar people. Oral English teachers are advised to help students practice using three kinds of questioning (initiation) strategies: information-gap questions, more new questions, and open questions.

The first is to ask questions with an information gap. The questions are better to be meaningful. As the lines below show, A1 asks B1 a question which implies that A1 doesn’t have a watch with her or her telephone is powered off. Later, A2 says, “... There are 30 minutes left”. So B2 infers that A2 will take the train at eleven and they both will take the same train. In this way their talk develops. Here, A1 asks an information-gap question. In teaching or communicating with students’, teachers should try to make use of this strategy and help students get more practice.

A1: Excuse me. Can you show me the time now? =
B1: = o: k let me see. It is half past ten now.
A2: Half past ten? There are 30 minutes left.
B2: O: h, you take the train eleven O’clock. Let me check the ticket. Me, too! So: where are you going? =

The second is to elicit new effective questions so that the talk keeps going naturally. Like in the following example, after A1 raises the question and gets B1’s answer, A2 elicits a new question why? so that the talk lasts. Therefore, teachers can instruct students to initiate new questions related to the answer, so as to make interaction with unacquainted people continue. Besides, in order to make their talks with unacquainted people last a little long, while doing the training teachers are suggested taking advantages of role-playing, oral presentations and so on.

A1: O: h, thanks. So: it’s the first time to Wuhan?
B1: No. Two years ago, I go (went) to Wuhan for holiday with my parents. And (.) I think Wuhan is a good place.
A2: Why? Why do you think Wuhan is a good place?

Below is an insignificant conversation in which the questions cannot start the interaction. The talk goes in a simple way where one asks a question and the other answers directly. These kind of conversations between two unacquainted people are hard to continue.
In an oral English class, to train students to ask new effective questions can cultivate the students’ creative thinking. The effectiveness of questions lies in their ability to draw forth what kind of questions to ask, and also how to order those questions for authentic communication.

The last strategy is to raise more open questions. Open questions are opposite of closed ones to which the answers are what the other interlocutor knows and most of the responses are yes or no. See the conversation below.

A5:  O: h, yeah. So: you come from Guilin, right ↓ ?
B5:  Yes, yes. I heard that in Guilin there are many delicious foods, too.
A6:  O: h, yes. I think if I have free time, I will have a big feast ↓ .

Open questions are an important form of classroom questioning. To use open questions in class can help students think and participate in the talk actively and get new topics. Like in the example mentioned above, B3 raises an open question, which encourages A4 to continue her talking. Open questions in class have a positive effect on developing students’ cognition. Whether teachers can get students to participate in classroom speaking activities depends on the teacher’s understanding and development of the student’s answer.

A3:  My name is Eve. How about you ↓ ? =
B3:  = I’m Lucy. Have you ever tried shopping online ↓ ? =
A4:  No, never ↓ . I prefer to actually see and touch (. ) what I’m buying (. ) before….  

Feedback Strategy

Feedback strategy shows that, by observing the students’ performances in class interaction, teachers make corresponding judgments and evaluations. The Chinese English learners usually speak a kind of language between the native language and the target language: interlanguage. While speaking English, Chinese students often make errors, so therefore, when they speak English inappropriately, teachers should not make a fuss and criticize them at once. On the contrary, teachers are advised to use the feedback strategy to get the students to realize their errors, and then do the self-correction. In this conversation below, B2 says that he comes from Huang-gang province (it is a city), and A3 repeats the phrase. Then B3 realizes the error, and at last he corrects it himself. That indicates that A uses wise feedback to inspire B to realize his error, and adjust it himself.

B2:  I come from Huang-gang province.
A3:  Huang-gang province ↓ ?
B3:  >Huang-gang <, Hubei Province.

In addition to repeating students’ errors, teachers should also remember to utilize positive feedback words to evaluate their students, such as: ‘yes’, ‘ok’, ‘good’, ‘right’ and so on. Like in this conversation below, B3 responds with “Ok” to show her agreement, and A6 uses commendatory words, “wow, it was real thrill” to evaluate B5’s answer.

A3:  =Well, my name is Steven, but you can call me Steve. (Response)
B3:  O: k. (Follow-up)
A5: You say you come from ❖ Chengdu. Did you experience the Wenchuan earthquake ❖ ? = (Initiation)

B5: Yes, it happened (.) when we were in English class. At the beginning, we felt that (.) our desk were vibrated, and thought that (.) someone played a practical joke on us, but (.) one of my classmates said, “Earthquake ❖ !” I fast ran to the playground. And saw that (.) our canteen was shaking up and down ❖ . (Response)

A6: **Wow, it was a real thrill** ❖ . (Follow-up)

In oral English classes Chinese students often feel very nervous. Teachers’ positive feedback, of course, can also be demonstrated with body language, like patiently listening, nodding, smiling, and eye contact, etc. Thus, the teacher should repeat students’ errors with a rising tone. Normally, most students will understand and correct their errors. Moreover, in a student-centered teaching setting it is also wise for teachers to adopt the consultation strategy for error correction so as to let students reflect on their language errors, and put them right at last.

**Conclusion**

Students have the main role in language learning, and they should be regarded as the most important element in class. Chinese teachers know very well that Chinese students seldom get enough chances for authentic communication in English, let alone conversations between two strangers. Thus, in the oral English teaching class it is very important for teachers to provide students with more opportunities and instruct them to utilize effective strategies for oral speaking to create a quasi-authentic language environment and improve their English-speaking abilities.

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**Appendix**

The Jefferson transcription system was adopted to transcribe the verbal data of the recordings with some minor modifications (Jefferson, 2004).

↑↓   

Upward/Downward arrow indicates a marked rise or fall in pitch.

=   

Equal signs indicate immediate latching of successive talk.

Good   

Underlining indicates talk that is emphasized by the speaker.

Whaː t   

Colons show degrees of elongation of the prior sound; the more colons, the longer the stretch.

> I think<   

Two signs enclose speeded-up talk.

< my opinion >   

Two signs enclose lower talk

.   

Period in parentheses indicates a pause less than a tenth of a second.

...   

Three dots indicate omitted words
Teachers’ Use of Teacher Talk in English Classrooms in the Context of Curriculum Reform in China

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[Abstract] This study examines the use of teacher talk by one non-native speaker teacher of the English language within their state educational system. By drawing on Conversation Analysis methodology, this article details the instructional practices of teacher-student interactions from one English language teaching classroom in Mainland China. The representative evidence shows that in the investigated classroom data, the teachers use a wide array of features of teacher language, which can construct or obstruct students’ learning opportunities of the English language.

[Keywords] English language teaching; non-native speaker teacher; teacher talk; conversation analysis; curriculum reform

Introduction
China introduced a revolutionary new English curriculum for secondary schools at the national level at the turn of the 21st century (for a detailed review, see Wang, 2007). Hence, it is imperative to develop a research agenda that focuses on English language education in light of this new wave of curriculum reform. A research project at Northeast Normal University of China intends to answer this call by empirically documenting actual classroom pedagogy (see Liu, Lin, & Wang, 2010). As a member of the research team, the present writer decided to examine teachers’ use of teacher talk in classrooms in the belief that this aspect of classroom pedagogy is a good indicator of English curriculum innovation, as noted above. This study also has the potential to contribute to the body of literature on non-native speaker (NNS) teachers (Mousse & Lleida, 2008).

Theoretical Background on Teacher Talk
Currently, two major theoretical insights inform studies on classroom interaction within the domain of applied linguistics: cognitive and sociocultural orientations. Drawing from the discipline of cognitive psychology, the cognitivists, on the one hand, view language development as the individual learner’s internalization of separate linguistic skills and systems, which is reductionist in nature. Language learning, under the sociocultural perspectives, on the other hand, is conceptualized as the learner’s “changing patterns of participation in specific social practices within communities of practice” (Gee and Green, cited in Hall & Walsh, 2002, p. 187). Learning is mediated through cultural artifacts, among which language is primary. Classroom discourse, teacher talk in particular, serves as a semiotic resource that mediates learning. Students are socialized into rituals and routines in the classrooms.

Adopting these theoretical perspectives, a number of authors have explored classroom discourse (e.g., Cancan, 2015; Walsh, 2002, 2006). Their studies conducted have acknowledged that the language classroom is a social context with unique characteristics, and have recognized the fact that the foreign language classroom consists of a range of instructional activities with corresponding teaching aims. Walsh (2006), for instance, proposed a framework for improving teachers’ understanding of classroom
interaction. He identified four pedagogical focuses, each of which expects certain characteristic interactional features. His study also argued that teacher’s language use can construct or reduce the learner’s learning opportunities through their instructional talk, which either aligns with the teaching aims or not. Informed by these previous studies, the current paper examines the discourse of teacher-student interactions in whole class teaching.

**NNS Teachers**

The study of NNS teachers has been receiving growing academic attention. An increasingly larger number of authors have been writing on various aspects of NNS teachers (for a recent review, see Mousse & Lleida, 2008). The existing work on English language teaching focused primarily on native-speaker (NS) practitioners, and even the studies (e.g. Braine, 1999) that have documented the issues relating to their NNS counterparts, have overwhelmingly investigated those working within the western educational systems. What the “silent majority” is doing in their local, non-western context go severely under-reported in international research literature (see also Mousse & Lleida, 2008). This study adds to this body of work. Before I present the classroom discourse analysis, I will first discuss the methodological issues.

**Data**

As part of a research program carried out at the School of Foreign Languages at the Northeast Normal University in China, an online corpus of English classroom discourse was composed. The database, at the time of this writing, stores about 94 hours of transcribed data from 25 units of secondary classes. The data of the current project came from one junior secondary class of an ordinary county-level school. The sampled teacher has been teaching English for more than 10 years. I address the following research questions in this article:

- In what ways does the English teacher practitioner use her teacher talk?
- To what extent does her use of teacher language create or hinder learning opportunities?

**Data Analysis**

This study committed to an analytic mentality of conversation analysis methodology (e.g. Ten Have, 2007). I followed the general principles of the CA approaches. In my study, after my analyzing the moment-by-moment turn-taking of the teacher-student interaction, research questions surfaced. It should be noted here that personal particulars of the participants (the teacher and the students) are not considered relevant unless they emerged from the unfolding talk-in-interaction. And I made no attempt to code my classroom data set into predetermined categories.

I included only one classroom discourse extract of teacher-student interactions and its corresponding analysis in this paper due to space constraints. See next section for the discourse.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Turn</th>
<th>Role</th>
<th>Transcript</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Female Teacher</td>
<td>Four miles, ok. Now, next, look at here, look at the blackboard. (..) There are ^three^ persons. (.) First one i : s Maria. Second John. Last is Liu : Pei : . Ask and answer questions about them. (.) How, how long, how far. Ask and answer with your partners. Now, who can?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Class</td>
<td>##</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Female Teacher</td>
<td>You two.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Class</td>
<td>##</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| 5    | Female Teacher + Female Student | 1: How does / Maria / ?  
2: / How / does Maria get to school? |
| 6    | Male Student | Er, he = |
| 7    | Female Teacher | = she = |
| 8    | Male Student | = she, she get to school by bus. = |
| 9    | Female Teacher | = Once more. She : .... |
| 10   | Male Student | ## She ge : ts to : |
| 11   | Female Teacher | Er, yeah. She gets to school = |
| 12   | Male Student | = by bus. = |
| 13   | Female Teacher | = Another way to say .... |
| 14   | Class | ## |
| 15   | Female Teacher | She (.) a : .... |
| 16   | Female Student | ( ) bus ( ) |
| 17   | Female Teacher + Male Student | 1: ## / By bus is ok. / =  
2: / ( ) |
| 18   | Male Student + Female Teacher | 1: = She ta : kes / a : bu : s / , a bus ....  
2: / a bike / , bus .... |
| 19   | Female Teacher | ## to : .... |
| 20   | Male Student | to school = |
| 21   | Female Teacher | = A second question. How long .... |
| 22   | Female Student | How long does he : get to school? = |
| 23   | Female Teacher | = Do : es? How long does he .... |
| 24   | Class | ## |
| 25   | Class + Female Teacher | 1: / Does ^she^ : .  
2: / Does ^she^ : / How long does it ta : ke her : to get to school? |
| 26   | Male Student | ## Twen-, (.) twenty (.). minutes. ((Stutter)) |
| 27   | Female Teacher + Male Student | 1: It takes her : twenty / minutes. / The last question.  
2: / minutes. / |
| 28   | Female Student | How, how far is it take .... ((Stutter)) |
| 29   | Female Teacher + Female Student | 1: How far is fro : m / her home / to / school / ?  
2: / her home / , / school / . |
| 30   | Male Student | ## Er, (. ) it's about five minutes. |
| 31   | Female Teacher | ## Minutes? |
| 32   | Class + Female Teacher | 1: / miles. /  

In this extract, the perceived teaching aim, as evidenced in the discourse, is to get the paired-up students to produce a dialogue with prescribed strings of utterances. The unit being learned focused on means of transportation by which students get to school. The extract demonstrates the use of direct repair (Turns 7, 9, 11, 23, 25, 29, 31, 32), which help keep the classroom talk running, posing the least threat to turn-taking patterning. This action of teacher feedback is sequentially realized by a straightforward,
non-nonsense correction of errors in learner language. This interactional feature is proven to be positively correlated with second language (L2) learning (e.g. Seedhouse, 1997). What is also obvious, however, is the teacher’s failure to attend to the learners’ need to “build” (Jarvis & Robinson, 1997) their contributions of the English language, making it impossible for the students to even finish their turns. In other words, in light of the pedagogic goal mentioned above, there were missed learning opportunities for L2 learners to manipulate the linguistic forms of the target language. This claim is also supported by the sequential evidence of her action of completing the student’s turns (Lynch, 1996), indicated by the latched and overlapping turn pattern in the discourse. For example, considering the pedagogic purpose of the moment, what the teacher does in Turns 11 and 18 is interesting in that her obtrusion in the former, and overlapping contribution in the latter, seem quite premature as there were no errors or pauses present in the learners’ utterances at the moment she breaks in. Thus, the teacher’s contributions in both cases reduced the learning potential of the responding students, as evidenced by the little interactional space allowed for the learners to even complete their responses. It should be noted here that the teacher may simply do the repairing unconsciously, resulting notwithstanding in reduced learning potential on the part of the responding students. Her pedagogy would have been greatly improved if she had waited for the responding students to finish their turns.

**Conclusion**

The NNS teacher examined in this teacher-student interaction used a wide array of interactional features, which have been identified in prior literature on the use of teacher talk (e.g. Walsh, 2006). As for the second research question of this study, discourse evidence in this article corroborates the findings in earlier studies: teacher talk can create or block learning opportunities (e.g. Walsh, 2002).

The analysis of the present study would be to create material for teacher education programs, making it known to NNS practitioners the role teacher language plays in English language instruction. Thus, they would use the interactional resources available more knowingly in their teacher-student interactions.

Finally, as noted above, there is a need for more empirical studies on actual classroom practices if we want to have a fuller understading of English language education in China in the context of curriculum reform. The current study contributes to this ever-growing evidence base. In addition, what transpires in the English classrooms where NNS teachers do the teaching is an important piece of the entire English language teaching jigsaw puzzle. The current project does its part to identify “the full richness and complexity of teaching and learning of English in the widest possible variety of socio-educational contexts” (Hayes, 2009, p. 98). It is hoped that researchers will conduct more primary source-based studies on the entire NNS constituency, including those English teachers of particular sociocultural contexts, such as Asian countries, in the future.

**References**


**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
Using the Trend of MOOC to Promote the Innovation
of Teaching Methods in Universities

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[Abstract] As a new online education model, MOOC (Massive Open Online Course) has been a concern since it first appeared. MOOC is a completely new teaching form that creates a tremendous impact to the traditional mode of education and triggers changes in teaching methods at universities. However, domestic teaching methods still exist and they are lagging behind. The thinking mode needs to be reintegrated if we want to change them. Thus, we should seize the opportunity and capitalize on the trend to make full use of MOOC’s power to make change, and actively promote the reform and development of university education teaching methods.

[Keywords] MOOC; history of teaching development; innovation; integrative thinking

Introduction
Nowadays, the traditional education mode is still being commonly practiced and recognized in all of the universities in China. That is, students acquire knowledge from teachers’ lectures while teachers test students’ mastery of knowledge through assignments and exams. However, this education mode often leads to a waste of teachers’ and students’ time. As a result, teachers’ hard work is not always rewarded with students making progress in their studies. The solution for this situation is to find another education mode as an alternative. Therefore, MOOC (Massive Open Online Course), a recent development in distance education, has been expected to help with this situation. The greatest advantage of MOOC is that students are able to have the best education resources in the whole world at their disposal, without even going out of their homes (Zhang, 2014). In this online course, teachers make the transition from being lecturers and supervisors to being students’ motivators and mentors. MOOC also supports community interactions between students and teachers. It improves the quality of teaching efficiently and makes personalized learning possible. Even though this new distance education mode has not been widely recognized and accepted, it gives a new impetus to the reform of teaching methods in Chinese universities.
The Meaning of MOOC

From the perspective of teaching methods, MOOC is an “OPEN” teaching mode, utilizing the large data mining functions and network for information exchange. OPEN in this context contains three meanings. First, it means the courses are open to the public. Learners can register without the restrictions of geography and school roll, etc. Second, it means the content and teaching processes are open. The teaching content and processes can be adjusted and extended online according to the learners’ needs. Third, there is an open relationship between “teaching” and “learning”. This means that the roles between teachers and learners can be converted during the teaching processes. Compared with the traditional courses, MOOC overcomes the limitation of time and space. Therefore, the enrollment for one MOOC can be over hundreds of people. Hence, its characteristic of being “massive” is so obvious.

As a new online teaching mode, MOOC not only provides free high-quality resources, but also affords learners a complete learning experience. In addition, MOOC is demonstrating its possibilities with a combination of the existing higher education system. At the same time, it is breeding potential for subverting traditional teaching methods and promoting their innovation.

In a typical MOOC teaching, teachers elaborate the courses. Each course is divided into several units and every unit is subdivided into knowledge nodes. Knowledge of each node is allocated according to the learner’s ability, using multimedia materials as much as they can to interpret vividly. Mostly every node is recorded as an 8-12 minute video clip. What’s more, each clip is designed as a test. Learners just have to successfully pass the test of the previous knowledge in order to get further material. Meanwhile, teachers can analyze and adjust the learners’ characteristics through a network of large data mining. Therefore, teachers can provide a personalized assessment and counselling according to the online learning performances. This method maintains monitoring of learning objectives and learning processes, hence it solves the problem of inadequate monitoring during the teaching process.

It is worthy to notice that the flipped class model shows up when MOOC combines offline teaching. The traditional classroom teaching mode is that teachers teach in a classroom and give assignments to students after class. Different from the traditional teaching mode, in the flipped class model, students finish studying online, and after class, teachers interact with them answering their questions and communicating experiences about implementing knowledge. This totally changes the teachers’ and students’ positions and impacts during teaching. Teachers have changed from being explainers to learning motivators. Students, who are passive knowledge receivers and actively lack enthusiasm in learning English, have become active learners. The main feature is not only to teach knowledge, but also to judge, to communicate and to interact. This means MOOC has the possibility to combine tradition teaching methods and has the potential to subvert tradition classroom teaching.

Laura Pappano, one writer from The New York Times, says “2012 is the first year of MOOC”. From this, although MOOC does not have a long history, it attracts many people’s attention, and it is great motivation to push a university teaching method revolution and subvert the entire university education tradition.

Daliang Zhang, secretary of the Ministry of Higher Education, at the 2013 University Education Research Association Annual Conference and the Third High Level Forum pointed out, “When MOOC comes, it is a question worthy to think that what kind of teaching capability should teachers have, what kind of teaching mode should students need. It can be asserted that in the near future those course without interaction will disappear, and low level teaching will be replaced by MOOC” (Zhang, 2013). Zhenyuan Qu (2013), President of the Chinese Association of Higher Education mentioned at the 2013 International
Forum on Higher Education, “Facing the rising MOOC, our teaching and methods have to revolute”. Dunn Natebimu, Vice President of the University of Southampton, said, “Rejecting MOOD means death. We have to accept online course in large-scale adapting their teaching method, or we will face a difficult future” (Cao, & Yan, 2013). One article in The National Interest, an American magazine, even predicts that MOOC will subvert present higher education. In the next few decades, half of American universities will be gone thanks to this (Hardenn, 2013, pp. 54-62).

Indeed, MOOC will provide the possibility to enjoy low-cost, but high-quality, teaching recourse and more convenient chances. It is a great challenge for the traditional university education that requests a high education fee. At the same time, opening MOOC will prompt professors to mount considerable efforts on studying students’ learning rules to ensure the quality of their teaching and courses. Teachers who teach badly will be eliminated. It is easy to introduce and use this kind of mechanism under students’ free choice. There is no doubt that it brings a considerable threat to the traditional university education.

**University Teaching Method**

Teaching method is the most active factor. It is also considered as the breakpoint of universities’ adaptation to social economic development, deepening educational and teaching reform and improving quality of cultivate talents. Therefore, in western developed countries’ university or college education, a revolution of teaching methods is always active so that teaching methods can adapt to talent cultivating targets, teaching context and teaching objects. However, it is criticized that the steps of the revolution of domestic universities teaching methods has been very slow. The main outstanding issues are: devices of organizing passage, not paying enough attention to induction, analyses and mutual penetration, little change in terms of the “force-feed type” of teaching method, and not doing well in inspiring teaching methods or discussion-based method of teaching, leaving little space for students to think (Zhou, 2009).

From a realistic observation manner, the slow revolution of domestic universities teaching methods revolution is a fact, with no doubt. It is shown as follows: whichever teaching object is ‘talent’ or ‘normal people’, the teaching condition changing from blackboard with chalk to multimedia computer room and Internet platform, it still stuck with the traditional so-called “old three centres”, which are teachers, books and classrooms, or the “force-feed type” of teaching methods. The surprising thing is its assimilation into modern teaching technology, transferring from the multimedia assistant into electronic edition of books, transferring reading the blackboard into reading the screen, and transferring teachers who are force-feeding students into computers.

Many scholars hold the opinion that this bad habit of university teaching is related to our traditional culture gene. Thousands of years of feudal autocracy have made conceptions and senses, such as the supremacy of royal power and the sacredness of emperors, stay on our minds. This has become a core part of our traditional culture, deeply impacting people's thinking and behavior. Yuanqing Zhou, honorary chairman of the China Institute of Higher Education, holds, “The reason why teaching method is still backwater is that it is limited by backward ideas and thoughts” (Zhou, 2009). Looking back at history, the proof of this opinion is clearly seen.

As early as the Warring States period, Xunzi advocated that “Students should do what is told by their teachers”. It stresses absolute obedience to the teachers. In the Ming and Qing Dynasties, students had to obey their teachers absolutely. Different opinions were not allowed. The relationship between students and teachers was strictly based on the teacher’s authority. These old ideology confines Chinese people’s thoughts and it hinders contemporary educational reform. For instance, when it comes to the balance...
between teaching and learning, the role of teachers is overemphasized, while students’ initiative is neglected. In terms of teaching methods, teachers tend to keep instilling knowledge into students instead of having discussions with students about the new knowledge they were just taught. They are used to asking students questions, rather than listening to students’ needs. In addition, they teach every lesson according to a step-by-step outline prepared in advance, which causes a lack of flexibility in class. As a result, there is no connection between the teachers and students. Students simply do what they are told and rarely have the opportunity and courage to question or challenge their teachers’ points of view. This kind of “one-way” education mode was maybe acceptable in the old times, however, it is not going to work in the Internet era. Students now have more channels to obtain information and knowledge than ever. Therefore, they tend not to pay enough attention in class.

Though, forming and maintaining the university teaching method’s traditional habits are more than a linear function of traditional culture’s “genetic contribution”. To this, many scholars have discussed the reasons from multiple angles. In Dunrong Bie’s point of view, there are four main factors blocking the innovation of university teaching methods, as follows: First, it’s a conflict, which is that policy and regulation are against the demand of teaching method innovation. Secondly, teachers do not have enough cognition and motivation about teaching method innovation. The rest is students’ hit-driven mindset and limitation of teaching condition and so on (Bie, 2009, pp. 95-101). In addition, Sanqing Ding analyzed it from other views, which are tradition-thinking mode’s constraints and the absence of the spirit of democracy (Ding, 2006, pp. 20-23). It should be said that these present studies basically have covered the situation we are facing. The inertia can be divided into two types. One is the impact between objective external conditions and behaviors, such as teaching condition limitations, non-coordination of policy and regulation against teaching method innovation, and so on. The other is the impact of mental endogenous reverse forces, such as legislative education concepts, a lack of cognition about teaching method innovations, limitation of tradition thinking modes, absence of the spirit of democracy and so on. These internal and external inertia forces impact together and are slowing, or even blocking, the steps of domestic university teaching method revolution.

**Promoting the Innovation of Teaching Methods in University by MOOC**

Here and now, in order to renew teaching concepts, innovate teaching methods, bargain out the obstacles in mind, construct new teaching method system and cultivate more talents who are meeting needs of the development of society, university education should get rid of the traditional mode of teaching. This is not only a realistic requirement from society to revolutionize university education, but also the corollary of the development of university education. In terms of realistic requirements, during the 9th routine group study of the Political Bureau of CPC, Chair Xi stated, “Do intensify the educational reform, promote the quality-oriented education, innovate teaching methods, improve the quality of cultivating talents, try our best to form environment which is good for the development of creative talents”. In the meantime, “promoting the education revolution based on construction of open course on line and sharing education’ is point works of the education administrative department. From all mentioned above, it is easy to see that it’s an urgent society need for education revolution. The needs of university education development, and the combination of modern information technology marked by MOOC and curriculum course educational impacts on the tradition education system, is based on classroom, teachers and books. As a result, the relations among teachers, students and teaching media are totally changed. Teachers' knowledge authority and traditional authority are dispelled objectively. The purpose of teaching and the
activities need to be redesigned. The role and function of teaching need to be repositioned. So how do we break the traditional university education and realize the revolution of teaching methods?

As the analysis on the mechanism of how to form and maintain the educational tradition we mentioned above, both the external variable resistance and the formation of endogenous to maintain power need to be essentially rooted in the mental intention. From the development concept of dialectical materialism, the internal factors serve as the basis for the change of a thing, while the external factors provide the condition. Therefore, it is very difficult to break the education tradition just by MOOC, which is an external factor. The strategy of using both internal causes and external factors must be acted upon. This is the proper way to promote education revolution. The key to revolution is to solve the mechanism’s problem converting resistance to power. To change the mechanism of mental endogenous power, we must consider changing the perceptions of the main teaching body of colleges and universities as a breakout point. However, from the basis of cognitive psychology, human’s cognition concepts are decided by the way of thinking. Teaching method revolution involves reconstructing cognition about different kinds of things and concept relationships including targets of cultivating talents, teaching content, teaching objects, teaching condition and teaching environment and so on. So it belongs to integrate activities. Based on dialectical materialism, all of these activities obviously rely on the support of integrate thinking.

Integrate thinking is a thinking activity method inclined to think about things and their relationships from function attributes to cause integration between things and form new things (such as concepts, imagery, solution and so on (Douglas, 2003, p. 589). Because of focusing on function attributes, considering things or relationships as available resources and going beyond the normal logical relationship barriers (such as the relationship between water and spring), it is beneficial for integration between different concepts (Martin, 2007). This kind of thinking method has its own unique value in helping people to implement integrate practice activities (such as reconstructing cognition about different kinds of things and concept relationships including target of cultivating talents, teaching content, teaching objects, teaching condition and teaching environment and so on).

In terms of university education revolution based on MOOC, we can take integrate thinking into the strategy as follows:

First, enlighten and cultivate the integrate education thinking method. Innovation of the teaching method must have its corresponding teaching concepts as its supports. It is not only to implement new technology. To teachers and students, MOOC isn’t obviously just the implementation of technology. It is also the cultivation of thinking between teaching and learning. It decides the basic behavior of teaching. By enlightening and cultivating the integrate education-thinking method to form integrate thinking attitudes, mastering integrate thinking tools and using skills, the internal motivation of the teaching method revolution comes. This is because standing from integrates thinking, it will give us new angle to look again at the relationships between teaching and learning, knowledge and skills, purpose and methods, and process and results. So we may have new teaching concepts and teaching values to be an internal power for education innovation.

Second, create and promote the integrate education resource analysis structure. For this purpose, which is to break present modes and methods, and to create new rules, formats and culture, the new information technology’s implementation needs the integrate education resource analysis structure’s help. From a rational standpoint, though the MOOC’s resource advantage is outstanding, implementation of teaching modes such as “Flipped Classroom” requests very strictly that it cannot ensure teaching
efficiency and quality. Especially in the present stage, the MOOC platform and the main body of resource construction are multivariate and complex and they have not formed mature structure and rules. We should stand on integrate thinking, construct the modern education technology and subject teaching resource structure, introduce technology guides and operation specifications, and integrate course resources. In the meantime, we should also find a detailed integrate path combined with independent construction so we can set up a teaching resource library network for the teaching implementation platform, student online studying system, and so on. Then we can share different resource of different databases and platforms so that we can make sure teaching works efficiently and effectively.

In a word, we should use the MOOC’s potential. We can also use integrate thinking to update talent cultivation target and context, and conception about teaching condition and environment. We also need to rebuild cognition about the relationships between teachers and students, and teaching and learning. At the same time, we had better integrate the traditional classroom and online teaching with appropriate policies and institutional arrangements in order to guide students’ self-studying to make full use of Internet resources. Let teachers step down from the platform; release them from repeated knowledge and focus more on mastering teaching rules and exploring new teaching methods. Only then will the revolution of university teaching method come quickly.

**Conclusion**

MOOCs, which are characterized by open access and sharing of high quality educational resources, has spread with explosive speed beyond borders. In China, Tsinghua University, Beijing University, Fudan University, Zhejiang University and other 12 well-known universities has jointly built the Chinese MOOCs platform to achieve sharing of high-quality online courses, which is the first attempt of Chinese higher education teaching model reform. Predictably, MOOCs will be spreading and become more popular rapidly in China.

To meet the coming of MOOCs and let college students benefit from the high quality global educational resources early, higher teaching institutions shall improve from two aspects. From the aspect of students, universities should create a supportive learning atmosphere and guide students to develop good study habits, stimulating their learning motivation. Only in this way, can college give full play to the students’ learning enthusiasm and their principal roles, cultivating their independent-study abilities and preparing for the coming of MOOCs. From the aspect of teachers, as a cutting-edge and efficient online teaching mode, MOOCs put forward quite high requirements for teachers. When facing exquisite design and manifestation of courses, not only should teachers possess profound professional knowledge to cope with students’ online and offline communication and consultation, but they also need to acquire modern teaching methods and information technology competency to design more attractive online teaching courses. Though still in an initial stage, and faced with many realistic problems and obvious deficiencies compared with traditional education, as a supplement of current higher education, there is no doubt that MOOCs will play a more and more important role in the development of future education.

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construction and practice of support platform of universities’ library resources and service facing to the construction of key disciplines” in the year of 2015 (Item Number: GH0212) and the research project of the National Agricultural Literature Information Center of CALIS, “The deep integration and further research of the library resources under the background of Big Data” in the year of 2015 (Item Number: 2015019).

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The Relationship between Communication Strategy and Cognitive Styles

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Abstract This paper reports a study probing into the influence that learner’s cognitive styles exert on their Communication Strategy (CS) use. One hundred two (102) third-year students majoring in English from Bohai University were selected as subjects of the study. Major findings of this study are field-dependence (FD) subjects are significantly more inclined than field-independence (FI) subjects to use holistic CS, and FI subjects are significantly more inclined than FD subjects to use analytic CS. The choice of CS is related with task itself to a certain degree, but the tasks are taken as a whole, and a significant relationship is found between cognitive styles and CS use.

Keywords communicative strategy; field-dependence; field-independence; cognitive styles

Introduction and Literature Review

The term “communication strategy” (shortened as CS) was coined by Selinker (1972) in explaining the processes responsible for interlanguage. Ellis (1985) defined CS as “strategies for using second language knowledge and are employed when learners are faced with the task of communicating meanings for which they lack the requisite linguistic knowledge”. Empirical research has been carried out in terms of the effects of different variables on the use of CSs (Tarone, 1977; Ellis, 1983; Piranian, 1979). The focus on cognitive styles of this paper is field-dependence (shortened as FD) which indicates perceiving a field as a whole and field-independence (shortened as FI) which indicates perceiving a field in terms of its component parts (Hawkey, 1982). FD learners are liable to learn language better by doing cooperative and communicative activities with others, while FI learners are likely to learn language better independently. This paper explores the relationship between cognitive styles and CS use of learners and two tasks are employed.

The Study

The study was designed to test the hypothesis that FD students tend to use strategies based on holistic comparison, and FI students tend to use strategies based on analytic description. The study adopts Nijmegen Group’s Compensatory Strategy, focusing on conceptual CSs – holistic and analytic strategies. Subjects are classified according to different cognitive styles measured by the Embedded Figures Test of Beijing Normal University. In addition, an oral test was devised to assess CS preference of the subjects. Then, the performance of the FD subjects was compared to that of the FI subjects.

Subjects in the Study

There were 102 English majors from Bohai University that were involved in this study. All of the subjects were native speakers of Chinese, who were classified into FI (29), FD (23) and neutral (50) by means of
the Embedded Figures Test of Beijing Normal University. And according to the different cognitive styles, 34 students are holding similar English proficiency according to their marks of TEM-4 and were chosen to take part in an oral test to assess CS preferences. Among the 34 subjects, 10 subjects formed the field-independence group, 11 formed the neutral group, and 13 formed the field-dependence group.

Instrumentation
Four instrumentations were used to gather the data for the study: TEM-4, oral test, the embedded figures test, questionnaire and interview. A questionnaire was used to investigate via well-designed written questions, and an interview was used for getting information by talking with the subjects (Qin, 2003).

Results and Discussions
The results are presented in the following two parts. The first part reflects the frequency and proportion of conceptual CSs, and the use of CSs by learners of different cognitive styles. The second part discusses the relationship between CS and FI/D, and the influence of task upon CS.

Frequency and Proportion of CSs in Task I
All of the CSs employed by the learners were put into the categories and subcategories of the taxonomy of CSs. The quantitative analysis is done by a simple frequency and proportion count of the use of CSs by each group for each category in two tasks.

Table 1. Frequency and Percent of All Types of Strategies Used

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Conceptual Strategy</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Holistic</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>38.9</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>33.9</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>23.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Analytic</td>
<td>117</td>
<td>52.9</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>59.1</td>
<td>134</td>
<td>72.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Linguistic Strategy</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Transfer</td>
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<td>5.5</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Morphological</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Creativity | Total | Percentage | | Total | Percentage | | Total | Percentage |
|------------|-------|------------| |       |------------| |       |------------|
|            | 221   | 100        | | 186    | 100        | | 185    | 100        |

FI = Field Independence
FD=Field Dependence

Table 2. Frequency and Percent of Conceptual Strategies Used

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Conceptual Strategy</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Holistic</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>42.3</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>36.4</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>24.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Analytic</td>
<td>117</td>
<td>57.6</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>63.6</td>
<td>134</td>
<td>75.3</td>
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</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>203</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>173</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>178</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

FI = Field Independence
FD=Field Dependence

Table 1 clearly shows that the number of conceptual CSs employed by subjects greatly outnumber that of linguistic CSs, and the number of analytic conceptual CS employed by subjects outnumber that of holistic conceptual CS, regardless of FI/D cognitive styles. It can also be seen in Table 2 that FD subjects
use a higher proportion of holistic conceptual strategies than FI subjects (42.4>24.7). FI subjects employ correspondingly higher proportions of analytic conceptual strategies than FD subjects (75.3>57.6).

As the area of principle interest in the study, the difference is highlighted in Table 2, which reveals a difference between FI group and FD group in their use of conceptual CSs. Analytic conceptual CSs are more employed by FI subjects, whereas the holistic conceptual CSs are more used by FD subjects.

**T-Test in Task I**

T-test was performed to compare the means of the two groups to see if the difference were significant (Qin,2003). The result are presented in Table 3 and 4, which indicate that a statistically significant difference does exist between the two groups in the number of CSs employed.

**Table 3. Independent Samples T-Test Comparing the Relative Use of Analytic CSs by FD/I Subjects**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ACS</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FI</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>13.4000</td>
<td>1.34990</td>
<td>9.366</td>
<td>12.773</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FD</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>9.0000</td>
<td>.70711</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

ACS=Analytic Conceptual Strategy
FI=field-independence    FD=field-dependence

Table 3 shows that within the domain of conceptual CSs, there is a significant difference in using analytic CSs for FD and FI group (Sig.(2-tailed) =0.000<0.05). FI subjects use significantly more analytic strategies.

**Table 4. Independence Samples T-Test Comparing the Relative Use of Holistic CSs by FD/I Subjects**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

HCS=Holistic Conceptual Strategy
FI=field-independence    FD=field-dependence

Table 4 shows there is a significant difference in using holistic CSs for FD and FI group (Sig.(2-tailed) =0.000<0.05). FD subjects use significantly more holistic strategies than FI subjects.

**Frequency and Proportion of CSs in Task II**

The results in Task II are stated as follows:
Table 5. Frequency and Percent of All Types of Strategies Used

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Conceptual Strategy</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Holistic</td>
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<td>62.4</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>56.1</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>52.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Analytic</td>
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<td>29.5</td>
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<td>36.6</td>
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<td>40.9</td>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Linguistic Strategy</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Transfer</td>
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<td>6.1</td>
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<tr>
<td>Morphological</td>
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<td>2</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.7</td>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Creativity</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
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<td>100</td>
<td>164</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>132</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6. Frequency and Percent of Conceptual Strategies Used

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Conceptual Strategy</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Holistic</td>
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<td>92</td>
<td>60.5</td>
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<td>56.1</td>
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<tr>
<td>Analytic</td>
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<td>32.1</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>39.5</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>43.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5 clearly shows that the number of conceptual CSs employed by subjects greatly outnumbers that of linguistic CSs and the number of holistic conceptual CS employed by subjects outnumbers that of analytic conceptual CS, regardless of FD/I cognitive styles. It can also be seen in Table 6 that FD subjects use a higher proportion of holistic conceptual strategies than FI subjects (67.9>56.1). FI subjects employed correspondingly higher proportions of analytic conceptual strategies than FD subjects (43.9>32.1).

As the area of principle interest in the study, the difference is highlighted in Table 6, which reveals a significant difference between FI group and FD group in their use of conceptual CSs. FD subjects are significantly more inclined than FI subjects to use holistic CSs, and FI subjects are significantly more inclined than FD subjects to use analytic CSs.

T-Test in Task II

A T-test is then performed on the mean number of CS used by the two groups to see if this difference is significant. The result is presented in Table 7 and 8, which indicate that there is small significant difference existing between the two groups in the number of CSs employed.

Table 7. Independent Samples T-Test Comparing the Relative Use of Analytic CSs by FD/I Subjects

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ACS</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FI</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>5.4000</td>
<td>1.64655</td>
<td>2.629</td>
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<td>.022</td>
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<td>3.9231</td>
<td>.75955</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

ACS=Analytic Conceptual Strategy
FI=field-independence    FD=field-dependence
Table 7 shows that within the domain of conceptual CSs, there is a significant difference in using analytic CSs for FD and FI group (Sig.(2-tailed) =0.022<0.05). FI subjects use significantly more analytic strategies.

Table 8. Independent Samples T-Test Comparing the Relative Use of Holistic CSs by FD/I Subjects

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>HCS</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>FI</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>6.9000</td>
<td>.31623</td>
<td>-2.538</td>
<td>12.830</td>
<td>.023</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FD</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>8.3077</td>
<td>1.93152</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

HCS=Holistic Conceptual Strategy  
FI=field-independence  
FD=field-dependence

Table 8 shows there is a significant difference in using holistic CSs for FD and FI group (Sig.(2-tailed) =0.022<0.05). FD subjects use significantly more holistic strategies than FI subjects. When the tasks are taken as a whole, a significant relationship is found between cognitive styles and CS use.

Thus, such an assertion should be supported: within the domain of conceptual CSs, FD subjects are significantly more likely than FI subjects to use holistic CSs, and FI subjects are significantly more likely than FD subjects to use analytic CSs. The conclusion is the same as Littlemore’s and proves the hypothesis.

In addition, a questionnaire and an interview are used for further information. They show similar results with the Embedded Figures Test of Beijing Normal University. Among 34 subjects, 28.4% are of FI, 36.9% are of neutral, 34.7% are of FD. And the questionnaire of CS shows that 86.3% FI subjects tend to use an analytic strategy, and 91.2% subjects tend to use the holistic strategy, which further supports the results of the oral test.

**Relationship between Cognitive Style and CSs**

The result indicates that there is a relationship between FI/D cognitive style dimension and the choice of CSs. Different cognitive styles are associated with a tendency to CS use. FD people perceive information from a general aspect and rely on surrounding perceptual fields or contexts. They tend to express in a general way. So they are more inclined to choose holistic CSs, while FI people perceive information in a concrete way and scan an item as separate from the field or context. They tend to express in an analytic way. So analytic CSs may be easily held by FI people. In a word, they tend to make more use of CSs which correspond to their particular cognitive styles.

In a word, a person’s cognitive style predetermines a broad band of possible CS choices and the breadth of this band varies according to the strength of one’s cognitive style. A category of CS is found to be used more by a group of learners who have a particular cognitive style. So CS use can vary whilst cognitive style remains fixed. Then it may seem less paradoxical to assert that the cognitive style and CS usage are related.

**Conclusion**

Since the study was aimed to get a more substantial conclusion concerning the relationship between FI/D cognitive styles and CS, the findings of this study should be mentioned at the very end of this paper.

In Task I, the number of analytic conceptual CS employed by subjects outnumbers that of holistic conceptual CS, regardless of FI/D cognitive styles.
In Task II, the number of holistic conceptual CS employed by subjects outnumbers that of analytic CS, regardless of FI/D cognitive styles.

Within the domain of conceptual CSs, FD subjects are significantly more inclined than FI subjects to use holistic CSs, and FI subjects are significantly more inclined than FD subjects to use analytic CSs.

Task-related factors are much more dominant in this respect. The subjects generally estimate how much information they need to give and select a CS that is appropriately informative.

References
The Controllable Formative Assessment and Critical Thinking Ability in English Teaching

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[Abstract] The article will focus on the formative assessment that concerns the learning process. First, the popular idea about formative assessment in China will be introduced. Second, the definition of formative assessment and critical thinking ability will be given. In the process of carrying out the formative assessment, the critical thinking ability will be also improved. Teachers and students will all benefit from the formative assessment. Furthermore, the specific study process will be also introduced. At last, the result of the supplement will be illustrated.

[Keywords] critical thinking ability; formative assessment; process; supplement

Introduction and background

In China, higher education has not paid much attention to the training in critical thinking ability, and so, students are weak in this area. Compared with other majors, English major students are especially weak in the depth and width of their thinking. To cultivate the critical thinking ability of students is the way to educate the student; it adapts to the long-term development of their education. For a long time, the main assessment method used in our schools was a summative assessment which made the exam most important. In fact, the exam is only one of the assessment methods. A scientific assessment system should focus on the growth process of the student and put great emphasis on training in critical thinking ability. To achieve this, teachers should use formative assessment to reflect the students’ study abilities by other teaching activities and assessment methods.

In the new turn of teaching reform, formative assessment has become an important part of the change. There are currently mainly three popular ideas in China. The first idea states that the object of the formative assessment is the process of the students’ learning. It guides the teacher and student to care, know, and improve the micro-processes of learning and ability of metacognition. This idea focuses on the micro-processes of learning, which include preparation, thinking activity, and the final result. In the real teaching process, teachers can analyze the students’ mistakes to judge their shortcomings. However, this process isn’t equal to the assessment of the thinking process. Teachers will misunderstand the learning process and assessment.

The second idea focuses on the assessment of the emotions, attitudes and value in the learning process. The typical tools used in this process are “portfolios” and “performance assessments”. This idea guides teachers and students to emphasize the non-intelligence factors. However, it is difficult to divide them because the non-intelligence factors and the intelligence factors are closely related in the learning process. This idea excludes the record and performance factors, which are two important measurements for study, leading to bad results.

The third idea focuses on the results of study that concern knowledge and skills. This method ignores the learning process, as well as the method and emotional attitudes of the students. In the ideology,
Formative assessment is equal to a small test and exercise after class, ignoring the quality and values in the learning process. This is against the new theory of formative assessment.

**The Definition of Critical Thinking Ability and Formative Assessment**

Critical thinking means making clear, sound judgments. During the process of critical thinking, ideas should be reasoned and well-thought out/judged (Crooks, 2001). The National Council for Excellence in Critical Thinking defines critical thinking as the intellectually disciplined process of actively and skillfully conceptualizing, applying, analyzing, synthesizing, and/or evaluating information gathered from, or generated by, observation, experience, reflection, reasoning, or communication, as a guide to beliefs and actions (Huhta, 2010). It is commonly contrasted with summative assessment, which seeks to monitor educational outcomes, often for purposes of external accountability (Shepard, 2005). When the critical thinking ability was connected with English teaching, it was summarized as interpretation, analysis, evaluation, inference, explanation, and self-regulation.

Summative assessment is the old traditional way used in the study which focuses on the outcome and scores. As a contrast, formative assessment including diagnostic testing is a range of formal and informal assessment procedures employed by teachers during the learning process in order to modify teaching and learning activities to improve student attainment (Crooks, 2001). It includes scores and other feedback for students and teachers to evaluate their performances during the learning process. The teacher would design different assessment methods and collect data to record the performances. The students’ emotions, attitudes, learning strategies, teamwork and cooperation spirit would also be measured in the learning process. The teacher would set up the format which records the students’ performances and advancements, and compare their grades, before and after. At the same time, self-evaluations, the teachers’ evaluations and mutual evaluations will be involved in the learning process.

Feedback is the central function of formative assessment. It typically involves a focus on the detailed content of what is being learnt, (Huhta, 2010) rather than simply a test score. After collecting the feedback from the students, the teacher can set up different rubrics to measure their performance and through learning the rubric, the students will also know how to improve themselves and the teacher will provide more efficient information for students to learn. The new assessing method also improves the communication between the teacher and students, and furthermore, it shortens the distance between the set goal and current status. It also help the teacher to know the students’ desire for learning.

**The Value of Improving Critical Thinking Ability**

To improve students’ critical thinking ability is the core goal of higher education and the mission for all first-class colleges. Higher education aims to train talent to have solid basic language skills, a wide range of knowledge, related major knowledge, a strong ability and high quality. It also emphasizes the ability to learn knowledge, to think independently and have innovative ability. This object focuses on the importance of innovative ability which has a tight connection with critical thinking ability. As long as critical thinking ability is improved, students can think objectively, discreetly, carefully and solve problems with a new angle.

Critical thinking ability is a kind of transferred ability that can benefit students all their life because it is a comprehensive ability that teaches students to analyze, doubt, reflect and assess. Students can benefit from it all their life because their way of thought is continuous and transferred. A student with good critical
thinking ability will also be an employee with excellent creative ability and comprehensive quality, so it is very important to train the critical thinking ability for English major students.

Through improving critical thinking ability, students will have a clear mind to consider all possible choices and solutions; they will be calm and know what is right. Those who lack the ability will believe everything they hear is right instead of their resources. Students who have good critical thinking ability will be carefully thinking about all the possible options before they make a choice, so time will be saved. Students will do the work efficiently. A critical thinker will have rational thoughts rather than emotional responses to others, and he will stand on other’s feet to come to a conclusion.

Teachers will accommodate their teaching methods to adapt to the students and their teaching quality will be also improved. Through presentations, individual or group activities, study portfolios, debates, constructive learning strategies, challenging problems, teachers will carry out formative assessment. The controllable formative assessment will help students to finish their studies efficiently, help teachers to judge students objectively and correctly, and to improve students’ critical thinking abilities.

The Advantage of Formative Assessment
The time between formative assessment and adjustments to learning can be a matter of seconds or a matter of months (Wiliam, 2006). Some examples of formative assessment are: A language teacher asks students to choose the best thesis statement from a selection. If all choose correctly she moves on; if only some do, she may initiate a class discussion; if most answer incorrectly then she may review the work on thesis statements (Wiliam, 2006). A teacher asks her students to write down, in a brainstorm activity, all they know about how hot-air balloons so that she can discover what they already know about the area of science she is intending to teach (Cowie, & Bell, 1999).

Formative assessment has a full understanding of the education object and the assessment, both from the value orientation and the assessment method. That is to say, it can exert all the functions of the assessment. The formative assessment emphasizes the criteria and the process; it judges the students’ quality and learning level by the students’ performances. Consequently, it stimulates the students’ motivation and confidence.

Traditional summative assessment was carried out after a lengthy study and formative assessment was carried out after a short span of study, which happened in the teaching process, advocating the melding of the teaching and assessment, mutual response from the subject and object, and realizing the co-negotiation between teachers and students, reflecting the current status in the study. This method can confirm the students’ improvement, and guide them to learn, to develop themselves and to find their shortcomings. Formative assessment neither cares much about standardization and regulation of the object, nor the accuracy of the process or the formal and serious format of the assessment. This gives students a chance to fully show their talents.

The traditional method of assessment can only measure the lowest layer of study. However, formative assessment involves the students themselves, their peers, their teachers, and even their parents, which can go into the deepest layers of study. This way of assessment can describe and assess their studies from different perspectives. The traditional method of assessment is carried out in the final, and formative assessment is carried out through the beginning, middle and the end. It helps students to form successive assessment ideas and grasp the correct methods, integrating assessment to part of their learning process. Finally, it will become an important learning method for their studies and will develop their talent throughout their entire life.
Generally speaking, in the process of formative assessment, teachers and students can both benefit. According to the students’ performances, the teacher will know their degrees of learning and standards. Teachers will know how to modify their teaching methods and instructions to adapt to their students, and they can design different activities for group learning and for individual students. Teachers can set up goals to improve students’ performances. In the process of formative assessment, students are encouraged to learn and improve themselves according to the rubric set by the teachers; students can also learn valuable lifelong skills such as self-evaluation, self-assessment and goal-orientation.

**How to Carry Out the Assessment**

Teachers choose English major students as the participants. Then they will design all kinds of teaching activities, including table discussion, PPT presentation, debate contests, short quizzes, and reflection journals. To record the data, teachers will design portfolios, and a rubric to assess the students’ performances. Also, the students' self-assessments, and peer assessments will be involved as a comprehensive assessment method.

The student portfolios includes a collection of their work, and materials that depict their activities. The students’ self-evaluations, their marks in different stages, the different rubrics for different activities, and the different performance before and after should also be included. In the process of collecting portfolios, the students’ writing and story-telling abilities should be improving. When designing the portfolio, those involved should pay attention to the following things. First, the teacher and the student need to clearly identify the portfolio contents, which are samples of the student’s work, reflections, teacher observations, and conference records. Second, the teacher should develop evaluation procedures for keeping track of the portfolio contents and for grading the portfolio. Third, the teacher needs to plan for holding portfolio conferences, which are both formal and informal meetings in which students review their work and discuss their progress. Because they encourage reflective teaching and learning, these conferences are an essential part of the portfolio assessment process (Venn, 2000).

In the English learning process, it is not easy to find the right way to train students’ critical thinking abilities. Teachers need to improve their own teaching levels, change their teaching theories and methods. There is a clear relationship between the teacher’s level and students’ critical thinking abilities. How to stimulate the students’ desire for learning, how to arouse their interests, and how to make them actively think and discuss pose great challenges for the teachers; there is a distinct relationship with the teacher’s teaching level. Teachers also need to include the training of critical thinking ability in their teaching content. Educators should bear in mind that critical thinking ability and English learning are mutual-accelerators. In the teaching process, teachers should adopt new ways for learning. For example, in the writing courses, teachers should guide the students to analyze the writing style of Chinese and western authors to understand the thinking styles of different people. The teacher also needs to choose proper compositions, leading students to analyze them reasonably and logically. This can lay the groundwork for the training of critical thinking ability.

Teachers can also ask successive questions of the students. In the process of answering all the questions, the students will search for information and think actively. Also, the teacher can design debate contests in the teaching process. When preparing for the debates, students will use, collect, find knowledge and material related to the topic. Gradually, students’ thinking abilities and critical abilities will be improved.
Conclusion

The formative assessment focuses on the process, which helps teachers check the current status of their students’ language abilities; teachers can learn what the students know and not know. It also gives chances to students to participate in modifying or planning the upcoming classes (Bachman & Palmer, 1996). Participation in their learning increases students’ motivation to learn the target language. It also raises students’ awareness on their target languages, which results in resetting their own goals. As a result, it helps students to successfully achieve their goals, as well helping teachers to become the facilitators to foster students’ target language abilities.

As for students, their critical thinking ability largely improves, and students learn how to analyze, expound, explain and debate. The students will recognize the gap between the original plan and the goals, so they will improve their abilities to achieve higher goals. The teacher-student relationship will also be improved by the cooperation in recording all the data and making the portfolios. According to students’ needs, the teacher will also change teaching methods and the ways to accelerate the students’ growth and development.

The formative assessment involves all kinds of tools, including growth record, learning diary, the rubric, even some oral assessments, and positive words from peers and teachers. In this sense, the teacher and the students themselves are assessment tools. The formative assessment should combine the emotional factors and the grades together to assess the students, especially the critical thinking ability.

When students learn English, they shouldn’t only focus on the application of English itself. Most importantly, they should express ideas by using the language. College English teachers should not only guide their students to concentrate on learning itself, but also stimulate them to learn by wisdom and actions. Through the training of critical thinking ability, students will think and judge objectively, analyze and prove efficiently, face all difficulties confidently and creatively solve all their problems.

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References


Reflections on Teaching and the Use of Learning the Speech Act Verb

Suppose in the English Language

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[Abstract] This paper will deal with various aspects of the speech act verb “suppose” in terms of teaching and learning from the view point of applied linguistics. While describing the form, function and meaning of the verb and its related items, some practical problems that would confuse some people, especially non-native speakers, will be dealt with in detail. Attention will be paid to the target situation where English is taught and learned as a second or foreign language. Necessary explanations will be given to each statement point and brief comments will be attached where there are some arguments among linguists.

[Keywords] suppose; basic feature; potential meaning; pragmatic function

Introduction

There are quite a lot of special features and potential meanings of the speech act verb suppose. For the sake of explanation, we can start with the definition of suppose. The Random House Webster’s Dictionary of American English, (Dalgish, et al., 1997) provides a quite clear definition for the word suppose: (1) to assume (something), as for the sake of argument; (2) to think or hold as opinion; believe. From this, we can see that suppose is similar to assume and believe in meaning, and is related to argument in pragmatics. However, there are some differences between suppose and assume, as pointed out by Dixon (2005), “The ASSUME subtype, when there is some doubt as to whether the thought is true, e.g. assume - think of something as true when the Cogitator realises that it is only likely – not certain – that it is; and suppose think of something as true when the Cogitator realises that there is insufficient evidence to be sure that it is” (Dixon, 2005, pp. 139-140).

To explore the various pragmatic occasions on which the word suppose is used, let’s first see the brief description given by Ball (1986): suppose introduces the first part of an hypothesis, leaving the conclusion open. ‘What if the plan fails? We’ll camp in this field tonight. Suppose the farmer objects. What then?’ Here ‘What then?’ means ‘what shall we do then?’ Ball (1986) lists three situations in which suppose is used, apart from its use in hypotheses, which is comparatively familiar to Chinese college students:

- A sharp reply – ‘Suppose you mind your own business, and I’ll mind mine.’
- A suggestion – ‘suppose you just sit down and be quiet for a few minutes.’
- However, it need not register ill humor, e.g. Comfort – ‘Suppose you dry your eyes, calm down and tell me just what happened, eh?’ (Ball, 1996, p. 105).

According to our investigation, quite a lot of college students are not familiar with the first use of suppose indicating a sharp reply. But it is also difficult for them to understand the potential meaning of the sentence in question form like this:

What’s that supposed to mean?

The Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English (Fox, 2009) gives the following notes for the above mentioned sentence: It’s used when you are annoyed by what someone has just said.
Actually, not only this sentence pattern, but also other patterns with questions share this special feature as far as pragmatic meaning is concerned. As Swan (2005) points out: Questions with supposed to can suggest that there are problems.

The train’s already left. What are we supposed to do now?

How am I supposed to finish all this work by ten o’clock?

That’s a lovely picture, but what’s it supposed to be?

Therefore, students are strongly encouraged to use English-English dictionaries where they might find some pragmatic information if there is any.

Linguistic research tells us that on many occasions, sentences with suppose have pragmatic meanings that could hardly be recognized by non-native speakers if they haven’t done a deep study of them. Oxford Advanced Learner’s Dictionary (Wehmeier, 2005) notes one of the explanations of suppose: suppose (3) used to make a statement, request or suggestion less direct or less strong. Please see the illocutionary meaning of the samples: [v] I could take you in the car, I suppose (= but I don’t really want to). Can I borrow the car? I suppose so (yes, but I’m not happy about it).’

From the above, It is quite clear that the use of suppose is not as easy as it seems to be. It is really difficult for the students to satisfy the requirement of selecting the right word at the right time!

The Use of Suppose and Supposing
These two words are of different parts of speech, but they share something in common. In the Columbia Guide to Standard American English, Wilson (1993) pointed out that these words are interchangeable when they introduce a hypothetical situation: suppose [supposing] I offer them money. In a more detailed way, Kahn and Ilson (1985), in their book The Right Word at the Right Time, describe it quiet clearly – both suppose and supposing can be used to express a theoretical or possible event: Suppose/supposing he doesn’t turn up? Suppose/Supposing somebody finds out! They can also be used to make a suggestion: Suppose/Supposing we offer him a better price? Some people consider supposing to be a little more casual than suppose in such sentences, and so it should be avoided in formal speech or writing. However, supposing is the correct, and only possible, form to use when the meaning is assuming, rather than what if?: Even supposing he were invited, he might decide not to turn up. We’ll talk to her at the meeting tomorrow, always supposing she turns up (Kahn & Ilson, 1985, p. 615).

We hold that strictly speaking, the structure introduced by supposing is only a participial phrase, a fragment, but it functions like a sentence, so it is more casual. But the key point for the usage difference is the potential meaning, and also the context! Sentences introduced by suppose are imperative sentences in form, with different meanings, as we explained before.

However, the potential meaning can be changed subtly because of their collocations. As Bolinger (1997) explains, "Sentences like these can be interpreted more and more in the direction of command, as in the following gradient":

Suppose you go in while I wait out here.
Suppose you take care of it. Right now.
Suppose you go in and ask him, will you?
Now suppose you just let me be the judge of that, please? (Bolinger, 1997, pp. 177-178).

It is understood that suppose is generally not used in the progressive tense. Bullon (2000) has a note for suppose: [not is a progressive] to think that something is probably true, based on what you know. We
hold, however, that this note is a little bit too absolute. Occasionally *suppose* can be used in progressive. Leech (1978) explained, “Verbs in Class F are also occasionally found with the Progressive form: ‘I’m thinking about what you said. Surely you’re imagining things. *I’m supposing, for the purposes of this argument, that your intentions are unknown*’” (Leech, 1978, p. 24). Here, “Verbs in Class F” refer to Verbs of Inert cognition. In the third sentence, *I’m supposing that...* means “I am making the temporary mental activity”. So when *suppose* is used in a progressive, there is also a pragmatic meaning in it.

**The Discourse Marker *I Suppose***

*I suppose* is, of course, related with *suppose* in meaning, but it is not the simple result of *I* plus *suppose*. It should be regarded as a whole. Wierzbicka (1987) pointed out, “Saying *I suppose* is similar to saying *I think...*, or *I reckon...*” The Speaker is expressing his thought without claiming for it any objective validity. *Suppose* is more tentative than the other two, as can be seen from the fact that *I suppose* – unlike *I think* or *I reckon* – is often used in questions.

I suppose you’ll be leaving soon?
? I think you’ll be leaving soon?
? I reckon you’ll be leaving soon?

The potential reason for their syntactic difference is that it is *suppose*, not *think* or *reckon*, that contains the pragmatic meaning: I don’t know if it is true. We hold that, here, the syntactical forms may reflect their semantic meanings.

But there are differences in other aspects including styles. The British have retained an old usage of *reckon* in the sense of ‘think’ or ‘suppose’ in serious discourse, whereas that usage in America is old-fashioned or rural, a comic marker of ‘hick’ talk (Bauer & Trudgill, 1998, p. 180).

While writing about the discourse markers, Schifrin (1987) did not discuss the phrase *I suppose*, though it satisfies the requirement of the definition of the discourse marker. Benveniste (1977) pointed out that in *I suppose* and *I presume* there is an indication of attitude, not a description of an operation. By including *I suppose* and *I presume* in my discourse, I imply that I am taking a certain attitude with regard to the utterance that follows...

Another phenomenon, as pointed out by Wierzbicka (2006), is that *I suppose* tends to co-occur with various hesitation markers, such as *well, really, mm*, or what is transcribed in *Cobuild* as *er* or *erm*:

Mm. I suppose
Well I don’t really, I suppose.
Er, well it’s all right I suppose.
Well, I suppose I’ve known him all my life really.

Meanwhile, just because of the internal characteristics of *I suppose*, it is usually used with approximative expression and structures indicating tentative provisional conclusion. Wierzbicka (2006) lists an extreme sample:

Well I suppose, you know, you could just show your face, couldn’t you?

There are three discourse makers inducing *well, I suppose, and you know* in this sentence. The function of *well* can be divided into two main categories text level and interpersonal level. On the textual level, *well* is used as a transition marker to signal topic shift and assist in turn taking. On the interpersonal level, *well*
functions as a politeness marker, to mitigate the potential threat to the hearer in situations of conflict or disagreement (Guoliang, 2008). Therefore, the function of well here depends on the content. The tag question, the use of the phrase you know to appeal for the addressee’s conversational cooperation, and the use of the modal could all highlight the speaker’s hesitation, lack of knowledge, a current thinking process, and a tentative provisional conclusion. All of these features are highly consistent with the components proposed here: “I think this now,” “I don’t know,” and “I’m thinking about it now” (Wierzbicka, 2006).

The Transition of Negation

For the transition of negation of the verb suppose, there are different explanations among linguists. Sinclair (1992) notes, “Instead of saying that you suppose something is not the case, you usually say that you don’t suppose that it is the case – I don’t suppose you would be prepared to stay in Edinburgh?

In terms of semantics, the meaning before and after the negation is equal to each other. As Greenbaum, Leech, Svartvik, and Quirk (1985) explain: I don’t suppose he’s serious is equivalent to I suppose he isn’t serious.

It is worth paying attention to the word “usually” in Sinclair’s statement. However, there are some other linguists who regard those whose negations have not been transferred as incorrect. See the examples given in the Longman Dictionary of Common Errors (Turton & Heaton, 1996):

It is a very unusual coat so I suppose you will not have any trouble finding it.

It is a very unusual coat so I don’t suppose you will have any trouble finding it.

The linguistic investigation tells us that though in sentences where suppose is used as a main verb, the negation transition is the general form, yet still occasionally, we will find cases without transitions. Please see the sample in BNC corpus:

If you had asked him, I supposed that he would not have been able to give a very convincing answer as to why he was walking, or looking, or watching in such an apparently random and obsessive fashion.

Ready to catch him should he fall.

It is important, however, for people, as non-native speakers, to remember and follow the rule of the commonly used transferred negation. Also, it is worth mentioning what Greenbaum, et al. (1985) said, “With verbs taking transferred negation (e.g.: think, suppose), the use of not as a clause substitute is rather formal, and is often replaced by the use of so, proceeded by negation in the main clause: I don’t suppose so (I suppose not) (p. 881).

There are some points that sometimes will make many non-native speakers confused. Please see an explanation given in Macmillan English Dictionary for Advanced Learners (Rundell, 2002): I don’t suppose spoken, 1. used as a polite way of making a request or asking a question, when you are not sure you will get a positive answer: I don’t suppose you’d be willing to take me to the airport? Swan (2005) points out that in informal speech, expressions like I don’t think or I don’t suppose are often added after negative statements. In this case, the extra negative makes no difference to the meaning of the statement:

She hasn’t got much chance of passing the exams, I don’t think.

We won’t be back before midnight, I don’t suppose.

Only when you understand the above-mentioned explanation can you avoid making mistakes in the related translation.
Background and Features of Related Structures

*Be supposed to* is the most commonly used structure of *suppose*. Brockman (1968) points out in *A Practical English Grammar*: “BE SUPPOSED TO. This idiom expresses a mild compulsion or obligation, similar in meaning to *ought to* and *must*, but not as strong.” *A meal is supposed to start with soup, not dessert.* Here, however, it only indicates the meaning and the comparative strength, without pointing out the pragmatic occasions.

It might be helpful to see what *Langman Exams Dictionary* (Bullon, 2006) describes for *be supposed to*: “a) used to say what someone should or should not do, especially because of rules or what someone in authority has said; b) used to say what was or is expected or intended to happen, especially when it did not happen c) used to say that something is believed to be true by many people, although it might not be true or you might disagree.” However, the *be supposed to* structure, when the infinitive is in perfect form sometimes might not express the ideas of responsibility. Thomson and Martinet (1986) described, “*They are supposed to have discovered America* means it is thought that they did. But *You are supposed to have finished by now* would normally mean ‘You should have finished’”. From this, we can see quite clearly that form, meaning and function are closely related to one another.

Meanwhile, the transformation of the structure *be supposed to* from the passive to active is limited. Christophesen and Sandved (1969) stated, “Compare the perfectly normal construction *We are supposed to be back before dark*, to which there is no equivalent active form: *Somebody supposes us to be back before bark.*

But with a different meaning (= ‘assuming’) *suppose* is possible in both active and passive constructions:

People generally suppose this to be true.

This is generally supposed to be true.

The Potential Meaning of *Supposedly*

There are some people who make mistakes in the use of *supposedly*, especially those who are not English native speakers. Many linguists keep warning people not to confuse between *supposedly* and *presumably*. *The Usage and Abusage* (Whitcut, 1999) states, “*Supposedly*, misused for *presumably*. ‘X is supposedly the guilty party’ should be ‘X is presumably the guilty party.’” Clark (1987) also points out, “*Supposedly* should not be misused for *presumably*, e.g. “Fred was supposedly to blame”, *presumably* is presumably intended.” The key point for learners to understand is that there are some similar, yet different, meanings between the two words. See the Evans’ (1957) explanation. *Supposedly* and *presumably* carry different meanings. *Supposedly* means assumed as true, yet perhaps erroneously so (*he is supposedly in London, but then you know how unreliable these rumors are*). *Presumably* means probably, capable of being taken for granted (*Presumably he knows what he’s talking about. He’s regarded as the best guide in these parts*) (Evans & Evans, 1957). Wierzbicka (2008) gives an excellent explanation of the differences mentioned above: “As all these skeptical devices indicate, the epistemic adverb *supposed* is not a relater to the verbal phrase *I suppose* as closely as *presumably* is related to *I presume.*

Implications and Conclusion

To sum up, the speech act verb *suppose* has various characteristics and features whose syntactic forms are closely related to their potential meanings, which are also reflected in their pragmatic uses. This is only one of the typical cases of speech act verbs. Therefore, teaching and learning speech act verbs is quite a
complicated process and whose methodology needs to be taken into careful consideration. A multidimensional study is badly needed indeed! While studying speech act verbs, students are strongly encouraged to consult more English-English dictionaries and some usage books as well.

References
A Diversified Study on ESP Teaching Based on Need Analysis

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[Abstract] ESP teaching should be constantly improved in terms of the need for specific talents, which will be targeted from the improvement of students’ vocational skills, and may be taken as the bridge that may lead students to success in the job market with the guidance of the textbook. To achieve the goal of teaching students that have specific gifts with the help of ICT, and to combine classroom teaching and autonomous studying after class will promote the establishment of effective ESP teaching modes and train students to meet the demands for special vocational skills.

[Keywords] vocational demands; workplace; classroom teaching; diversified ESP teaching

Introduction
ESP is the short term of English for Special Purpose. It refers to English which is related to some specific occupations or subjects, a course designed on the basis of learners’ specific objective and professional needs (Hutchinson, 1987). ESP study in western countries started in the 1960s, while in China it started in the 1980s. Cai (2013) pointed out in his paper that in order to transform basic English to ESP teaching, we can help students meet the demands of enterprises to become qualified talents. Guangyu Li, the director of the Henan branch middle school attached to Beijing University emphasizes it as well. He said that talent cultivation should be consistent with the needs of enterprises and societies.

Need Analysis of ESP
ESP is an instrumental English course oriented from the marketplace, based on core needs; it is not a required course for all students of different majors. The design of ESP courses should be based on market demands, otherwise it will waste the teaching resources if we started ESP courses without an objective, only to chase an academic trend that does not benefit learners for skills training (Cai, & Chen, 2013). Consequently, the study group conducted a survey, at first, on the demand of English for the hospitality industry. Twenty-three (23) managers and 41 employees in ten starred hotels were surveyed by means of a questionnaire in person and over the internet. The findings were as follows:

The majority of managers insisted that they would be apt to enroll applicants with a good command of English because almost all the HR managers have to be skilled at English. They hold the idea that excellent English skills will give applicants a great chance at job hunting and possibly be well paid. Most of the applicants with high English proficiency will be assigned a position in the reception department or be appointed as a secretary.

Most of the employees in hospitality industry accept that they should improve their listening and speaking abilities, as well as their reading and writing skills. If they can not express themselves in English accurately, it will be very difficult for them to communicate with foreign customers and sometimes they might be confused with formal and informal expressions in different contexts. Even worse, they might be laughed at or put in embarrassing situations. Therefore, to communicate with foreign customers in fluent
English seemed to be extremely important, because satisfactory communication will delight the customers and correspondingly benefit the development of the hotels.

The study group searched for a large amount of recruitment information about the hospitality industry, and summarized the requirements for 7 positions in 3 five-star hotels as follows:

Table 1. Requirements of English Proficiency for Management Positions in Hotels

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Names</th>
<th>Shangrila Hotel in Changchun</th>
<th>Sheraton Changchun Jingyuetan Hotel</th>
<th>New Century Grand Hotel in Changchun</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Waiters in the fitness center</td>
<td>Have a good command of English</td>
<td>No requirement</td>
<td>No requirement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cashier in the dining hall</td>
<td>Be skilled at the language, and able to communicate with customers in at least one foreign language</td>
<td>Be able to use daily English to communicate</td>
<td>No requirement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Waiters in the dining hall</td>
<td>Speak English fluently</td>
<td>Speak English fluently</td>
<td>Learn about simple daily English about Western cuisine and greetings in serving</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Front office Manager</td>
<td>Be fluent in English speaking and writing</td>
<td>Be fluent in English speaking and writing</td>
<td>Be good at listening, speaking, reading and writing in English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marketer</td>
<td>No requirement</td>
<td>No requirement</td>
<td>Have a background of English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Director of Catering</td>
<td>Be fluent in both Chinese and English speaking and writing</td>
<td>Have a good command of English and a communication ability</td>
<td>Have a given command of English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manager of HR</td>
<td>Speak and write English fluently</td>
<td>Be good at English speaking and translating</td>
<td>No requirement</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The survey revealed that not all the positions in hotels require the applicants to have a good command of English. The requirements about English of the applicants vary in the different positions and also in the different hotels. The high-star level hotels require the applicants to have a higher level of English proficiency. In total, English listening and speaking ability outweighs reading and writing ability in the hospitality industry, and most of the positions need applicants who can speak English fluently.

**Evaluation of the ESP Textbook based on Vocational Need**

The ESP textbook should be evaluated on the basis of vocational need, and focused on topics and appropriate functions related to practical work, which will become the standard for textbook selection (Wang, 2011). The key factor to determine whether ESP teaching will be a success is the consistency of the contents of the textbook and occupational need. Take hospitality English for example. The topics dealt with in the textbook should involve geography, history, time, weather, eating, sports and so on, and at the same time, the language points practiced in class should have the function of training learners to excel in communicating socially and vocationally (See Table 2).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language Topics</th>
<th>Functions of Hospitality English.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Geography</td>
<td>Locations, attractions and distance,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>History</td>
<td>Historical figures, historical sites, historical events and traditional customs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time</td>
<td>Descriptions of present, past, and future events and the time span</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weather</td>
<td>Seasons, temperature, and extreme weather</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eating</td>
<td>Specialties of local restaurants and the menus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sports</td>
<td>Local sports teams, stadiums and entertainment activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Music</td>
<td>Local musical bands and traditional instruments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Customs</td>
<td>Holidays and religious activities</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 2. Language Topics and Functions of Hospitality English.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language Functions</th>
<th>Social Communication</th>
<th>Vocational Communication</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Greet and say good-bye</td>
<td>Ask for information and make reservation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introduce oneself and others</td>
<td>Describe time, people, place precisely and change currency</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Begin and end conversations</td>
<td>Inquire customers politely of health, likes and dislikes</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ask for repetition and clarification</td>
<td>Make apologies appropriately and respond complaints</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Check comprehension</td>
<td>Express regret and sympathy and make objections</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Change the topics</td>
<td>Deliver invitations and give recommendations</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interrupt appropriately</td>
<td>Create invoices, faxes, memos, and letters</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The study group conducted research on current hospitality English textbooks, and found that most of them featured the related conversations about hospitality industry, and the teaching mode is similar to traditional English teaching in vocational schools. On the present situation, ESP classroom teaching about hospitality should not be restricted to the practice of textbook contents. Instead, some supplements should be added due to the inadequacy of the textbook. The English textbook on hospitality should be revised to include task-based practice activities based on specific authentic text its practicability. Authenticity is the soul of ESP teaching (Liu, 2013). Relying on authentic language materials and behaviors in the workplace, ESP teaching should be diversified with the help of informational technology; only then can a bridge be created between the ESP classroom and the workplace.

### Diversified ESP Teaching Based on Need Analysis

As with any other course, ESP is characteristic of its specific text. In the process of designing ESP classroom teaching activities, the learners’ English backgrounds and related academic knowledge should be taken into careful consideration (Bojovic, 2006). The design has to be established on the basis of need analysis, differing in teaching modes and strategies for students on various levels. Diversified ESP teaching will be achieved with the aid of internet and multi-media facilities.

### Objective-Driven Teaching Centered Around the Textbook

The textbook is the core of all the teaching activities, and a scientific one will enable teaching activities to maximize their efficiency. Foreign language textbooks are required to be characterized by communicativeness and authenticity, have to have a long-term target and center on students. However, the present ESP textbooks in China need to be improved, as well as those in English speaking countries where only Business English textbooks are quite qualified (Cai, 2013). Consequently, ESP textbooks should be the blueprint of ESP classroom teaching, and some appropriate specific topics and language functions should be practiced to meet the needs of corresponding occupations. Thus, learners can combine knowledge
learning with skill practice perfectly, which ensures that they can comprehend what they learned well through diversified class room practice, and achieve improvement in ESP learning. That is to say, a virtual vocational environment should be created in the classroom to help learners have more opportunities to practice. All kinds of language learning have the feature of acquisition, as well as ESP, the specific English emphasizing listening and speaking abilities. For instance, Hospitality English should be picked up by learners in the way of repeating some practice situations and its essence will be acquired unconsciously, then meeting the standards for the specific industry. These teaching situations will increase the explicitness, dynamics and enlightenment, therefore motivating students to study enthusiastically and become genuinely involved in the teaching practices. Creating a warm vocational atmosphere for students will promote their awareness in the profession, and inform them with newly-happening affairs in the hospitality industry to satisfy the needs and provide clarification of their learning objective.

**Task-Based Teaching Aimed at the Improvement of Skills**

Task-based teaching focuses on learners’ basic psychological needs, translates them into a process to meet personal needs, underlying the emotional function of teaching in terms of the teaching objectives, and pursuing a balance of learners’ cognition and the aim to be skilled at a specific field. Task-based teaching is of great help to motivate learners to study (Candlin, 1987). In the course of fulfilling the task, the combination of knowledge about the language and language skills will benefit the students when they are trying to use ESP in a given industry. Task-based teaching largely involves team work activities, and everyone has his own task to fulfill. The content of activities extends to different professions, which will make inform learners and expose them to a large amount of knowledge. In addition, learners will improve in communication, critical thinking, and determination, etc. Task-based teaching aimed at learners’ skill improvement needs standards for both EGP and ESP, established on the basis of vocational demands and and the series of work related to specific positions. Every task consists of several mini-tasks that may form a chain of tasks. The final aim of the tasks is to make learners improve in practice of specific English. The tasks can be easy at first and gradually become more difficult, forming a pattern that may push the teaching task more and more profoundly.

**Blended Teaching by Means of Motivating Autonomous Learning**

The interest and need for learning is the core of the different modes of teaching, which illustrates the truth that external factors may not work until the internal factors work well. An excellent teacher should be skilled at teaching, as well as motivating learners to study autonomously. Blended teaching is superior to any others means because it enables learners to cultivate the habit of autonomous learning through different ways, methods and in different environments. The impetus of autonomous learning derives from the desire for survival and development in the workplace.

Blended teaching is the combination of on-line learning and classroom learning, and it is the trend of higher education development. Domestic and overseas scholars have done a lot research into blended teaching. Margaret Driscoll (2002) pointed that blended teaching means mixing different internet technologies to achieve teaching objectives, to mix different teaching methods to gain the highest efficiency of learning, and to mix any kind of teaching technics (video, CD-ROM, net training and film) to launch the face-to-face training, and to mix the teaching technics and practical work to make learning consistent with the work. Blended teaching will achieve what both a single classroom teaching and net-based teaching fail to gain. It will help learners realize the goal of learning autonomously coupled with cooperative learning.
with their peers. The key content of blended teaching refers to all kinds of teaching methods, teaching modes, teaching mediums and teaching environments, and the on-line learning environment should also be integrated with face-to-face classroom teaching. It emphasizes the mixture of the student-centered concept and teacher-facilitated notion, attaching importance to constructionism, behaviorism, functionalism and so on (Driscoll, 2002). By adopting blended teaching, teachers can provide learners with learning resources in different levels, and at the same time, learners can select materials according to their own English background and individualized objectives.

**Flipped Classroom Teaching Directed by Vocational Needs**

With the development of economic globalization, all industries need more and more talent who are skilled at foreign language and good at academic knowledge. In particular, the hospitality industry requires the employees to have a good command of English and communicate with the customers fluently. For the sake of such kind of vocational need, ESP teaching seems to be rather important. The limited time of classroom learning will definitely not ensure that a learner can achieve the related language skills (Zhang, 2012). Therefore, the application of flipped classroom teaching will offer learners more opportunities to practice English, which will then transfer the teacher-centered knowledge transmission class into a student-centered skill practice class. Under such teaching, learning efficiency will surely be increased.

In terms of ESP teaching, a flipped classroom means that teachers make the PowerPoint teaching materials in advance, and upload them to the internet by means of a mini-class or MOOC to provide the learners with resources to learn before class. Learners should be required to finish the task in time. They may watch a video clip or complete on-line learning, and then focus on language practice in the classroom. The switch of the teachers’ knowledge transmission in class and the learner’s assignment completion after class provides the students a lot more time to learn autonomously for their own specific objective. They will have more time to practice their language skills, which conforms to the nature of language learning, and therefore, is an effective way of English learning.

**Conclusion**

ESP teaching is the extension of a broad education, and it is a significant part of English teaching based on the learners’ English backgrounds, aimed at to taking a further step in training them to be qualified in the workplace. Teaching materials should be closely related to the industry that the learners will work in. The teaching focus has been the practical use of some language and its functions. On these occasions, the ESP textbooks need to be developed profoundly, and it is a fundamental factor that a specific textbook should be selected to make ESP teaching more effective and meet the future needs of the learners. Meanwhile, in the process of classroom teaching, some materials, helpful for learners to improve their practical skills, should be supplied by means of information technology which will provide both the teachers and learners with the latest information on the development of a specific industry.

**Acknowledgement**

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A Study on the Application of Politeness Strategies in English Business Letters

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Abstract English Business letters play a significant role in business activities. The significance of English business letters is determinative to the application of politeness strategies; namely what language forms are used to present the politeness of the English business letters. By taking English business letters as the foundation, Leech’s Politeness Principle, and Brown and Levinson’s Face-saving Theory as a theoretical foundation, this thesis studies the application of politeness strategies to good-news English business letters, bad-news English business letters, and persuasive English business letters aiming at exploring the application of politeness strategies in the three types of English business letters and, also, the politeness theory reflected in the politeness strategies, to make the business communication more effective.

Keywords Politeness Principle; English business letter; Politeness Strategy

Introduction
English business letters, as one of the significant means of business communication, attract the wide attention of the people who are interested and work in business. The studies on the politeness in business correspondence are plentiful, and the achievements are theoretically and practically significant, as in the following: Pilegaard’s “Politeness in Written Business Discourse: A Textlinguistic Perspective on Requests” (1997), which examines the politeness principles and the practices strategies in business communication. Yin Xiaofang’s “The Application of Pragmatic Politeness Principles in Business English” (2001) analyzes the application of politeness strategies in English business letters. Zheng Wei and Wang Wenge’s “Politeness and its Representation in Business English Communication” (2002) introduces the presentation of politeness in business communication. Si Fucheng’s “On the Politeness Principle for Writing Business Letters in English’ (2003) studies the presentation of politeness in English business letters from respective perspective.

The application of politeness strategy in English business letters is selected as the focus of the present study. Therefore, it is significant to explore how different categories of politeness strategies are applied in English business letters, how specific strategies weigh in different types of business letters, and what are the distribution characteristics.

Literature Review
Lakoff (1973) considers politeness as a way to relieve or keep away from friction in interpersonal communication. She also brings up three maxims of politeness from the perspective of the speaker: (1) Don’t impose: Used when formal/impersonal politeness is required; (2) Give options: Used when informal politeness is required; (3) Make H feel good: Used when intimate politeness is required (Lakoff, 1973, quoted in Fraser, 1990, p. 224). She later reformulates the rules of politeness as follows: (1) Formality: keep aloof; (2) Deference: give options; (3) Camaraderie: show sympathy (Lakoff 1973, p. 65).

Lakoff’s rules of politeness are a great progress in politeness research. In other words, she enlarges the range of this research. However, politeness phenomena can hardly be explained and defined by some
arbitrary rules as Lakoff has proposed. Furthermore, she is not able to define the terms she uses to program the rules. Lakoff’s view of politeness is inconsistent with the politeness concerns in bad-news business letters in which the fundamental demand of being polite surpasses the need of clarity.

Leech’s Politeness Principle can be proposed as follows: other things being equal, minimize the expression of beliefs that are disadvantageous to the hearer, and, at the same time (less important), maximize the expression of beliefs that are beneficial to the hearer. Modeling himself after Grice’s Cooperative Principle, Leech (1983, p. 132) sums up six maxims of the Politeness Principle: Tact, Generosity, Approbation, Modesty, Agreement, and Sympathy.

In terms of Leech (1983), the Tact maxim plays the dominant role in English speaking countries. Since the primary language used in international business correspondence is English, the Tact maxim is, thus, of special significance. In conflict situations, the function of the Tact maxim is a negative one: it is a means of keeping away from conflict. The action of this maxim is to lead us to suppress, to play down, and to limit beliefs that are valuable to the reader or hearer (Leech, 1983, p. 104).

Brown and Levinson (1987) define face as “something that is emotionally invested, and that can be lost, maintained, or enhanced, and must be constantly attended to in interaction” and “the self-image that every member wants to claim for himself.” Face can be further classified as negative face and positive face. Negative face refers to our right to independence of action and our desire not to be imposed on by others. Positive face refers to our need to be accepted and liked by others and our demand to feel that our social group shares common goals (Brown & Levinson, 1987). In their opinion, the content of face will be various in different cultures, and they grant that the mutual knowledge of members’ public self-image, or face, and the social necessity to orient oneself to it in interaction, are universal.

Application of Politeness Strategies in English Business Letters

Using You Language
According to Leech’s Tact maxim, the benefit should be maximized to readers. Focusing on reader benefit shows that the writer has considered the situation from the reader’s point of view. That is a state of mind in which the benefits to the reader are emphasized and the reader’s interests are satisfied. When the speech act is favorable to others, the more direct and personal it is, the more polite and suitable it will be. Therefore, in good-news business letters, if you-attitude language is directly used, a better response will be obtained from the reader. Meanwhile, Brown and Levinson propose that hearer’s positive face should be satisfied in the Face Theory. Reader’s benefit tells the reader how he/she will be positively affected (financially, emotionally, psychologically, physically, and spiritually) by doing business with his/her partners. Thus, the reader’s positive face can be satisfied by applying a you-attitude.

Using Positive Verbs
Positive verbs allow readers to visualize the action in a sentence more readily than do passive verbs. Comparatively speaking, active verbs are more emphatic than passive verbs. When the message to be conveyed is an advantage, people are inclined to prefer sentences in which the verbs perform the action (active verbs) to sentences in which the verbs are influenced by the action (passive verbs). For instance:

① I’m glad to accept the invitation.
② Your invitation is accepted.
By comparison, the former sentence is more emphatic in conveying the good message of acceptance, while the latter one is more impersonal. Therefore, according to maximizing the favorable beliefs, the former sentence conveys more politeness than the latter one.

**Using Concrete Words**

When expressing and emphasizing an idea, concrete words are often used, for concrete words will convey clearer meaning. The usage of concrete words in good-news English business letters can make the reader understand exactly what is meant. Let’s compare the following two sentences:

① I would like to extend my warmest congratulations on your recent promotion.

② I would like to extend my warmest congratulations on your promotion to Chief Executive Officer.

These two sentences appear in a letter of congratulations. By comparison, sentence ① is too general and abstract to be effective to enhance the reader’s positive face by using the abstract word “promotion”. Additionally, guided by Leech’s Approbation maxim, we should try our best to maximize praise of others. Sentence ②, on the other hand, is by far more effective and tactful in terms of face-enhancing force and maximizes praise of the addressee. The words “Chief Executive Officer” are more concrete and directly express congratulations and compliments. This sentence heightens the reader’s positive face in a way that the reader knows that he or she is liked and appreciated by being complimented and congratulated on his or her recent promotion to the post of a manager.

**Using Shorter Sentences for Ideas to Be Emphasized**

When a message is favorable to the reader, it should be conveyed in a direct and forceful way. The best way to emphasize an idea is to put it in an independent clause, i.e., in a simple sentence instead of in a compound or complex sentence. Presented in an independent sentence, no other ideas will compete with the major idea for attention. In this way, the directness is achieved and at the same time, the positive politeness strategy comes to its own. For instance:

① You are the winner of our grand prize.

② We would like to inform you that you have won our grand prize.

The former sentence is direct and forceful in conveying the good news of grand prize winning in which the benefit on the part of the reader is maximized to the greatest degree. On the contrary, the latter one uses a complex sentence, which is less effective than the former one.

**Using Affirmative Sentences**

Affirmative sentences express friendlier and politer tones because they underline on positive and pleasant aspects. Therefore, they can make a reader react with pleasure to the message and then facilitate and accelerate the business communication. For example,

① Upon receipt of your relevant credit, we shall not fail to effect shipment on time.

② Upon receipt of your relevant credit, we shall effect shipment on time.

These two sentences appear in a letter of confirmation of an order. Sentence ① is a negative sentence, which gives a negative impression on the reader, though the meaning it expresses is a good message to the reader. The message is not directly conveyed; thus, it minimizes the benefit to the reader. On the contrary, sentence ② is an affirmative sentence, which puts emphasis on the positive, and the reader’s interest and want are attended. This sentence shows that the writer is ready to serve the reader,
which is more acceptable and unlikely to trigger resistance. Therefore, it is politer in terms of Leech’s Agreement maxim and Brown and Levinson’s positive politeness, in which the writer should look for agreement and evade disagreement.

Using Positive Words and Expressions
As a rule, people don’t like to be told “no” since the word “no” often causes an unpleasant emotional reaction. However, business writers must say “no” in refusal letters. How can they do so without triggering an unpleasant reaction? The fact is that anything that can be said inactively with words like “no”, “won’t”, “never”, and “cannot’ can also be said in a positive way. Let us contrast the following sentences in terms of politeness effect (Hatch, 1983, p. 105):

1. a. We can’t ship your order until August 10.
   b. We will be able to ship your order on August 10.

   Sentence ①b puts emphasis on the positive side of the situation by avoiding the statement that shows the writer’s inability to fulfill the order.

2. a. Under the circumstances, we can’t grant credit.
   b. Under the circumstances, we will be glad to re-examine your credit application in six months; perhaps at that time, your present situation will have changed, and we will be able to open an account for you.

   Sentence ②a is too harsh to be well-received by the reader. On the contrary, sentence ②b positively predicts a much more favorable future situation in which the reader’s request can be possibly granted.

   To sum up, it is quite apparent that sentence b of each group is more likely to be accepted by the reader owing to its positive tone. At least, they show the writer’s concern for the reader’s wants.

Using Passive Voice
The use of passive voice is to withhold a direct accusation or criticism, instead, to make a less informative but, undoubtedly, true assertion. The deliberate omission of the agent of the verb in the sentence of passive voice is motivated by politeness, too. In this way, there is a greater possibility to guess who is responsible for the deeds. People also use the passive voice to deliver unpleasant news or to avoid blaming someone directly for making a mistake. Because the passive voice focuses on the situation or event, not on the person(s) involved, the delivery of necessary unpleasant information will be less hurtful to the reader. For instance:

1. You fail to deliver the goods in time.
2. The goods have not been delivered in time.

   Obviously, sentence ② avoids a direct accusation on the reader, thus being politer and avoiding imposing on the reader’s positive face by omitting the agent of the verb.

Using Abstract Words
Using concrete words will transmit definite message, which threatens the reader’s positive face in bad-news business letters. On the other hand, abstract words are more difficult to envision, so the unpleasant meaning does not stand out directly. The use of abstract words is a means to attaining negative politeness. For instance:
① You have not paid for over 3 months.
② A payment has not been sent in over 3 months.

When “pay” is nominalized as “payment”, the mental image it creates in the reader is less vivid and forceful. Therefore, the statement sounds politer by showing deference to the reader.

Using Dependent Clauses and Complex Sentences
By putting the bad news in dependent clauses and complex sentences, the writer is able to attain indirectness and de-emphasis. The bad news is less likely to stand out strikingly, since other ideas may attract the reader’s attention. For instance:

① You ought to have shipped the goods.
② It seems to us that you ought to have shipped the goods.

Sentence ① is a direct accusation, which imposes too much in the reader’s negative face (to be left unimpeded). Comparatively speaking, Sentence ② is obviously more tactful and politer by de-emphasizing the demand in the latter part of a complex sentence.

A Study on Politeness Strategies in Persuasive English Business Letters
Persuasion is the art of influencing others to accept your view. Persuasive English business letters are letters that aim to convince the reader to do something not previously considered or something that might be inconvenient. The purpose of the persuasive English business letters is to promote a product, service, idea, issue, or change that the intended reader may be hesitant to accept or may know little about. Common types of persuasive business letters are sales letters, claim letters, collection letters, and application letters.

Using You-attitude Language
The you-attitude strategy is especially used to write persuasive English business letters. Persuasive English business letters are letters attempting to convince the reader to do something not previously considered or something that might be inconvenient. They should express consideration for “you” – the reader – by meeting the demands using the Politeness Principle. If the writer can anticipate the reader's expectations, attitudes, and needs, the business communication will be successful. Let’s look at an example:

But mortgages are obligations that have to be paid. Right now, you’re paying on yours, and you fully expect to continue to meet your payments. However, what would happen to your home- to your family-if you should suddenly be taken away?

This paragraph shows the edge of the mortgage, which is favorable to the reader. The you-attitude is applied by using the pronoun “you” or “your”, observing the Tact maxim and Brown and Levinson’s positive politeness of attending to the addressee’s needs and wants.

Using Modal Auxiliary
In persuasive business letters, the modal auxiliary especially “will”, is often used to arouse the reader’s interest. Let’s look at the previous example: It is likely you will need cash for clothing, fuel oil, taxes, car repairs, or emergencies. Perhaps you would like to reduce the payments on your car to have more of your income free for other things, with no payments to be made for thirty days.
The modal auxiliaries like “will” and “would”, followed by the convincing evidence of the service so that the reader will develop a deeper and more sustained interest. In the light of Brown and Levinson, to overstate the hearer’s benefit is one of the presentations of Positive Politeness Strategies.

**Using Concrete and Positive Words**
In order to attract the reader’s interest and inspire the customer’s desire, it is considered to display the central selling points and advantages of the products or services. It is a selling point that is the most attractive feature of a product or service; consumer benefits mean particular advantages that buyers will realize from those features.

Since the selling points and consumer benefits are beneficial, the more direct and vivid they are, the politer they are for the reader. To achieve the directness and vividness, concrete words are used to arouse the reader’s interest and show the writer’s courtesy. No matter in what kind of business letters, it is always the best choice to use positive words to convey the writer’s politeness, which fulfils the reader’s positive face and has also maximized the benefit of the reader.

**Using Factual Tone**
What the reader cares most about is the real advantage or value of the product or service. Hence, the fact should not be exaggerated. A truth needs no stretching. When using the factual tone to present something, the reader will feel he or she is respected and isn’t fooled. Thus, their negative face is not threatened. For example:

> Your rubber heels have taught you that rubber is resilient and comfortable. You also know that you feel safe with them as well. We combine those natural qualities of rubber with wear-resisting abrasive Norton Alundum for extra safety, adding an attractive color to get Orco Safety Flooring.

**Using Interrogative Sentences**
It is interrogative sentences that are often used in persuasive business letters. On one hand, it is used to arouse the reader’s attention by using interrogative sentences that can win a little interest with the reader at the start so that he or she will be able to read on; on the other hand, it is used to ask for the reader’s cooperation. When interrogative sentences are used, their function is always to propose a request. The last paragraph of the persuasive business letter will usually encourage an action of the reader. Because it is potentially a cost to the reader, it violates Leech’s Politeness Principle. However, the use of interrogative sentence as one of the negative politeness strategies mitigates the degree of imposition, and thus, deemphasizes the face threat to the reader.

**Conclusion**
Through the study of the application of politeness strategies in good-news, bad-news and persuasive English business letters, the following conclusions have been drawn: First, since different types of English business letters convey different meanings and have different goals; the way to write the letters and present politeness still varies. Second, in good-news English business letters, short sentences are preferred to make the good message directly known by the reader, while in bad-news business letters, the bad news is indirectly presented by being put into a complex sentence. Third, a comparison of the application of politeness strategies among the three types of English business letters is made and
something in common is found. Whatever the type of letter it is, positive words and expressions can always draw the reader’s positive response.

There are some limitations in this thesis, such as some unexplored aspects that present the politeness strategies and the insufficiency of the materials.

References
A Textuality-Oriented Teaching Study of College English Writing
– Based on “Pigai.org” Software

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[Abstract] Based on the seven standards of textuality advocated by de Beaugrande and Dressler, cohesion, coherence, intentionality, acceptability, informativity, situationality and intertextuality, this paper proposes a textuality-oriented teaching study of college English writing using pigai.org software. This study uses two classes of non-English majors as the subjects for 14 weeks: Class 1 was randomly assigned to the Experiment Group (EG) and Class 2 to the Control Group (CG). Collected data and interviews are analyzed through SPSS. It is concluded that textuality-oriented teaching can facilitate students’ writing.

[Keywords] textuality; standards of textuality; textuality-oriented teaching; college English writing

Introduction
English writing has the following functions as reinforcement, language development, learning style and most importantly, writing as a skill in its own right (Harmer, 2000). English writing is an indispensable part in college English teaching and learning. It measures not only one’s English competence related to grammar, vocabulary, and writing style, etc., but also the profound idea, cultural achievement, logical thought competence, and so on (Zhou, 2004). Writing is always evaluated by the end product – a passage or a text (Gao Fang, 2002). A text lies in the textuality which indicates the writing level of a student (Hu, 1994). And a text is formed by not only the single sentences in the text, but also other factors that make it a text. The most factors are contained in textuality or texture, which is the basic characteristic in encoding and decoding a text (Liu, 1999). It is well known that text structure or coherence is also one of the dimensions to evaluate English writing in CET 4, CET 6, postgraduate entrance exam and so on.

Textuality
Text linguistics is mainly concerned with the texture of a text, which is the way the different parts of a text are organized and interrelated. With the development of text linguistics, Halliday and Hasan (1976) demonstrated that texture refers to the property of “being a text”; “a text has texture, and this is what distinguishes it from something that is not a text”. De Beaugrande and Dressler (1981, p. 37) propose seven standards of textuality in the book Introduction to Text Linguistic: “The standards of textuality are relational in character, concerned with how occurrences are connected to others: via grammatical dependencies on the surface (cohesion); via conceptual dependencies in the textual world (coherence), via the attitudes of the participants toward the text (intentionality and acceptability); via the incorporation of the new and unexpected into the known and expected (informativity); via the setting (situationality); and via the mutual relevance of separate texts (intertextuality).” This complements the shortcomings of texture advanced by Halliday and Hasan in 1976. This paper proposes textuality-oriented teaching study in college English writing with the application of pigai.org software, which is convenient and widely used for many students and teachers in college English writing of China, although it has some limits.
A Survey on Textuality in College English Writing

This survey was carried out in the 1st semester of the 2014-2015 school year, and mainly divided into three stages: pre-test for the EG and CG; give EG textuality treatment for about 14 weeks, plus the writing training for EG and CG, and then compare them; interview EG students for their responses to textuality teaching study.

Methodology

Research objective. This study aims to examine the effects of teaching textuality in college writing and check the following questions:

- Does the intentional teaching of textuality help learners improve their writing?
- Will students with textuality training perform better than those without training?

Subjects. The subjects were 150 non-English freshmen from the School of Communications in our university. There were 80 students in Class 1, and 70 students in Class 2. Then students in Class 1 were randomly assigned to the Experiment Group (EG) and those in Class 2 became the Control Group (CG).

Treatment. The author taught the two classes but adopted different teaching methods for English writing. The study lasted for 14 weeks, except for the holiday, and every two weeks was a training period. Time for training was 70 minutes in the two weeks. There were seven periods in total. Students in the EG and CG were required to register on www.pigai.org to write a composition every two weeks. The writing materials centered on the theme studied from the textbook to test the written product on the basis of writing requirements in CET 4. They were designed following three principles: Being authentic: the materials were chosen from a real situation that students have met or will meet in the future; Focusing on meaning: the materials were mainly used to testify language production; Being interactive: the materials should be in accordance with communicating with others. The students wrote 7 compositions in total as follows, including No. 361225 as the pre-test and No. 415960 as the post-test.

| No. 361225 | Due Attention should be given to spelling. |
| No. 397800 | Opportunity and Success                      |
| No. 391279 | Should we help others in need?               |
| No. 382502 | A letter to my parents                       |
| No. 375084 | One teacher impressing me most                |
| No. 359140 | My comment on the Letters                    |
| No. 301225 | My Suggestions to Foreign Students on How to Learn Chinese |

Figure 1. Writing Task Assigned on www. pigai.org

So to the best of ability, the author makes the study as reliable and valid as possible. The experiment was made up of three parts: pre-test, post-test, and interview. The analysis of data included statistic analysis and descriptive analysis, and the statistic analysis used independent samples t-test and paired t-test in order to be more exact. The writing practices were under the requirements of CET 4. The author and three other experienced teachers aimed to be objective to evaluate the writing. The results were marked by the four of us, respectively, and an equal mark was determined.

The EG was presented the textuality-oriented treatment in three stages during the class. In the first stage, the EG was taught some knowledge of textuality by examples to understand the standards of textuality (10 min.). In the second stage, the teacher instilled the knowledge of textuality into the process of teaching, and some typical materials on textuality were analyzed in class and the supplementary materials were given to them as exercise (15 min.). The third stage was for guided writing and their
feedback (45 min.). The CG followed the traditional teaching method: finish a writing task (30 min.); analyze the grammar and words] errors (20 min.) and sample study (20 min.). Interviews were conducted with 10 advanced students and 10 lower level ones, and mainly dealt with the following questions:

- Was the teaching of textuality helpful to your writing? Was it helpful to your reading too?
- Did you try to apply them in your own writing? Tell the revision process.
- Of all the standards of textuality, which do you use most frequently? Why?

Instrument.

- Measurement for the pre-test and post-test. Based on de Beaugrande and Dressler, the author adopted the working standards of textuality of Cao Huoqun (2004). The assumption underlying this textuality assessed is that the value of each component of textuality is 10. The measuring criterion of every standard was established, and every standard was classified into 3 levels: 1-3; 4-6 and 7-9. One score was given according to the tidiness of the writing by the mark-giver.

### Table 1. Value of Each Component in Textuality

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Standards of Textuality</th>
<th>Full Value</th>
<th>Standards of Textuality</th>
<th>Full Value</th>
<th>Standards of Textuality</th>
<th>Full Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cohesion</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>Acceptability</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>Intertextuality</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coherence</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>Informativity</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intentionality</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>Situationality</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- Range finders. According to the writing evaluation of CET 4, every standard was classified into 3 levels: 1-3; 4-6; 7-9. Every category has the range finder, that is, every standard has 3 range finders. So there are 21 range finders for the seven standards of textuality. The author and the other three English teachers chose the 21 range finders identified to evaluate the writing.

### Data Analysis and Discussion

The pre-test on the EG and CG was carried out when the class began. After 14 weeks’ of textuality training for the EG, the post-test was conducted to examine the effectiveness of textuality training. Results of the interviews were discussed as well. All of the results were put into computers and analyzed by SPSS (Statistical Product and Service Solutions).

Pre-test

### Table 2. Group Statistics for EG & CG (Pre-test)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
<th>Textuality(%)</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>EG</td>
<td>35.567</td>
<td>4.747</td>
<td>.867</td>
<td>50.8%</td>
<td>.051</td>
<td>.959</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CG</td>
<td>35.633</td>
<td>5.308</td>
<td>.969</td>
<td>50.9%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It indicates that the mean of EG is 35.567 and the mean of CG is 35.633, which reflects that the two groups are almost at the same level in textuality. In terms of percentage, the means for the EG and CG are 50.8% and 50.9%, respectively. Moreover, the means and standard deviations of textuality are calculated for EG and CG respectively and the performances of the two groups are compared with the t-test. (The significance level predetermined for the study is 0.05). It can be seen that the significance probabilities of obtained two-tailed t values for textuality is 0.959, larger than 0.05. It shows that the two groups are almost at similar levels about textuality in their writing. They clearly do not know how to organize a text using textuality.
Scores for each standard of textuality are described in the following table:

Table 3. Standards of Textuality for EG & CG (Pre-test)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Standards of textuality</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>EG</td>
<td>CG</td>
<td>EG</td>
<td>CG</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cohesion</td>
<td>4.933</td>
<td>4.667</td>
<td>1.048</td>
<td>.758</td>
<td>.191</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coherence</td>
<td>4.567</td>
<td>4.633</td>
<td>1.040</td>
<td>.889</td>
<td>.189</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intentionality</td>
<td>5.433</td>
<td>5.467</td>
<td>1.040</td>
<td>.629</td>
<td>.189</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acceptability</td>
<td>5.100</td>
<td>5.067</td>
<td>1.042</td>
<td>.828</td>
<td>.175</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Informativity</td>
<td>5.067</td>
<td>5.133</td>
<td>1.042</td>
<td>.899</td>
<td>.151</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Situationality</td>
<td>5.500</td>
<td>5.533</td>
<td>1.042</td>
<td>.959</td>
<td>.151</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intertextuality</td>
<td>5.033</td>
<td>5.067</td>
<td>1.042</td>
<td>.615</td>
<td>.112</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above table shows the two groups are almost at a similar level on the standards of textuality in their writing. The values of cohesion for the EG and CG are 4.933 and 4.667, respectively. It indicates that students are not good at using textual cohesive devices. They also lack intertextuality knowledge because the aspect for the EG and CG is 5.033 and 5.067, respectively. So it is necessary to introduce genre knowledge in English teaching. The scores of informativity for the EG and CG are 5.067 and 5.133, which shows students’ compositions are poor in informativity. Therefore, it is difficult to arouse the receivers’ interests and motivation. Acceptability is 5.100 and 5.067 for the EG and CG, which is caused by the degree of coherence in their compositions and what the students write may be irrelevant to the given topic. Scores of intentionality for EG and CG are 5.433 and 5.467. The value for situationality is 5.500 in the EG and the CG is 5.533. Intentionality and situationality are comparatively a little higher because the composition is guided writing, and the given topic tells the students what they have to write about and sets up clear situations.

It shows both the mean and standard deviations of EG and CG are at similar levels. Furthermore, the seven aspects in measurement of standards were respectively analyzed through the independent t-test. As a result, the probability level of the obtained two-tailed t values in each of the seven aspects were all much larger than 0.05; they are .264, .791, .881, .886, .785, .869, and .830. Therefore, the results fail to indicate a significant difference between the EG and CG. A conclusion can be drawn that the two groups do not differ significantly in their writing in the pre-test, thus they are comparably at the same level to start with in terms of textuality.

Comparisons of the EG & CG after the post-test. Has the treatment for the EG improved writing, and furthermore, has it helped them correct their textual failures? A post-test on Due Attention Should Be Given to Spelling is designed both for EG and CG.

Table 4. Group Statistics for EG & CG (Post-test)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
<th>Textuality (%)</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>EG</td>
<td>45.433</td>
<td>3.848</td>
<td>.703</td>
<td>60.1%</td>
<td>3.767</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CG</td>
<td>35.033</td>
<td>3.296</td>
<td>.602</td>
<td>50.04%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4 shows the differences for the two groups in the post-test and the EG has made great progress in the textuality of writing. The mean is 45.433 compared with 35.033 of the CG. In terms of percentage, it is 60.1% to 50.04%. Furthermore, it can be seen that the significance probabilities of obtained two-tailed t value for textuality is 0.001, below 0.05, showing a significant difference between the two groups after the post-test.
In the post-test, the EG, in comparison with the CG, made progress in terms of textuality. The scores of the EG and CG were analyzed in the t-test to further examine.

Table 5. Standards of Textuality for EG & CG (Post-test)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Standards of Textuality</th>
<th>Mean EG</th>
<th>Std. Deviation EG</th>
<th>Mean CG</th>
<th>Std. Deviation CG</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cohesion</td>
<td>5.567</td>
<td>.774</td>
<td>4.733</td>
<td>.638</td>
<td>4.781</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coherence</td>
<td>5.4467</td>
<td>.681</td>
<td>4.700</td>
<td>.596</td>
<td>4.888</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intentionality</td>
<td>5.500</td>
<td>.777</td>
<td>5.233</td>
<td>.626</td>
<td>1.464</td>
<td>.149</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acceptability</td>
<td>5.400</td>
<td>.770</td>
<td>5.000</td>
<td>.743</td>
<td>2.048</td>
<td>.045</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Informativity</td>
<td>5.433</td>
<td>.728</td>
<td>5.200</td>
<td>.761</td>
<td>2.563</td>
<td>.013</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Situationality</td>
<td>5.600</td>
<td>.563</td>
<td>5.233</td>
<td>.568</td>
<td>2.510</td>
<td>.015</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intertextuality</td>
<td>5.500</td>
<td>.572</td>
<td>5.033</td>
<td>.414</td>
<td>3.619</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The significance probabilities of obtained two-tailed t values for cohesion, coherence, acceptability, informativity, situationality, and intertextuality are .000, .000, .045, .013, and .015, all below 0.05, which shows a significant difference between the two groups after the post-test. However, intentionality is 0.149, higher than 0.05, which proves the two groups do not have a great difference in this aspect, for writers have clear intentions and they know what they write about. The study shows teaching about standards of textuality can help improve students’ writing and students receiving textuality training can perform better than those without the treatment.

Discussions of Interview

In the interviews, all the students thought the teaching of standards of textuality to be very necessary and helpful for their writing and reading, for textuality teaching can provide them with a new way to read and write. To the second question, about 70% of the students intentionally applied the standards of textuality in their writing since all of them agreed their writing was short of textuality compared with good writing. About 75% of the students felt the treatment could help them revise and find other problems in their writing, such as content, vocabulary and grammar. In the process of writing, about 40% of the students like to put the new words into practice at the sentence level or apply them in their own writing. More than 70% of the students think they use cohesion and coherence in their writing often, which they feel are basic to good writing.

Conclusion

This study is inspiring and constructive in college English teaching, but still there are some limitations in the research. Due to time limits, more analyses, such as regression analysis, are not involved in the present study. The teaching experiment was implemented only in two classes, so the collected data and the analysis are not overall representatives of Chinese students. In addition, the study only examined one type of writing, argumentative writing, and each paper was restricted to about 120 words. All the limitations made it difficult to fulfill a perfect study on students’ writing in textuality. So the weak points of this thesis should try to be improved in future study.

The analysis results presented here give only a partial account of teaching textuality knowledge in college English writing. Therefore, further research can be performed in this aspect. There is still a long way to go for teachers to improve students’ textuality in English writing. The author hopes that the thesis will arouse the interests of more English teachers in this field and stimulate them to do more research.
References

Appendix
Due to limited thesis space, the following data is not attached to the appendix.

- Appendix I: Pre-test Scores for EG; Pre-test Scores for CG; Post-test Scores for EG; Post-test Scores for CG
- Appendix II: Writing Practice in the Treatment for EG
- Appendix III: Evaluating Criteria for Textuality
New Measures to Reform College English Teaching
Under the Background of Socialization of NMET

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[Abstract] Since the Ministry of Education issued the socialization of NMET, it has set off a great upsurge for NMET reform throughout the country, which is a great guiding role for college English teaching. This paper, under the background of socialization of NMET, discusses the emphasis on teaching contents, teaching methods, classroom teaching, teaching goals and the return to humanistic quality education for college English teaching, in order to better improve the teaching quality in daily English teaching.

[Keywords] socialization of NMET; reform college English teaching; new measures

Introduction
In March 2013, the Ministry of Education in No.1 File—the Ministry of Education about 2013, Deepening the Reform of Education Field Comprehensive Opinions clearly put forward that 2013 would study and put forward the examination implementation plan on NMET several times a year (Ministry of Education, 2013). In other coastal areas, it has clear regulations that English will exit from the unified college entrance examination in 2016 and that it will begin to implement tests many times a year and it will be included in the college entrance exam in the form of class as a request for English level admitted to universities. The reform of NMET emphasizes listening and speaking (Li, 2013).

In the current Chinese education system, the college entrance examination, as the connection point between secondary education and higher education, to any significant adjustment, is a beacon for higher education. Most of the students enter a university and need to continue English learning. As NMET reform gradually deepens, under the background of socialization of the college entrance examination, all the English teachers in colleges and universities should think about the issue that they will let their students really master English and make college English study more meaningful (Zheng & Chen, 2009). This problem is worth thinking about. By this, they can better pass on the baton. That is to say, reform can be implemented fully and completely.

Using the Change of Question Types in NMET to Guide College English Teaching
There is no doubt that the reform of question types in the college entrance examination affects the reform of college English teaching. College English teaching should focus on strengthening listening and speaking. For a long time, our country attached great importance to learning English, but the status quo is that students can’t open their mouths to speak English after studying it. This is the dumb English mode. Therefore, college English teachers use cutting-edge and contemporary listening materials from the Internet to improve the students’ listening. Letting students listen to a speech by a celebrity after class and read it aloud in order to enhance students’ language sense and reduce their accents. The should hold various oral English competitions to exercise students’ oral communication abilities, and inspire students’ enthusiasm of learning English so that they feel more and more confident in the process of learning English. When they have confidence, they venture to speak English and are not afraid of making mistakes in order to break the
current situation of dumb English. Although there are some students who speak English boldly, the problem is that they speak Chinese English which sounds like tongue-tied English, with sentences full of mistakes in grammar, logic errors and misnomers, etc. Therefore, teaching should pay attention to these problems in the process and solve them in time (He, 1999).

Using Diversified Methods to Be Engaged in College English Teaching

Under the background of socialization of NMET, the traditional teaching method is in urgent need of reform so as to adapt to the current new situation. Teachers should reinterpret teaching syllabi and teaching goals to choose the most appropriate teaching methods. When students learn in a comprehensive English course, teachers had better infiltrate cultural backgrounds, styles and writing styles in the process of learning. Vocabulary learning can not be confined to textbooks; it should also not be limited to a certain meaning, but instead, it should be in-depth study of word-formations by finding out the root of a word. When students learn new words, teachers should teach them how to add a prefix or a suffix, how to learn word meanings, word functions and word usages, combining them with different contexts. Students should be able to analyze complicated long sentences, their functions, and language features carefully; they should be able to grasp a text in its overall framework. This teaching method guides students to understand European and American culture. They also master certain language knowledge and skills so as to lay a solid foundation for the English language.

In the four years of English learning, teachers should guide students to form their own learning methods step-by-step according to their ages, their psychological characteristics, and their strengths. Teachers should also develop their own teaching methods in the process of helping students. Teachers help students increase reading skills and writing skills in the process of daily learning training, and they increase reading of British and American culture, etc. Through a series of traditional teaching, guide students to independently analyze textual structure, learn writing skills and master their reading skills. Teachers guide students to learn by themselves (Dai, 1997). In this way, without the help of teachers, students can independently learn a foreign language in class and out of class so that they can get rich English knowledge.

Building an Efficient English Teaching Classroom

College English teachers have a clear teaching goal before having a class. When the teaching goal is clear, preparing lessons becomes a key link. Having full knowledge, preparing proper teaching methods, and arousing students’ participation are the keys to preparing lessons. Teachers are not limited to textbooks in preparation of knowledge and can collect a lot of related information on the Internet. On the basis of mastering textbooks, teachers expand knowledge. If teachers only repeat what’s in the textbooks, students will become very bored, losing interest and enthusiasm in learning. Preparing lessons also needs to master the students’ knowledge levels and abilities, and according to their aptitudes, the teachers should change their teaching methods from time to time, making students master knowledge better and building an efficient classroom (Han, 2003).

College English teachers play multiple roles. On the one hand, teachers, as class designers and organizers, need to arrange reasonable and rich classroom teaching activities according to the teaching contents, teaching targets and students’ actual levels. Teachers need to make full use of multimedia teaching resources to maximize the students’ sensory systems through a series of sounds, images, videos and so on (Jia, 1999). Combining systematic blackboard writing can improve students’ understanding of knowledge and facilitate a better understanding of what the teachers say in class. This kind of modern teaching
technology can overcome baldness and vapidity in traditional teaching. It has injected new vitality to the reform of college English teaching and is helpful to create a relaxing and happy classroom atmosphere. On the other hand, teachers, as class participants, guide students independently to study English. In the process of classroom teaching, they should let students have active discussions, expressing their own views and thinking divergently. Teachers should create an active classroom atmosphere and create the best language environment so as to maximize their students’ potential.

College English teachers know about complicated forms of English as a language. Teachers, in the process of classroom teaching, should use systematic and concise teaching, making full use of class time. They should show knowledge points which are systematically listed, select targeted training topics and focus on important teaching in place of all the details. To avoid the “high investment, low output” phenomenon in class, teachers should build an efficient classroom; this can rely on the teachers’ own multimedia courseware (Jia, 1999).

Teaching is always defined by the two main bodies between teachers and students. Teachers teach English while students learn it, so the relationship between the two is also very important in the teaching process. It is necessary for teachers to create a harmonious relationship. Of course, this kind of relationship exists between teachers and students. In daily classroom teaching, teachers use the initiative to be close to students, to interact with them actively in class, to solve students’ problems after class and to receive teaching feedback at the same time, improving teaching methods and improving teaching quality. In addition, teachers should respect their students’ individual differences in learning abilities in class and give encouragement and necessary psychological hints of positive energy often. For students whose learning ability is low, teachers should not squash their enthusiasm for learning. For both excellent students and students with poor learning abilities, teachers should treat them as equal minds. For students who make an error in learning, teachers should understand with a tolerant attitude. There should be a harmonious relationship between teachers and students in class and after class, teachers and students are friends, so it is also one of the necessary ways to build an efficient classroom.

**Training Compound and Applied Talents**

According to the training objectives of college English teaching, English talents refer to the people with solid English language foundations and extensive cultural knowledge who are able to skillfully use English for translation, teaching, management and research work in foreign affairs, education, economy, trade, culture, science and technology, military and other departments. Teachers should use the training objectives as a fundamental goal, improving students’ comprehensive English levels so as to adapt to the knowledge economy era of international high development (He, & Yin, et al., 1999). Under the environment of the development of a market economy in our country, one of the values colleges and universities are putting more and more emphasis on is social recognition. After university graduates enter society, they will need to accept the strict selection of a market. A market as an invisible hand in the dark plays a guiding role in colleges and universities. Majors in many colleges and universities are set up to meet the demands of the market so as to promote employment and enhance the competitiveness of a university (Li, 2014). At present, the data show, although English fever has lasted in China for more than 20 years, with the reform of NMET, another craze is coming. In spite of this, the shortage of English translation talents is very serious, so college teachers should train compound and applied talents as the ultimate goal of college English teaching to serve society.
Return to Humanistic Quality Education

NMET can carry out a large reform, meaning that foreign language education will transfer school education to society education so that we can see that the education departments are making efforts to reduce tests of English teaching. For a long time, China’s English education has been revolving around examination and turning away from the intention of language and culture. It seems that we have been studying English for examination instead of learning English as a language or a communication tool. But in the era of information and globalization in our present society and with the high development of economy, English in international communication and international affairs has become more and more important. The reform of NMET is likely to reduce students’ enthusiasm for learning English, so English education has to return to a more humanistic quality in education. Nowadays, the present situation of quality education in colleges and universities is not optimistic. With the reform and opening up of the market economy, various cultures have entered into China such as, money worship, and hedonism, etc. All walks of life are in urgent need of professional skills. Because students’ humanistic quality is poor, it is not conducive to the development of talents. College English teachers should improve their humanistic qualities and education of students’ abilities. They should consciously strengthen their own cultural qualities, adhere to the concept of lifelong learning, constantly absorb updated humanistic knowledge and improve their cultural accomplishments (Dai, & Huang, 1997).

In college English teaching, English as a language is bearing the weight of the culture of British and American countries. Meanwhile, the English course is full of rich resources for humanistic education, and as a result, the English course in the new situation has a special function of humanistic education. It is fit to cultivate and improve humanistic education by English learning. Today, humanistic quality demands more professional knowledge, excellent English skills and very rich teaching experience from English teachers. In addition, teachers should also have a high ability for control of the teaching classroom and drive students’ enthusiasm for learning English. Under controlling the teaching classroom, teachers will give the classroom back to students to improve their abilities in autonomic learning. In a good university, there must be a teaching team with noble ethics and exquisite professional skills, which can advance with the times.

Conclusion

Socialization of NMET is a landmark in the history of Chinese English education. It has the impact of far-reaching significance. The reform has caused the change in college English teaching modes, which is a big challenge for teachers’ teaching. Under the background of socialization of NMET, teachers need to reform their teaching contents, methods and so forth in order to train more professional and international English talents. To carry on the rational thinking of college English teaching under the background of socialization of NMET is to identify the situation of today’s society and find a path of English teaching with Chinese characteristics. Nations have begun to compete with national cultural soft power. China, with several thousand years of cultural history of ancient civilization, should maintain a high profile. On the one hand, we can’t forget our own traditional culture. On the other hand, we should absorb and accept the excellent traditional culture of other countries. Because of this, China should learn English well as learning tasks. It is not just for opening a unique Olympic Games or for an unforgettable world expo. Our eyes should be more open in the long run in order to improve China’s international status. We should be relaxed and confident in talking and communicating in English with all countries in the world. We, as students’ teachers, should be the leading example. Although our country’s education mode is not mature, there are still many
problems that need to be solved and NMET still has a lot of controversy, but these problems do not block our way. We summarized the failure of the teaching experience, and the reform of our teaching should keep pace with the education method of the times. In other words, with the reform of NMET to promote the reform of college English teaching, we can realize the complete reform from top to bottom.

References
Educational Change: What is in the Way?

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[Abstract] The paper explores the barriers to educational change in China. The introduction states the current situation of educational change in China. The following sections focus on three influential groups for educational changes: teachers, learning groups (students) and parents. The implication of this paper is that educational change can’t be a group of policy-makers sitting together to formulate a decision. Any factors that can get in the way of its implementation need to be dealt with properly.

[Keywords] educational changes; barriers; policy-makers; teachers; students; parents

Introduction
Education, in general, is aimed at arming its participants with knowledge and skills needed or required by the burgeoning economic society. Politics, economics, industries, employers, parents, and the like are all keeping an eye on the process and the immediate results of education. Under such great pressure, whenever the educational goals and objectives are not or cannot be achieved, the outcomes are not satisfying, or economics and industries are running beyond the educational efforts, there is a need for a change. Change is usually the measure that policy-makers or decision-makers take to deal with existing problems in the area identified that are threatening to the overall situation. As Oliva (2005) put it, change enables life to develop, as well as education, which exists to prepare a better life for human beings. Thus, educational change can serve as a guarantee for education being effective with the development of society. However, to initiate and conduct an educational change is really a demanding task; large amounts of time and energy should be devoted to its planning, decision-making, and implementation. And it is easy to fail in educational change, because many factors can stand in the way to prevent it from achieving its original goals. There is usually “a discrepancy between the planned change…and the change in practice” (Sng, 2008).

The Reasons for Teachers’ Resistance to Educational Change and Some Suggestions
It is commonly realized that people are usually resistant to change, and in education, it is usually reflected in teachers’, students’ and even parents’ conceptions and actions (Henson, 1987; Shakeshaft, 2004; Fink & Stoll, 2005; Oliva, 2005; Schratz, 2005; Blossing, 2005). There are many reasons for such resistance. And it is particularly important to first examine the situation of the teaching group, because they are the direct executors of educational change. As explained by Gustavson (1955), people are usually “afraid of drastic innovations, partly because they prefer the familiar, and partly because the vested interests of most people are normally bound up with the existing set-up” (p. 72). For teachers, educational change often means they have to change or even get rid of their present way of teaching that they, and their students, are very familiar with and have become used to. The “force of habit” is one important cause for resisting educational change (Henson, 1987). Everybody knows how easy it will be once we have formed the new habit in doing our work. Moreover, doing something familiar to us can strengthen our confidence in doing it well and effectively. Consequently, as Henson (1987) worried, teachers, in implementing the change, will have a sense of fear and insecurity as a result of losing confidence in their job. They won’t be sure if they are...
qualified for implementing the change or the new curriculum. Resistance is just a reaction or response they take to sustain their security.

A deeper reason underlying this phenomenon is that, in most cases, educational change is applied ‘to’ rather than ‘with’ teachers, which means teachers just passively receive the order from the top and are required to execute the new decision in a short time without being fully informed of its goals and objectives, let alone the rationale behind the change (Fink & Stoll, 2005; Sng, 2008). On the one hand, they don’t have much “commitment and ownership” to the change (Sng, 2008). The involvement of teachers or academics in educational change is often in the last stage of the process, the implementation of the decision. The decision-making level has nothing to do with them, which is generally conducted by the policy-makers. Such inadequate involvement of the teachers at the bottom level, together with the limited time assigned for the implementation results in their vague knowledge or even misunderstanding of the purposes and the underlying philosophy of the educational or curriculum change. Then they will either make superficial changes or implement the new curriculum or decision according to their own interpretations of the situation. In addition, without teachers, who have the best knowledge of the students and the educational situation, providing consultation in the decision-making process, the discrepancy between plan and practice can not be eliminated. On the other hand, as is indicated by Fink and Stoll (2005), teachers “tend to be exhausted” by the large amount of changes over a short time. Their energy, enthusiasm, and willingness for change are hard to maintain in this sense. The ‘overload’ educational change brings to their work and the resulting pressures on them can also lead to their resistance to educational change.

In addition to the above factors that cause teachers’ reluctance to change, Hargreaves (2005) put forward his concern that educational change has not involved the “emotional dimensions of teaching and learning”, which are equally important in teachers’ practice because they are also emotional beings rather than teaching machines without any feelings. Teachers’ emotional relationships with their students can influence their response to educational change. They care for their students’ emotional needs and thus, are inclined to resist changes that their students might feel uncomfortable with. Besides, their own emotional needs guide them in seeking the most comfortable ways of teaching. The “excitement and enjoyment” of their students attending their classes are their foremost consideration, meanwhile, their own “passions and enthusiasms” towards good teaching that can create the best emotional relationship with their students greatly influences their attitudes towards every educational change (Hargreaves, 2005). However, educational change, pursuing rational and cognitive ends, pays little attention to teachers’ and students’ emotional changes or states that may be brought about along the process. Therefore, any change that dissatisfies teachers’ emotional needs or makes them stressed will be resisted.

What then can be done to improve the situation? It is suggested that “total involvement” of the teachers in change be ensured (Henson, 1987; Fink & Stoll, 2005; Sng, 2008). Let them provide suggestions in the decision-making process and be informed of why and how the change is formulated. Then they can better understand the goals of the educational change. If such total involvement is hard to realize, effective communication and consultation feedback are needed (Sng, 2008). Communication is not only needed in the planning process, but also in the implementation of the change. There should be communication among the top people that make decisions, between the top and the bottom hierarchy to fully transmit the decisions, and among the bottom people to reach a consensus about the implementation of the change. Adequate preparation and training for teachers to be qualified in implementing the change is also an important necessity to reduce their fears and strengthen their confidence. The top people should also seek teachers’ feedback in the implementation process; such formative evaluation can result in greater effectiveness of the
change and “greater commitment” of both teachers and students (Sng, 2008). In other words, the top-down process should be changed into a top-down-top cycle.

Another suggestion is that teachers should be encouraged to conduct action research in their own classes during the implementation process (Shaffer, 1994; Oliva, 2005). This, on one hand, helps them discover the effectiveness and appropriateness of the new decision in their specific context, and on the other hand, it enables them to “determine answers to simple problems that may be applicable only in their own classrooms” (Oliva, 2005, p. 555). In so doing, teachers can decide how much to adopt and how to adapt the change to their classes, keeping a balance between the “adoptive” change and the “adaptive” change (Kelly, 1982). Finally, from Hargreaves (2005), we know that the emotional dimension of teaching and learning cannot be ignored because they are “indispensable to rational decision-making”. To maintain positive emotional attitudes of both teachers and students and to strengthen their emotional relationships should also become goals of educational change.

The Reasons for Students’ Resistance to Educational Change

In addition to the teaching group, the learning group is a second influential “conservative force” in educational change (Fink & Stoll, 2005; Schratz, 2005; Blossing, 2005). Similar to teachers, students often feel threatened by change from usual practice. Such an effect on students, who are always treated as the target group of educational change, can be stronger than other participating groups. Their resistance or reluctance to change is often expressed in their “silence or passivity” in learning (Schratz, 2005). One reason is still the preference for habit and familiarity. Students tend to depend on what they have been traditionally immersed into because the result or outcome has been experienced or can be anticipated. In contrast, the new decision brought by educational change involves great uncertainty, indicating insecurity for them. Brown’s (2009) study of students’ and teachers’ perceptions of effective teaching can illustrate this point; he found students are fairly inclined to the traditional way of teaching, compared to the popular communicative language teaching method. This is especially evident in grammar teaching and error correction. The explicitness and directness in the traditional method are favored, which can bring an immediate outcome of learning, especially in formal assessment. Another reason for students to be ‘conservative’ is that they are totally deprived of decision-making in educational and school change. There is no communication or consensus-building with them. They are just the receivers of such change. No one even explains to them the reasons and rationale for implementing the change, let alone the intended benefits. Consequently, they usually place no trust upon the change.

As an example, when Quzhou University leaders decided to combine all ideological and political courses of undergraduates into one integrated course to be completed in one semester, many students felt it was difficult to accept. Those who just missed this reform complained that it was unfair because the traditional courses took up so much of their school time. Those who were under this reform were upset as they had to receive so much information and knowledge in one semester and cope with the demanding exams in addition to their already stressed professional courses. The situation was worse for those who had previously failed in one or some of those courses, for they had no chance to retake the course(s) for the credit. Even the teachers showed dissatisfaction for such change. However, no authority stood out to provide a comforting explanation.

Therefore, according to Blossing (2005), the lesson learned from ineffective educational changes is that “involving pupils (students) in the change process is necessary to ensure implementation of an improvement effort and to turn it into a new working routine”, though the debate about the appropriateness
of empowering students in the decision-making process still goes on. On the one hand, they have direct observation and experience of the situations and relationships (especially problematic ones) in school, and can thus provide first-hand information for consideration. On the other hand, they are the target group to receive the change, so their voices have to be heard in order to formulate a decision that is pleasing to all. Moreover, they are able to “put innovative improvement proposals forward” because they are creative (Blossing, 2005). Policy-makers really need to reconsider the status of the learning group in every educational change process.

Parents’ Attitudes to Educational Change
After investigating the two largest groups in school, parents are also a group deserving consideration (Shaffer, 1994; Waks, 2003; Hallinger, 2003; Shakshaft, Sarason & Shaker, 2004; Oliva, 2005). Generally speaking, they are the ones who most care about their children’s future and thus, their quality of education. In this sense, they closely observe each educational change, in terms of whether the outcomes and effect are satisfying or not. The introduction of the tuition-free Normal College student policy at BNU aroused many parents’ deep consideration; it was really hard to decide whether to let their children follow this route. During the process of implementing educational change, parents will express their complaints and dissatisfaction to teachers and school leaders, which may become a giant obstacle to the following new process or it might even impede it. Therefore, communication with parents about the entire change process is equally important. Consensus building in making decisions should include the parents’ voices to turn them from strangers or opponents into involved supporters.

In addition, Waks (2007) suggests a “reconceptualization of fundamental educational change”, which entails a shift from ‘organizational’ change to ‘institutional’ change. It is very similar to the “re-culturing” concept as opposed to “restructuring” in Fink and Stoll (2005). According to Waks (2007), institutions, which establish the background of organizations, “shape the habits, ideas, and norms regulating the existing organizations that they authorize or ordain”. To initiate institutional change prevents educational change from taking place at the structural level and takes into account the background, culture, norms, and philosophy surrounding the organizations. In this way, it is likely to overcome the participants’ overdependence on traditions, because it involves the change of educational ideas.

Conclusion
In conclusion, educational change requires a great deal of thinking and mediating. It can not be policy-makers sitting together to formulate a decision they agree on. It should be supported or understood by the public. Any factors that can get in the way of its implementation needs to be dealt with properly. Teachers, students, and parents are all influential groups in accelerating or hindering the process; therefore, policy-makers should make best use of these human resources to ensure the effectiveness of educational change. And the most appropriate approach to change should also be considered in forming the final decisions about the change itself.

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References


A Corpus-based Study on Lexical Development of University English Majors in China

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[Abstract] This study chose ninety-three English majors in two different directions (English Translation and Business English) as the subjects, whose composition is a part of the final test at the end of each term (a total of six terms) and measures the subjects’ lexical development in three dimensions (productive vocabulary, lexical diversity, and usage frequency of vague and abstract vocabulary) by using two corpus tools – Range and Writer’s Workbench. The results show that the vocabulary size of university English majors is enlarged in college, however, the number of productive vocabulary is limited, the level of lexical diversity decreases, and vague and abstract vocabulary are overused by English majors.

[Keywords] corpus; vocabulary; writing; English majors

Introduction

With the extension of English teaching reform in university, the standard for evaluating college students’ level of English is increasingly focused on the capability of listening and speaking, which leads university students to put more effort and energy on listening and speaking instead of writing. Listening, speaking, reading, writing and translating are closely linked and inseparable in teaching, and ignoring any aspect will adversely impact on other areas. Writing is a process to express one’s own ideas with precise language, which is based on the full absorption of knowledge and information. It is an important criterion to reflect the actual level of students’ English. English writing is one of the basic skills which college students should master. Writing tests are comprehensive tests which not only test students’ use of language elements such as vocabulary and grammar, but also tests students’ skills in organization, communication and analysis. It can reflect a person’s language accomplishment.

Lexical diversity has been considered as an illuminative predictor of learners’ general language proficiency and an indispensable indicator of the quality of their writing and speaking performances. Such a positive relationship is also claimed explicitly in the rating scales of major international language tests, as well as in the development of computerized evaluation system. For example, IELTS writing and speaking responses are rated according to their “lexical resources” which refers to ‘the range of vocabulary the candidate has used’ (IELTS Handbook 2007). However, a lack of vocabulary knowledge has been considered the main difficulty for writing in a second language (Leki & Carson, 1994).
Literature Review

Studies on Vocabulary at Home

Vocabulary is vital when writing in foreign languages, and it has a strong correlation with the quality of writing (Engber, 1995). Studies have shown that the lack of vocabulary has been the biggest difficulty in writing (Leki & Carson, 1994).

Ma Guanghui and Wen Qiufang (1999) have verified the matched condition between the theoretical models and empirical data with the program LISREL. They found that expression vocabulary, namely productive vocabulary, has a direct impact on the capability of writing. The larger the vocabulary is, the higher the score is.

In the use of vocabulary, the length of a text has been regarded as a sign of the fluency of writing, and the length of a text refers to the total words of the composition. Research on the length of texts focuses on the correlation between the length and the quality of writing (Reynolds, 2001), the relationship between the length and strategy training or teaching method (Deng, 2002; Wang, 2002), and the connection between the length and vocabulary diversity. Few people take into consideration the length of a text and vocabulary. In the research, Ma Guanghui and Wen Qiufang (1999) suppose that the larger the students’ vocabulary is, the more colorful the content of the text will be and the length of the text will be longer. This speculation is really instructive for the study.

Words are divided into formal words and common words according to the usage or divided into concrete and abstract words according to the lexical characteristics. Sentences are composed of words and phrases with composition rules. When one expresses a complete thought, word choice will directly affect the completeness and accuracy of the expressions. Chen Qingsong (2005) has studied the language use of college English writing. She found that there has been a big change in the writing tasks of CET4 and CET6 in recent years. Complaint letters, campaign speech and help letters, which are closed to life, appeared in the tests. All of the examples in narrative, descriptive and argumentative text should be vivid, concrete and visual. This determines that we should use particularly specific words when we write such essays. For example, use “peony” instead of “flowers”, “bad stomachache” instead of “sick”, “Hamlet” instead of “a book” and “20 degrees below zero” instead of “very cold”. Do not think big words deepen the readers’ impressions.

Studies on Vocabulary Abroad

Engber (1995) found that the relative index between the language skills and lexical variation is 0.43. Other studies found that the lower the level of language is, the higher the rate of vocabulary repetition is (Santos, 1988). On the contrary, Scarcela (Reynolds, 2001) found that there is no difference on vocabulary repetition between the high levels and low levels in tests.

The most widely-used indicators of quantitative study of vocabulary are word tokens and word types. Laufer and Nation (1995) did research on word richness of second language learners to examine the relationship between the use of vocabulary and the growth of vocabulary, proposing that lexical frequency profile is a reliable and valid measure of lexical use in writing. Laufer and Nation (1995) mentioned four test criterions for word richness of writing: Lexical Originality, Lexical Density, Lexical Sophistication and Lexical Variation.

Many different constructs of vocabulary have been studied in writing. This is because there are several ways to conceptualize vocabulary. Frequently measured vocabulary constructs in writing include: diversity,
maturity, content vocabulary, academic vocabulary, and register. Vocabulary diversity, likely the most common vocabulary construct included in past writing research, refers to the breadth of words used in a text. Vocabulary maturity is a construct describing the sophistication of the vocabulary used in a text. Content vocabulary, sometimes referred to as “domain-specific vocabulary” (Marzano & Pickering, 2005) or “technical terms” (Harmon, Wood, & Medina, 2009; Rehder, et al., 1998), refers to words that are unique to different topics (e.g., weather, Civil War, outer space). In contrast to content vocabulary, academic vocabulary is comprised of words used in a variety of academic contexts (e.g., *synthesize, confirm, deduce*) rather than words associated with specific disciplines or topics. Finally, register is a construct which describes the unique features of language that vary according to different situations, purposes, and forms of language use (Biber & Vasquez, 2008).

Register has been shown to vary according to linguistic mode (Biber, 2009), and according to text type (Biber & Kurjian, 2007). In addition to a range of vocabulary constructs, there are several ways to measure each vocabulary construct. Past studies have included different vocabulary measures for the same vocabulary construct. For example, there has been extensive work vocabulary and writing quality towards finding a vocabulary diversity measure that is unaffected by text length. Earlier measures simply included the number of different or unique words or a ratio of types to tokens (i.e., number of words written). A more sophisticated measure, corrected type-token ratio, attempted to remove the effect of text length, however, previous studies of written vocabulary continue to demonstrate strong relationships between text length and CTTR (e.g., McCarthy & Jarvis, 2007; Olinghouse & Leaird, 2009) due to a nonlinear relationship between types and tokens as text length increases (McCarthy & Jarvis, 2010). Thus, any measure of lexical diversity that calculates diversity as a linear function will not control text length. More recent developments in measuring lexical diversity have attempted to overcome this barrier by using complex computer algorithms. For example, the Measure of Textual Lexical Diversity (MTLD; McCarthy & Jarvis, 2010) virtually eliminates text length as a confounding issue. Other vocabulary constructs, while not experiencing the same dedication to refining measurement methods, also have had several different methods of measurement. As an example, vocabulary maturity has been conceptualized as word length (e.g., number of letters or number of syllables) or by frequency of occurrence (e.g., word frequency or grade-level lists). The range of vocabulary constructs and measures in past research complicates a comprehensive synthesis of vocabulary in writing. Past studies have included different vocabulary constructs and different methods for measuring the constructs, making it difficult to determine patterns in findings.

**Research Methodology**

**Research Questions**

Question 1: Have the English majors’ vocabulary been enlarged during the first three years in university?
Question 2: Have the English majors’ level of lexical diversity been improved in university?
Question 3: What about the use of vague and abstract vocabulary of English majors in writing?

**Research Method**

The research subjects were 558 writing tasks of 93 English majors from two classes in Linyi University, including two directions: English Translation and Business English. Most of the students have the same experience in learning English. They began to learn English in the third grade in primary school and chose English as their major in the first year of university. All of them passed the middle school entrance
examination and the college entrance examination, and their teaching modes were also similar during middle school. Because most of them were girls, I did not compare females’ writing capability with males’.

**Data Collection.** The 558 writing tasks of 93 English majors from Grade 2010 in Linyi University were chosen as a corpus in the study. All the writing tasks were in the final examinations of Basic English and Advanced English during the first three years (six semesters) in university. Among the 93 English majors, 45 students majored in Business English and 48 students majored in English Translation. It took a week to collect the entire data. Data collectors input the articles from the test papers into a computer without any modification.

**Research Instruments.** After the collection of data, the information was put into the computer for statistical analysis. The programs *Range* and *Writer’s Workbench* were used in the study.

The language tool *Range* can be used to analyze the breadth and depth of vocabulary in a text of a corpus. This software was designed by two linguists Nation and Coxhead in Victoria University, and compiled by Heatley. It is designed for word frequency analysis with several basic vocabulary lists. The retrieval results and analysis of the lists can help researchers find the distribution of these types of words in different tests, the frequency of word families, and their cumulative frequency in all the texts. In addition, the program facilitates a comparison of vocabulary sizes and diction among different texts. The process has a powerful function on lexical analysis, and it can handle multiple different texts simultaneously. *Range* has a variety of uses; it can be used to answer a series of questions, including:

1. What are the same words in different texts?
2. How large our vocabulary should be when we read a text?
3. Are the wordings similar of the same learner in compositions at different times?
4. Whether the learner can use the vocabulary encountered in reading for writing?

Another instrument used in the study was *Writer’s Workbench*. *Writer’s Workbench* is a kind of language tool that analyzes English prose and suggests improvements. Some limited data on the use of *Writer’s Workbench* and its acceptance are also presented. *Writer’s Workbench* includes the style and diction programs, described in a previous paper of this TRANSACTIONS, into a more extensive system to help writers improve their writing. The system runs under the UNIXTM operating system, and includes programs to: 1) proofread, 2) provide reference information about the English language, and 3) comment on stylistic features of text. Among other writing faults, the programs detect split infinitives, errors in spelling and punctuation, overly long sentences, passive sentences, and wordy phrases.

**Data Presentation and Discussion**

**Size of Productive Vocabulary**

When we use *Range* to process the corpus, the vocabularies are shown on the basis of word frequency and distribution, with the forms of token, type and families that are mentioned above. The corpus is divided into six parts (one part in one semester). Six result files are generated as follows in Tables 1 – 6):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1. The Results of the Word Frequency in the First Semester</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Word List</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>one</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>two</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>three</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>not in the list</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Table 2. The Results of the Word Frequency in the Second Semester

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word List</th>
<th>Token/%</th>
<th>Type/%</th>
<th>Families</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>one</td>
<td>8987/88.98</td>
<td>737/60.51</td>
<td>451</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>two</td>
<td>503/4.98</td>
<td>145/11.90</td>
<td>112</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>three</td>
<td>232/2.30</td>
<td>108/8.87</td>
<td>86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>not in the list</td>
<td>378/3.74</td>
<td>228/18.72</td>
<td>????</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>10100</strong></td>
<td><strong>1218</strong></td>
<td><strong>673</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 3. The Results of the Word Frequency in the Third Semester

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word List</th>
<th>Token/%</th>
<th>Type/%</th>
<th>Families</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>one</td>
<td>9370/83.86</td>
<td>750/61.98</td>
<td>480</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>two</td>
<td>1307/11.70</td>
<td>175/14.46</td>
<td>138</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>three</td>
<td>131/1.17</td>
<td>79/6.53</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>not in the list</td>
<td>366/3.28</td>
<td>206/17.02</td>
<td>????</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>11174</strong></td>
<td><strong>1210</strong></td>
<td><strong>686</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 4. The Results of the Word Frequency in the Fourth Semester

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word List</th>
<th>Token/%</th>
<th>Type/%</th>
<th>Families</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>one</td>
<td>10149/82.51</td>
<td>861/53.21</td>
<td>531</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>two</td>
<td>1067/8.67</td>
<td>200/12.36</td>
<td>151</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>three</td>
<td>427/3.47</td>
<td>171/10.57</td>
<td>133</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>not in the list</td>
<td>657/5.34</td>
<td>386/23.86</td>
<td>????</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>12300</strong></td>
<td><strong>1618</strong></td>
<td><strong>815</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 5. The Results of the Word Frequency in the Fifth Semester

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word List</th>
<th>Token/%</th>
<th>Type/%</th>
<th>Families</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>one</td>
<td>10110/81.82</td>
<td>865/54.03</td>
<td>528</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>two</td>
<td>637/5.15</td>
<td>193/12.05</td>
<td>145</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>three</td>
<td>919/7.44</td>
<td>158/9.87</td>
<td>125</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>not in the list</td>
<td>691/5.59</td>
<td>385/24.05</td>
<td>????</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>12357</strong></td>
<td><strong>1601</strong></td>
<td><strong>798</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 6. The Results of the Word Frequency in the Sixth Semester

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word List</th>
<th>Token/%</th>
<th>Type/%</th>
<th>Families</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>one</td>
<td>8571/78.42</td>
<td>836/53.90</td>
<td>534</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>two</td>
<td>568/5.20</td>
<td>180/11.61</td>
<td>137</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>three</td>
<td>1090/9.97</td>
<td>171/11.03</td>
<td>135</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>not in the list</td>
<td>701/6.41</td>
<td>364/23.47</td>
<td>????</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>10930</strong></td>
<td><strong>1551</strong></td>
<td><strong>806</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the lists of Type/% in the six tables, we can see that the percentages of words from Word List One are 62.47%, 60.51%, 61.98%, 53.21%, 54.03% and 53.90% in each semester. The percentages of words from Word List Two were 11.86%, 11.90%, 14.46%, 12.36%, 12.05 and 11.61%. The percentages of words from Word List Three were 7.06%, 8.87%, 6.53%, 10.57%, 9.87% and 11.03%. Based on the eighteen numbers, English majors’ development of vocabulary during the six semesters is shown in the curve graph below:
Figure 1. The Variation of the Word Distribution in the Six Semesters

From the graph, we can see that during the six semesters, the vocabularies in Word List One were used most by English majors and it accounted for a significant proportion (above 50%). The vocabularies in Word List Two and Word List Three were rarely used. This means that the most productive words that English majors master are high frequency words, which are basic words. However, they have fewer skills in using advanced words. Then a conclusion is drawn that English majors’ productive vocabulary is quite limited.

Moreover, an overall decrease of the percentages of words from Word List One can be witnessed from the first semester to the sixth semester, while an overall increase can be seen in Word List Three (from 7.06% to 11.03%). This means that, with in-depth learning of English, fewer and fewer basic words are used and students begin to use complex vocabulary more frequently. In other words, the size of English majors’ productive vocabulary enlarges during the three years in university.

Thirdly, we can see a fluctuation from the second semester to the fourth semester (second year in university) and a steady change from the fourth to the sixth semester (third year in university). It can be presumed that the sophomore year is a transition period for English majors, and then they enter the steady junior year as most courses have been completed.

Lexical Diversity
As previously mentioned, the higher TTR (Type-Token Ratio) is, the higher the rate of vocabulary repetition is, and the lower the level of vocabulary diversity is. From Tables 1 – 6 we can calculate the TTR in each semester. The graph below illustrates the variation of the TTR over the six semesters:
Figure 2. The Variation of the TTR in the Six Semesters

We can see an overall upward tendency from the first semester to the sixth semester, despite the fluctuating sophomore year. The TTR in the third year is higher than that in the first year, so the rate of vocabulary repetition in the third year is higher than that in the first year. In other words, the level of lexical diversity in the third year is lower than that in the first year, which means that English majors’ level of lexical diversity decreased during the three years in university, although the change is not quite obvious.

Abstract and Vague Vocabulary
Like general and specific, concrete and abstract are opposite terms. Concrete words are really a special kind of specific diction: they state the identifiable qualities of particular things, feelings, and events. Abstract words refer to characteristics that many things have in common, e.g. beauty, strength, power, and intelligence, etc., as well as to concepts like love, hate, faith, democracy, equality, and dualism, etc.

Abstract concepts are usually defined in concrete terms, and concrete words may help to define abstractions. In academic writing, especially in theoretical writing, it is often necessary to use abstractions, but such abstractions should always be followed by concrete explanations or definitions. As explanations are mostly the important part in an article, it is suggested that we should limit the use of abstract words. Psychological research shows that concrete texts are easier to read, easier to use, and easier to remember than abstract texts.

Vague language is language that talks about something without directly saying what it is. So it is believed that vagueness and imprecision are to be avoided in human language, especially in academic writing, because they cannot convey ideas clearly.

In Writer’s Workbench, there is a standard of usage for vague and abstract words; their percentage should remain below 5%. As Writer’s Workbench cannot handle multiple files in bulk, the students’ writing tasks are analyzed one-by-one and three students’ variations of their usage of vague and abstract words from the first semester to the sixth are shown in Figures 3 – 5:
Figure 3. The Variation of Vague and Abstract Vocabulary Frequency of Student A in the Six Semesters

Figure 4. The Variation of Vague and Abstract Vocabulary Frequency of Student B in the Six Semesters

Figure 5. The Variation of Vague and Abstract Vocabulary Frequency of Student C in the Six Semesters

There is no obvious regularity about the three students’ variations of their usage of vague and abstract words during the six semesters. However, we can find that all of their percentages of vague and abstract words are above 5%. Some of those words could be deleted; others could be replaced with specific words or supplemented with additional specific descriptions or examples to lower the vague-word percentage. The data shows that English majors’ ability of using vocabulary is not high.
Conclusion

This paper gives a method of using Range and Writer’s Workbench to analyze the English Major’s writing capability based on a corpus in a university in China. We can learn how the English Majors’ general state of English writing level is by analyzing the lexical characteristics of their writing. With the analysis of English majors’ writing in six semesters with Range and Writer’s Workbench, it was found that university English majors have made progress in college, however, their progress is imbalanced. Based on the first two years of learning English, English majors’ vocabulary size has dramatically increased, and it tends towards stability in the third year.

Although the size of vocabulary is enlarged, their productive vocabulary is quite limited in that above fifty percent of the words used in writing are basic words. As productive vocabulary is regarded as an indicator of one’s level of the language (Ma, & Wen, 1999), there is much room for development. The study also reflects that English majors lack variety in productive vocabulary in writing, and their lexical diversity does not improve during the three years in university, as the rate of vocabulary repetition has increased. With respect to vague and abstract vocabulary, they are overused by English majors and should be limited.

In the three dimensions of the study, except for the size of vocabulary, the other two indicators – the level of lexical diversity and the level of vague and abstract vocabulary – have not been obviously improved. This means that although English majors’ vocabulary is enlarged in university, they lack the skills and capabilities to use them. So there is still a large step in improving their capability of using words in order to maintain sustainable lexical development.

References


Case Study on Uighur High School Students’ Language Attitude and English Learning

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Abstract In the empirical study, the Uighur high school students in Yining No.3 High School were selected as the subjects, and questionnaires and interviews were used to collect data. The current research offers a case study in English learning, English teaching, and identity study as it investigates the characteristics of the Uighur high school students’ language identity and analyzes the relationship between their language identity and English learning. The research conclusions are as follows: First, the subjects have a high level of self-identity with Chinese and minority languages but a low level of identity with minority written languages. Second, the subjects hold a high level of instrumental identity with English. Most of them believe that the one who masters English can find a good job and earn more money. Third, the subjects have a high level of the integrative motivation with both English and minority languages. Fourth, most subjects believe that it is helpful for students to master more languages, as bilinguals are cleverer than other people. Fifth, the research shows that there are some positive relations between the Uighur high school students’ English learning and their language identity.

Keywords Uighur; the Uighur high school students; language attitudes; English learning

Introduction
In recent years, some linguists have paid much attention to language attitudes, such as the language views in Mandarin communities (Chen, 1999; Ni, et al., 2004), Chinese dialect communities (Zhou, 2011), minority language communities (Wang, 1999, 2009) and bilingual (multilingual) communities (Wang, 2010; Wu, 2009; Yao, 2012, 2013, 2014; Gao, Su, & Zhou, 1998). Most research studies language attitudes in solid communities, while the research on language attitudes in the floating community, such as schools, is still in the dark. Therefore, the current research will study language attitudes in a high school and analyze the relationship between language attitudes and English learning.

It is undeniable that most of the learners in China have to learn English in school with the help of the Chinese language. Therefore, for some minority students, English learning is a trilingual learning activity, which means they master their mother tongue (usually the minority language) first, then they grasp Chinese, which is the national lingua franca, and then further, they learn English. As the English learning in China is always Chinese aided, minority students have to learn it with help from the Chinese. It means they will spend more efforts on English learning than others because of their limited Chinese ability. Studies show that a positive view of their multilingual background and their language identification will be helpful for their English learning.
Research Methodologies

Research Subjects
This study is an empirical study in which 39 Uighur students in Yining No. 3 high school were selected as the subjects. All of them were Uighur, 46.2% of them (18) were male, and 53.8% (21) were female. Of the students, 17.9% (7) came from rural areas, while 82.1% (32) came from cities or towns. Their ages ranged from 15 to 19 years old, and their mean age was 16.9.

Research Tools
In the study, the research methods utilized questionnaires and interviews to collect data and the software SPSS17.0 was used to derive statistics from the collected data. The self-made questionnaire and the self-made interview outlines were used as the data collection tools. After three pilot tests and modifications, the final questionnaire was created; it consists of the students’ basic information and 16 questions. In the questionnaire, Q1, Q2, Q10 and Q16 applied to the overall language attitude. Questions Q1 and Q2 applied to the attitudes toward Uighur, and questions Q10 and Q16 applied to the attitude toward English. Questions Q3, Q6, Q11, and Q14 investigated the language attitude in the sense of the instrumental motivation. Questions Q3 and Q6 applied to the attitude toward Uighur, while questions Q11 and Q14 applied to English. Questions Q5, Q8, Q13, and Q15 investigated the language attitude in the sense of the integrative motivation. Among these questions, Q5 and Q8 applied to the attitude toward Uighur, while questions Q13 and Q15 applied to English. Questions Q4, Q7, Q9, and Q12 sought the language attitude in the sense of the language acquisition. Questions Q7 and Q9 studied the attitude towards multilingual acquisition, Q4 to Uighur, and Q12 to English.

After each question, there were five options, including (A) Strongly Agree, (B) Agree, (C) Neither Agree, Nor Disagree, (D) Disagree, and (E) Strongly Disagree. The options A through E in all questions equated to a scale of 5 to 1, respectively, in the analysis of the data.

In the research, interviews were comprised of the complementary data collection method by which the researchers communicated face-to-face with the subjects on the topic of language attitudes and English learning. In order to help the interviewees relax, the researchers recorded the interview covertly using a recorder and transcribing it after the interview rather than writing down what the subjects said on the spot.

Characteristics of the Uighur High School Students’ Language Attitudes
Language attitude is formed by the language speaker’s comprehensive emotion. It includes many factors, such as the instrumental attitude, integrative attitude, and learning attitude. Sometimes, the different attitudes may contradict each other. The characteristics of the Uighur high school students’ language attitudes are as follows:
Table 1. Characteristics of the Uighur High School Students’ Language Attitudes (N=39)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>A Number/%</th>
<th>B Number/%</th>
<th>C Number/%</th>
<th>D Number/%</th>
<th>E Number/%</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>General language attitudes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q1</td>
<td>15/38.5</td>
<td>12/30.8</td>
<td>7/17.9</td>
<td>3/7.7</td>
<td>2/5.1</td>
<td>3.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q2</td>
<td>11/28.2</td>
<td>14/35.9</td>
<td>5/12.8</td>
<td>7/17.9</td>
<td>2/5.1</td>
<td>3.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q10</td>
<td>3/7.7</td>
<td>5/12.8</td>
<td>7/17.9</td>
<td>12/30.8</td>
<td>12/30.8</td>
<td>2.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q16</td>
<td>2/5.1</td>
<td>3/7.7</td>
<td>5/12.8</td>
<td>19/48.7</td>
<td>10/25.6</td>
<td>2.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instrumental language attitudes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q3</td>
<td>9/23.1</td>
<td>10/25.6</td>
<td>11/28.2</td>
<td>5/12.8</td>
<td>4/10.3</td>
<td>3.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q6</td>
<td>4/10.3</td>
<td>3/7.7</td>
<td>10/25.6</td>
<td>8/20.5</td>
<td>14/35.9</td>
<td>2.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q11</td>
<td>19/48.7</td>
<td>13/33.3</td>
<td>5/12.8</td>
<td>2/5.13</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q14</td>
<td>14/35.9</td>
<td>8/20.5</td>
<td>5/12.8</td>
<td>7/17.9</td>
<td>5/12.8</td>
<td>3.49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Integrative language attitudes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q5</td>
<td>15/38.5</td>
<td>13/33.3</td>
<td>7/17.9</td>
<td>3/7.7</td>
<td>1/2.6</td>
<td>3.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q8</td>
<td>13/33.3</td>
<td>11/28.2</td>
<td>5/12.8</td>
<td>7/17.9</td>
<td>3/7.7</td>
<td>3.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q13</td>
<td>14/35.9</td>
<td>12/30.8</td>
<td>7/17.9</td>
<td>4/10.3</td>
<td>2/5.1</td>
<td>3.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q15</td>
<td>16/41.0</td>
<td>13/33.3</td>
<td>5/12.8</td>
<td>3/7.7</td>
<td>2/5.1</td>
<td>3.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language learning attitudes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q4</td>
<td>17/43.6</td>
<td>12/30.8</td>
<td>4/10.3</td>
<td>5/12.8</td>
<td>1/2.6</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q7</td>
<td>16/41.0</td>
<td>7/17.9</td>
<td>9/23.1</td>
<td>7/17.9</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q9</td>
<td>5/12.8</td>
<td>5/12.8</td>
<td>7/17.9</td>
<td>12/30.8</td>
<td>10/25.6</td>
<td>2.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q12</td>
<td>19/48.7</td>
<td>12/30.8</td>
<td>3/7.7</td>
<td>2/5.13</td>
<td>3/7.7</td>
<td>4.08</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Q1 = It is important to have the ability to speak both the minority language and Chinese; Q2 = It is important to know both the minority written language and Chinese characters; Q3 = It is easy for the bilingual (minority language and Chinese) to be employed; Q4 = It is helpful for the bilingual (minority language and Chinese) to learn knowledge; Q5 = It is helpful for the bilingual (minority language and Chinese) to make friends; Q6 = Knowing the minority language will be helpful in making money; Q7 = Learning the minority language, Chinese, and English in childhood will be helpful in intelligence development; Q8 = It is helpful for the bilingual (minority language and Chinese) to learn about different cultures; Q9 = Learning minority language, Chinese, and English in childhood does harm to children’s learning because of the confusion of the 3 languages; Q10 = English is more important than the minority language and Chinese; Q11 = Knowing English will be helpful in being employed; Q12 = Knowing English will be helpful in learning knowledge; Q13 = Knowing English will be helpful in making friends; Q14 = Knowing English will be helpful in making money; Q15 = Learning languages will be helpful in learning international cultures; Q16 = It is enough for a person to grasp one language.

High Level of Identity to Chinese and Uighur While Low Level of Identity to English

The mean level of Q1 (3.90) is high, while that of Q16 (2.18) is low. Both are correspondent to each other and verify that most of the subjects agree on the opinion that “it is important to have the ability to speak both the minority language and Chinese.”

The mean level of Q2 (3.64) is lower than Q1, which infers that the subjects’ attitude to the Uighur written language is less positive. In the interview, a subject (female, 16 years old) said. “As a Uighur, I should speak Uighur, but I can’t write it, for I have been in the Chinese class from kindergarten. I think the Uighur written language is not important. Chinese language is more important, for we have to learn knowledge with Chinese in school. Therefore, I chose A for Q1 and C for Q2.”

The mean level of Q10 (2.36) was lower than the middle level 3, which infers that most of the subjects don’t agree on “English is more important than Chinese and Uighur.” In the interview, many subjects said that Mandarin is the most important language in school; they have no chance of speaking
English in their daily life. Thus, they don’t regard English as being as useful as Chinese. Maybe this is part of the reason they hold a high level of identity to Chinese and Uighur and a low level to English.

**The Level of Instrumental Identity to English Is Higher Than to Uighur**
The mean level of Q3 was 3.38, while Q6 was 2.36, which infers that most of the subjects agree on “being bilingual (minority language and Chinese) will be helpful in being employed,” while they don’t agree on “knowing the minority language will be helpful in making money.” In an interview, a subject (female, 16) said, “In the big cities, there are few chances to use Uighur, let alone making money.”

The mean level of Q11 was the highest (4.26) in all questions. The mean of Q14 was also high (3.49). From the data we can infer that most of the subjects agree that “knowing English will be helpful in making money.” In interviews, many subjects held the opinion that if they couldn’t pass the College English Band 4, they would not get the graduate diploma, or let alone be employed.

**High Level of Integrative Language Motivation**
The mean level of Q5 was 3.97, suggesting that most of the subjects agree on “being minority-Chinese bilingual will be helpful in making friends.” The mean level of Q8 was 3.62, but the choice of A, B, C or D was spread evenly, which suggests that the subjects hold different opinions on “being minority-Chinese bilingual will be helpful in learning different cultures.”

In an interview, a subject (male, 16 years old) said, “Mandarin is the lingua franca in our country. We can communicate with almost all the others and learn about other cultures with Chinese. It’s unnecessary to know the minority language.” Another subject (female, 17) said, “I quite agree on ‘being minority-Chinese bilingual will be helpful in learning different cultures. The Uighur culture is comprehensive. One who wants to understand the Uighur culture must grasp Uighur language. Otherwise, he or she just learns the superficial knowledge.”

The mean level for Q13 was 3.82 and for Q15 was 3.97. Apparently, most of the subjects agreed on that “knowing English will be helpful in making friends” and “learning English will be helpful in learning the international cultures.” The level of the latter is a little higher than that of the former. The above data show that the subjects’ identity levels on “being minority-Chinese bilingual will be helpful in making friends” is higher than on “knowing English will be helpful in making friends”; their identity level on “learning English will be helpful in learning different cultures” is higher than “being minority-Chinese bilingual will be helpful in learning different cultures.” The above phenomenon may be ascribed to the students’ backgrounds and the social environments. The students in Yining No. 3 High School are from different ethnic groups, such as Uighur, Hazark and so on. It is easy for the students to make friends if they know each other’s minority languages. Because there are no foreign students in the school, they can’t make foreign friends whether their English is good or not. On the other hand, students in school can learn different minority cultures practically, but they just get in touch with the foreign cultures through reading some books or watching movies. Thus, the subjects’ identity levels on “learning English will be helpful in learning different cultures” is higher than that of “being minority-Chinese bilingual will be helpful in learning different cultures.”

**Holding the View that Bilingual or Multilingual Background Will Affect Language Learning Positively**
The mean of level Q4 was 4, and for Q9 it was 2.76, which suggests that most of the subjects do not agree on “learning minority language, Chinese, and English in childhood does harm to children’s learning
because of the confusion of the 3 languages,” but on “being minority-Chinese bilingual will be helpful in learning knowledge.” The two questions were cross-checked, which infers that the subjects hold identical views that bilingual or multilingual background will affect language learning positively.

The mean level of Q7 was 3.82, which suggests that most of the subjects agree on “learning minority language, Chinese and English in childhood will be helpful in intelligence development.” The mean level of Q12 was 4.08, inferring the subjects’ identities on “knowing English will be helpful in learning knowledge” is of high level.

The Relationship between Language Attitudes and English Learning

At the end of the 2013-2014 school year, the researchers collected all the subjects’ English final exam results. From the results, the research selected the top 10 subjects as the good English learner group (the average test score was 98.3) and the bottom 10 subjects as the bad English learner group (the average test score was 69.5). Twenty students were the subjects of this research section. The other students were the middle-level students and were not studied in the research. With the help of the software SPSS 17.0, the research drew the following conclusions:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 2. The Relationship between Language Attitudes and English Learning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Good Learners</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Average</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General language attitudes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instrumental language attitudes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Integrative language attitudes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language learning attitudes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q12</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*means “P<0.05,” which shows significant difference between good learners and bad learners.

The data show the significant differences between good learners and bad learners on the answers to Q10 (English is more important than minority language as well as Chinese) and Q15 (learning language will be helpful in learning the international cultures). For these two questions, the mean score of the good learners group was higher than that of the bad learners group and the identity level of the former group was much higher than the latter. The identity with the minority language is less relative to English learning.
Research Conclusion
This research investigated Uighur high school students’ language identity and analyzed the relationship between English learning and language identity. The conclusions are as follows: First, the subjects have a higher level of self-identity with Chinese and the minority language, but a lower level of identity with the minority written language and English. Second, the subjects hold a higher level of instrumental identity to English. Most of them believe that the man who masters English can find a good job and earn more money. Third, the subjects have a higher level of the integrative motivation to both English and the minority language. The subjects’ identity levels on “being minority-Chinese bilingual will be helpful in making friends” was higher than on “knowing English will be helpful in making friends”; their identity levels for “learning English will be helpful in learning different cultures” was higher than “being minority-Chinese bilingual will be helpful in learning different cultures.” Fourth, most subjects believed that it is helpful for students to master more languages. Bilinguals are cleverer than other people. Fifth, the research results showed that there are some positive relations between the students’ English learning and their language identity. Good learners hold a high level of the identity with English, viewing English as more important than the other languages (minority languages). They think learning English will be helpful in learning about the world.

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References
A Study of Lexical Communication Strategy Used by Chinese English Majors

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Abstract Based on Levelt’s speech production model, this paper carried out a qualitative research on lexical communication strategy (LCS) used by Chinese English majors under the current situation in China. The major findings showed that when Chinese English learners encountered difficulty in communication, they usually used reduction strategies, including message abandonment, message replacement and message reduction, and achievement strategies consisting of substitution strategies, substitution plus strategies, and reconceptualization. The results also revealed that the communicative environment can influence the use of LCS. Pedagogical implication was presented at the end.

Keywords speech production; lexical communication strategy; L2 learning; implication

Introduction
Research on communication strategy (CS) in China began in the early 1990s. Most was concerned with introducing and analyzing the theoretical aspects. Several empirical studies of CS have been carried out. For example, Chen Siqing (1990) was the first to examine the relationship between Chinese English majors’ target language proficiency and their strategic competence. Wang Limei (2008) conducted a survey on the gender differences of CS use by EFL learners. Quan Lihong and Zheng Yanmei (2014) surveyed the effects of language proficiency and gender on Chinese non-English majors’ use of oral CS. Compared with the studies in Western countries, CS research in the Chinese EFL learning environment is quite new and relatively inadequate, and little research focuses on lexical CS used by English majors; thus, this study attempted to fill in the gap.

Willem J.M. Levelt’s model of speech production has been widely used as the theoretical framework in L2 (second language) production. In this model, Levelt (1989) provides a four-stage of speech production, including conceptualization, lexicalization, articulation, and self-monitoring stages. Poulisse (1993) assumed that lexical communication strategy (LCS) is carried out within this model in the following way: the speaker sets up the preverbal plan by having planned the message in the conceptualizer. However, the formulator is unable to retrieve the lemma corresponding to the specific chunk of the preverbal plan, so the speech production process comes to a halt, and an alarm signal is sent to the monitor, which sends this information back to the conceptualizer. After some modifications, the conceptualizer sends a new preverbal plan, which the formulator either manages to process or, upon experiencing another problem, sets the above mechanism in motion again. When facing difficulties, learners could resort to one of two main options in lexical retrieval: a) abandon or change the original speech plan; b) keep the macro-plan unchanged and modify the preverbal message only (Poulisse, 1993). These two options are similar to the reduction and achievement behaviors provided by Færch and Kasper (1983), and both processes can be further broken down to different types of solutions.

For the first main option, the speaker can execute three different ways to solve the problems: (1) he/she may give up the intended message by adopting the avoidance strategy (message abandonment); (2) he/she may either have deleted or (3) replace other components of the intended communicative content. For the second option, Poulisse (1993) asserted that three main psycholinguistic processes could underlie
LCS. First, in the search for a new lemma, the speaker has to change or omit the conceptual specifications set in the preverbal message; thus, the original item can be substituted by an alternative one, and this is a substitution strategy. Second, besides the modification of the conceptual specifications of the lemma, the speaker may also apply L1 or L2 morphological and phonological encoding processes by using the substitution-plus strategy. The third process is the reconceptualization strategy, which involves the alteration of more than one chunk of the preverbal message. Based on the discussion, we can see that LCS refers to when the speaker is confronted with a lexical problem, which arises when he/she has set up a preverbal message containing chunks of conceptual, grammatical, and language information, and then finds the difficulty in accessing the lexical item to match all of the specifications for a particular chunk.

Research Objectives

The qualitative study centered on the LCS employed by Chinese English majors in institutional talk (e.g. classroom talk, English corner), as well as everyday conversation (e.g. chatting with friends). All the information is adopted from the observation in classroom and English corner and personal teaching experiences of the researcher. The purpose of the study is to clarify how LCS is used by Chinese English learners to help ease the difficulties in communicating in English under the current teaching and learning situations in China. So, the objectives include answering the following questions: (1) What are the content and function of each lexical strategy used by Chinese English majors? (2) What is the typical LCS used in different communicative situations?

Methodology

Subjects in the qualitative study were all the English majors in Linyi University, Shandong Province. As English majors, they are much eager to catch every chance to practice English than non-English major, so more examples of CS use could be observed. Thirty-six subjects were observed in the classroom conversations. Twelve subjects were observed in conversation in a natural environment. Altogether, 10 students were asked to do retrospection, 5 of them after the classroom and 5 after the conversation in the natural environment. The instruments employed included (1) observation, (2) verbal reporting (retrospective), and (3) interviewing. The natural observations were conducted once a week for three months at the English corner held by the University, and the classroom observation was carried out once a week in the researcher’s own classroom for three months. The interview was performed to clarify the data from the retrospective study if some confusing phenomena occurred. The interview questions focused on (1) Why do you use the strategy in the classroom/natural environment? (2) Why do you find it difficult in that situation?

The procedure was made in the following way. The researcher observed and recorded subjects’ speech performance in the natural and classroom interactions. During this process, the observer occasionally participated in the conversation and also kept notes to ensure that relevant information was noticed, particularly the information showing a problem and a possible use of a lexical CS in their utterances. A recorder was also used during the whole process so that the subjects could listen to the recording of their speech after the performance. The retrospection was conducted in Chinese so as to make sure it would be easier for the subjects to perform. All the speech performance data were transcribed and translated by the researcher.
Results and Discussions

Reduction Strategies

For the purpose of avoiding producing incorrect or non-fluent utterances by using insufficiently automatized or hypothetical rules/items, Chinese learners may decide to communicate by means of a “reduced” system in terms of content reduction. Speakers may leave the message incomplete, avoid certain L2 structures, or replace the original message due to the lack of linguistic resources, to use the rules and items which have well been internalized. The subjects mainly used the following reduction strategies.

**Message abandonment.** It means that the speaker leaves the message unfinished due to some language difficulty. For example, (in the classroom):

**Student:** The picture above is about two, mm — mm — two men/mm, they, mm — the picture below is about some young person to mm — to, to, ride bicycles.

**Retrospective comments:** Two men in the picture were doing “za ji” (acrobatics), but the word “za ji” was unavailable to me, neither could I explain it in an alternative way. Therefore, I chose not to talk about it.

**Explanation:** The student displayed his encoding problem pertaining to a noun “acrobatics” by the repetition of the word “two”, the lengthening of sound “m” and two pauses in his utterance. He tried to solve the problem by leaving the message unfinished and immediately going on to talk about the second picture. The topic was initiated but was cut short in the middle because the student had encountered a deficit resource. He relied on the strategy of message abandonment to tackle the problem.

**Message reduction.** This refers to reducing the message by avoiding certain language structures or problematic topics or by leaving out some intended elements for a lack of linguistic resources (Dörnyei & Kormos, 1998). Look at an example in the English corner:

**Student:** He is responsible … for the… for the cleanliness of the classroom, you know, he locks the door and er… at night and opens it… in the morning.

**Retrospective comment:** I couldn’t say what I intended to convey in English. My classmate did “qin gong jian xue” to help his study. I didn’t know how to say the phrase.

**Explanation:** The repetition of “for” and the fillers of “you know” indicate that the students met difficulty in expressing his ideas. The university makes some students keep the classroom clean, help the teachers to open and lock the doors so that they can get some funding to relieve their financial pressures. Since the lack of some basic linguistic words in expression, the student had to reduce what he said.

**Message replacement.** This means that the speaker substitutes the original message with a new message because of not feeling capable of executing it. For example, (in the English corner):

**Student A:** Do you believe there are some ghosts?

**Student B:** Well, well, mm…mm…. I’m not sure. Talking about ghosts, there really were some strange stories about ghosts. But…but… I don’t know.

**Retrospective comments:** I didn’t know how to answer this question. In my view, we shouldn’t believe there are some ghosts, but I couldn’t provide arguments. Finally, I had to say I didn’t know.
Explanation: From the repetition of the word “well” and the lengthening of the nasal consonant “m,” we can see Student A had problems to express his ideas. And the repetition of the word “but” indicates Student A didn’t find proper words to talk. So he gave an ambiguous answer. The research found that message abundant strategy is frequently employed in the English corner compared with in the classroom environment. This reflects that learning situation can influence CS use. On the one hand, when meeting difficulty, students have no choice but to give up their intention due to their limited vocabulary or relevant knowledge. On the other hand, as English majors, they are reluctant to avoid the topic. In most situations, they choose to relate a little to the topic before reducing what they want to express. Faerch and Kasper (1983, p. 44) point out that the distinction between the above three types of strategies are very fuzzy and arbitrary. They regard the distinction as forming a continuum: “At one end, the learner says ‘almost’ what he wants to say about a given topic (= meaning replacement); at the other end, the learners say nothing at all about this (= topic avoidance). Message avoidance lies at a certain point between the two ends” (Faerch, & Kasper, 1983, p. 44).

Achievement Strategies
By using achievement strategies, Chinese learners try to solve the encountered problems which may occur at all linguistic levels, but here we mainly focus on the problems resulting from the lack of lexical knowledge. It is found that they mainly used the following strategies to compensate for their lexical deficit.

Substitution strategies – Code switching. It means learners use L1 words with L1 pronunciation in L2 speech. This may involve stretches of discourse ranging from single words to whole chunks and even complete turns. For example, (in the classroom):

Student: Many people are care about their health now… I think, er, they usually go to the, the, the, jian shen fang … with all tools. I think people can keep healthy there.

Retrospective comments: I wanted to say people go to the place to do exercises. But I don’t know how to say the name of the place. So I had to use Chinese.

Explanation: From the repetition of “the”, we can see that the student met some difficulty in using the word “gymnasium”. In order to convey her idea, she inserted a Chinese expression, underinflated, into the interlanguage utterance to make herself understood by her partner. By using the strategy of code-switching, she succeeded in getting her meaning across.

The research found that students use more code-switching in a natural environment than in the classroom environment. An interviewee said, “As English majors, we have to try to catch every chance to practice English. I think it is ridiculous to switch to Chinese while talking to foreigners. But in free conversation with classmates, we sometimes switch to Chinese, hoping that the communication may go smoothly.”

Substitution strategies – Approximation. It refers to the use of single alternative lexical item, such as superordinate or a related term that shares semantic features with the target word or structure. For instance:

Student A: Do you think it is possible to have more commercials on TV?
Student B: Yes, I think so. For example, people can get more information and choose to buy some, some, family tools. (In daily conversation)
Retrospective comments: What I intended to say is “jia dian”, such as the refrigerator, air conditioner, washing machine, etc. But I couldn’t find the equivalent words at that moment. I thought the phrase “family tools” can be understood.

Explanation: The repetition of the word “some” indicated that a problem cropped up when the student B attempted to express his meaning. He used the phrase “family tools” to substitute for “household appliances”, since “family” is synonymous to “household” and “tools” to “appliance”. Using this strategy, he could express himself well to Student A. The results show that students often use superordinate terms to replace the relevant subordinate words, which are not used often. This might be due to the fact that students have frequently repeated the more general and common core words so that they can be retrieved easily. These superordinate words made great help in conversation.

Substitution strategies – Use of all-purpose words. This strategy means that L2 learner extends a general, “empty” lexical item to contexts when specific words are lacking. For instance, (in the classroom):

Student: And people are in the, the … to do..., make...doing sport game with their friends. They have much fun, you know, usually make people happy.

Student B: Yes, people play various sports games and make people healthy.

Retrospective comments: What I wanted to say was that people were playing sport games in the gymnasium to keep fit. But I failed to retrieve the words “gymnasium” and “keep fit.” I think “doing sports” could serve the meaning.

Explanation: The repetition of “the..., do..., make...” indicates that Student A was facing a problem. He used an all-purpose word “do” followed by “sports” to replace “keep fit in the gymnasium”. Student B tolerated the ambiguity and responded that various sports could make people healthy. By using all-purpose word “do”, Student A succeeded in expressing himself and kept the conversation channel open.

Substitution plus strategies – Word coinage. It refers to the creation of a nonexistent L2 word by compounding L2 words. For example, (in the English corner):

Student: My name is Wang Li. I am, a…a... mm...mm...her …her “majormate”.

Retrospective comments: At the beginning I wanted to say that I am a sophomore, but couldn’t find the proper word. The words such as classmate, roommate, and schoolmate are familiar to me and they are used to describe those who studying, living or working together. And at that moment, my friend just stood beside me, therefore, I added “mate” to “major” since we are studying the same subject in the same department.

Explanation: The repetition of the word “a” and the lengthening nasal consonant “m” in the example indicate the student met some difficulties in communication. When she couldn’t find the proper words, she just added some “prefix” or “suffix” to the familiar words. Although there is no such word as “majormate” in English, the coinage of the words could help to convey the intended meanings.

Substitution plus strategies – Literal translation. It refers to translation of a lexical item literally, an idiom, a compound word, or a structure from L1 to L2. Look at an example in the English corner:
Student: I think you should change your way of doing things. When you feel tired, or when you are stuck in a situation, and your head get... get... larger and larger. You need to have a rest and after a while you will find you can work more efficiently.

Retrospective comments: What I wanted to say was that when my friend felt tired, he had to stop to work since he felt “tou da”. But I didn’t know how to express this meaning, had to say “your head get larger and larger”. I knew it was not a correct expression.

Explanation: The use of CS is displayed by the repetition of the word “get” or “tou da”. It is a Chinese metaphor, which means one has a headache when he/she is tired or exhausted. The student translated this idiomatic expression literally, which is typical strategy of literal translation. It is found that many utterances produced by Chinese learners are the literal translation of Chinese equivalent. In the process of L2 learning, learners are influenced by their native language. So, for L2 learners, literal translation is a useful tool to solve communication problems and keep conversation going on.

Re-conceptualization – Restructuring. It refers to the speaker abandon the execution of a verbal plan due to language difficulties, leaving the utterance unfinished and communicating the intended message according to an alternative plan. Look at an example in the English corner:

Student: I have two — mm — one sister and one brother.

Retrospective comments: I wanted to say I have siblings, but the word was unavailable to me at that time. So I had to say I have one sister and one brother. That would be much easier.

Explanation: The lengthening nasal consonant “m” indicated the problem in communication. When the student found that “two” should be followed by one word, which she couldn’t retrieve, she had to change the way of expressing. The strategy of restructuring is usually marked by self-repair.

Re-conceptualization – Circumlocution. It refers to the exemplifying, describing of the properties of the target objet or action. For example, (in the classroom):

Student: Chinese people use mm..., er..., use some tool, mm… device when they have meals, just as foreigners use forks and knives. Mm, usually they are made from bamboo, mm… wood, metal, etc.

Retrospective comments: I have learned the word “chopsticks”, but I just couldn’t recall it. So I described the material to convey my meaning.

Explanation: From the lengthening nasal consonant “m”, we can see that the student met a difficulty to express his meaning. The lack of the word “chopsticks” made the student use a round-about-way to express his meaning. This made the communication continue on smoothly. It is found that students often use the strategy of circumlocution. This may be due to the fact that teachers usually give definitions, explanations, and examples to help students understand the meaning of a lexical item. Students are influenced by the teaching process and incorporate it into their own way when confronting difficulty in communication.

Pedagogical Implication
Based on the findings, some pedagogical implications for language teaching are provided. First, although this research mainly focused on the study of LCS, it is advisable that CS should be incorporated into syllabus and textbooks because students would benefit from being familiarized with a large range of strategies. Practitioners may design and develop lessons that can enhance students’ strategic competence...
by using LCS. Second, it is necessary for teachers to make students fully understand the communicative potential of CS. An effective approach is to discuss with them what are “good” or “bad” strategies by analyzing their performance in communicative activities. The “conscious-raising based on learners’ own performance and experience is a fruitful way of developing procedural knowledge” (Haastrup, 1990). LCS enables learners to cope with the vocabulary deficits during the initial phase of speech production and gives students more confidence, so words with general meaning or some core vocabulary should be given priority in teaching so that learners can describe characteristics, properties, and function of the target language easily, and use the general meaning to replace the specific meaning at time of difficulties.

References
On the Innovative Research of Training Application-Oriented English Interpreting Talents in Guangdong Province

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[Abstract] In recent years, with the increasing demand for practical English interpreters in the talent market, many colleges and universities in Guangdong Province run English interpretation courses in order to cultivate English interpreters. However, due to various reasons, the current interpreting teaching is not optimistic, English interpreters graduating from colleges and universities have great difficulty meeting the demand in the talent market. In view of this situation, this paper considers innovative training patterns of interpretation and innovation talents based on empirical research to integrate the interpretation teaching and market demand in the hope of training more qualified Chinese-English interpreters.

[Keywords] practical; interpretation training; innovation

Introduction
With the increasing international exchanges in Guangdong Province, the export-oriented economy develops constantly; the demand for Chinese-English interpreters in diplomacy, culture, tourism, commerce, and many other industries grows gradually. Training qualified interpreters who meet the needs of the talent market has become a top priority. The main task of the application-oriented undergraduate colleges and universities is to cultivate competent talents. Therefore, reform and innovation of the training pattern of English interpreting talents is of practical significance.

Theoretical Basis – Constructivism
Constructivism is a theory of knowledge that argues that humans generate knowledge and meaning from interaction between their experiences and their ideas. It has influenced a number of disciplines, including psychology, sociology, education, and the history of science (Eddy, 2004). Jean Piaget was the founder of constructivism. Piaget’s theory of constructivist learning has had wide-ranging impact on learning theories and teaching methods in education and is an underlying theme of many education reform movements. Research supporting for constructivist teaching techniques has been mixed.

The Research of the Innovative Training Pattern of the Market-Oriented English Interpreters
Teaching patterns are divided into the traditional teaching pattern and the teaching pattern aided by computer multimedia. The traditional interpreting teaching pattern is the “teacher + students + teaching material / tape / video + chalk” pattern. The teaching pattern, aided by computer multimedia, is a teaching auxiliary means, which restricts the interpreting teaching to the classroom. The former emphasizes imparting knowledge and ignoring the skills training, regarding the teacher as the center and the students as passive learners. Because classroom interaction is not enough in the traditional teaching pattern, teaching lacks the on-the-spot scene of interpretation. The purpose of the latter is to enhance the teaching effects and means and to break the limitations of the classroom and textbook (Chen, 2002). In addition to
the above pattern, there are two influential patterns: “Guangwai Pattern” (Guandong University of Foreign Studies) and “Xiada Pattern” (Xia Men University) in the mainland of China. Both are based to target the training the English interpreters in universities, setting multiple interpreting patterns to guide the interpreting teaching in the university (Liu & Xu, 2011).

**Multiple Interpreting Teaching Patterns**

*Experiential Teaching Pattern*

The vigorous development of English teaching and the advanced multimedia technology provide the basic conditions for the experiential interpretation teaching pattern. The application of the experiential interpreting teaching pattern to the interpreting teaching of English majors can be divided into two stages: the basic training and the topic training. According to the characteristics of the experiential teaching pattern and the features of the English major, the teaching of experiential interpretation is applied by taking different levels (Sun & Hu, 2011).

The Experiential English Interpreting Teaching Pattern can be divided into three levels: the first one focuses on the decomposition exercise of interpreting skills so as to enable students to lay a solid foundation, including obtaining information, logical analysis, short-term memory, interpreting note-taking, public speaking, and interpreting figures; the second one is to accumulate topic knowledge and consolidate the interpreting skills. The difficulty of the training material will gradually increase with the subjects, including tourism, sports, education, politics, economy, diplomacy, foreign trade, environmental protection, national defense, and so on. At this stage, the intensity of the practice should be strengthened with the training time of interpretation. The third one mainly focuses on the simulative practice to train the students' on-the-spot performance ability. By holding news conferences, press conferences, and the simulation of the national leaders' speeches and other interpreting activities, it aims to enhance the students' actual interpreting ability and improve their interpreting level.

*Interactive Teaching Pattern*

The Interactive Teaching Pattern requires students to form a closed team and practice together, including pair (two-members) exercise of dictation memory, the pair practice of more members, and the pair practice of sight interpreting and consecutive interpreting (Wang, 2010). Pair practice focuses on the interaction in which one interprets and the other one records the missing information and misinformation so as to enhance the accuracy of each other and improve the ability and level of interpretation in the process of repeated interaction practice.

*Cooperative Teaching Pattern*

The Cooperative teaching pattern is mainly composed of the classroom teaching category, multi-dimension discussion category, network interactive category, and social practice category, which are synchronous and promoted mutually (Kang, 2012). In order to improve students' interpreting initiative and confidence and increase their interest in interpreting training, interpreting teachers can adopt the cooperative training pattern, and the students’ learning methods of interpreting are improved by two aspects of in-class and after-class practice. The students are divided into several groups in a relaxed communication environment. In the class, each group will discuss the lesson after finishing the record and video and choose a representative to interpret the context. To ensure that each student has the opportunity to practice interpreting, the representative must be different every time. Single-classroom interpreting
training will make the students feel bored after a long time. Therefore, applying entertainment and fun to interpreting teaching is another major advantage. For example, excerpts of English films and English talk shows are employed as proper materials.

Innovative Teaching Methods

**Scenario Simulation Teaching Method**

The Scenario Simulation Teaching Method is a virtual, practical teaching method. Application of the Scenario Simulation Teaching Method in the teaching of interpretation can be taken in the form of simulation press conferences, simulation of the United Nations General Assembly, and simulation of the Canton Fair. In accordance with the teaching schedule, a mock press conference, which is divided into a small-scale one and a large-scale one, takes place very four weeks. The small press conference is completed by two students. For example, the materials of Premier Wen Jiabao's press conference is chosen, and a student acts a spokesman while another acts as an interpreter. A large-scale pattern should be participated in by all the classmates at the same time. Before the activity, all roles should be arranged, including the host, interpreters, spokesmen, and journalists. The students are required to have a good pre-interpreting preparation for the activity in advance. Appropriate materials should be chosen, such as the press conference of the Shenzhou Ten Astronauts (Qu, 2013) and the 3rd Session of the 12th National Committee of CPPCC with five distinguished guests, Zhu Weiqun, Huang Jiefu, Hu Xiaoyi, Yu Minhong, and Li Yanhong (Xie, 2015). The mock press conference has to be conducted as realistically as possible for the purpose of allowing students to practice their English interpretation in a true simulation context. The students can not only experience the real process of the press conference, but also enhance their ability of conference interpretation skills and application. This activity can improve the students’ team cooperation spirit and ability, which promotes the complete success of the press conference.

For over 50 years, students have organized, conducted, and participated in a simulation of international organizations. This sophisticated simulation of current international affairs is called the Model United Nations (MUN) (Muldoon, 1995). In the event, the young students play different roles of the diplomatic representatives from different countries or other political entities, and they are involved in the heated issues concerning the world. The representatives abide by the rules of the procedure, the chairman of the conference hosts the conference, every representative makes a speech to explain the representatives' view, debating, negotiating, and lobbying for their own “national interest”. They communicate with friendly countries to resolve conflicts, draft resolutions, and vote to promote international issues. In the simulation of the United Nations General Assembly, the young students personally experience the operation mode of the United Nations and other multilateral deliberative bodies, basic international relations, and diplomatic knowledge; they also gain an understanding of the influence of the events happening in the world in their future and their functions in the future. Through this activity, the students’ ability to interpret English is greatly enhanced.

The China Import and Export Fair, also known as the Canton Fair, is held biannually in Guangzhou in the spring and autumn. In the simulated Canton Fair, the students play different roles. Some act as businessmen, others interpreters. The Simulation Canton Fair promotes the application ability of English interpreting and improves their comprehensive strength. In the simulation of the Canton Fair, by combining theory and practice, the English interpreter should smoothly make commodity trades and satisfy the buyers and vendors. Therefore, they need to handle unexpected things flexibly in order to
ensure the successful completion of the transaction. In this way, the students can not only enrich their knowledge of interpretation, but also improve their actual ability of interpreting, psychological bearing, and adaptability.

**Case Method of Teaching**

The Case Method of Teaching, which is also known as the Socratic Method of Teaching, is a teaching approach that uses decision-forcing cases to put students in the role of people who were faced with difficult decisions at some time in the past. In sharp contrast to many other teaching methods, the case method requires instructors refrain from providing their own opinions about the decisions in question. Rather, the chief task of instructors who use the case method is asking students to devise and defend solutions to the problems at the heart of each case (Corey, 1998). This method was initiated by Harvard University.

According to the teaching method, the teacher writes or chooses the case before the class. In the phase of organizing the implementation, first of all, the teacher divides all students in a class into several groups, allocating tasks for each group and describing the roles of each group; as a unit, each group simulates the case. The teacher should supervise and encourage each student to actively participate, making the students play different roles to practice a variety of interpretations. By the vivid means, students can not only understand the content of the text, but also unconsciously look for the best expressions, and their memory of vocabulary has been greatly mobilized, which makes students aware of their own shortcomings, realizing the discrepancy between idea and practice, so as to enhance their desire to further acquire knowledge and skills. After the case simulation, each group should analyze, discuss, debate, and draw conclusions about better expressions in view of questions occurring in the process of the activity. At the same time, it also gives the students a chance to learn how to properly express themselves in front of everyone and be able to deal with a variety of issues (Zhang, 2008).

**Practice Teaching Method**

Practice is the act of rehearsing a behavior over and over or engaging in an activity again and again for the purpose of improving or mastering it, as in the phrase "practice makes perfect." The practice teaching method includes practice means such as English interpretation club, English interpreting camp, practice in Translation Company and foreign trade companies, and the Canton Fair.

The English Interpreting Club was established in South China Business College in September 2012. Currently, there are 110 students from sophomores and seniors. Its purpose is to inspire students’ interests in interpreting. Every Tuesday and Thursday afternoon, the English Interpreting Club is held under the guidance of the teacher. In addition, the interpreting club often invites the graduate students from Guangdong University of Foreign Studies. The students share their learning methods, learning, and practice resources, and give impromptu English interpretations. The English Interpreting Club provides a good platform for students to communicate with each other and improve their interpreting ability.

An English interpreting training camp is composed of outstanding students from the interpreting club and aims at strengthening and improving students' interpreting ability and training interpreters to participate in provincial and national interpretation competitions. Based on the previous training in the interpretation club, the students have mastered the basic interpreting skills. In the English interpreting training camp, the difficulty and intensity of practice material should be updated. Interpreting training camp focuses on interpreting practice; therefore, the theory only accounts for a small proportion. The
main task is to practice different topics with more difficult materials, such as politics, economy, culture, finance, and diplomacy. The whole training process is divided into many different work items. According to the different positions, the work task should be clarified. In a high-pressure environment, the practice enables students to finish all the tasks in the simulation scenario within the limited time and increase the students' interpreting skills rapidly.

The Practice in Translation Company and foreign trade companies is an effective teaching method. The colleges and universities can establish some practice bases, including Translation Company and foreign trade companies. The colleges and universities send the students to participate in the English interpreting practice. First, escort interpreting is the main interpreting task. Second, English interpreting students are also engaged in consecutive interpreting, continuing to accumulate a large amount of interpreting knowledge, enhance their oral expression abilities and their communication abilities, which promote the students' abilities to interpret more accurately and smoothly, constantly enhance their service awareness, and develop their sense of responsibility.

The students in Guangzhou have the advantages of participating in the China Import and Export Commodities Fair (Canton Fair). Many students are sent to act as interpreters for some companies, such as at the Hong Kong International Jewelry Exhibition, Guangzhou International Footwear Exhibition, Guangzhou International Furniture Fair, and so on. During the exhibition, the students are responsible for the sales and the bilingual assistant work, as well as for the daily scheduled business negotiation. Through this practice, students improve their interpreting skills by their choosing the appropriate words and flexibly changing their thinking ways in the different positions of the buyers and sellers, and helping the two sides carry out the transaction successfully. In addition, the students have also widened their business knowledge, broadened their horizons, improved their self-confidence, and enhanced their ability to respond. By communicating with English customers with different accents, students have also greatly enhanced the ability to identify accents from different countries and interpret them accurately.

Conclusion

Based on the present teaching situation of English interpreters in the colleges and universities, the innovative training pattern of application – oriented English interpreters is put forward, which is committed to enhancing the students' abilities in English interpreting, improve their the students’ bilingual skills, improve their oral expression ability, develop a strong psychological quality, improve their rapid response capability, enrich their knowledge, train their good team spirit, and improve their professional ethics through personal experience. In the meantime, the English interpretation teaching effects can be improved so that more and more excellent interpreters are trained and the interpreting talents market is constantly optimized.

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References
A Connectionist Study of Chinglish within English Majors’ English Writing

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[Abstract] Informed by the theory of connectionism, this paper takes second-grade English majors’ English compositions as samples and focuses on the two-level manifestations of Chinglish within them. Based on these manifestations, this research gives a connectionist theoretic explanation of the production of Chinglish by Chinese English learners, and attempts to provide some solutions.

[Keywords] English majors; English writing; Chinglish; connectionism

Introduction
To many Chinese English majors, English writing is still a question in that they have been accustomed to the way of Chinese thinking and their English output is Chinglish, which might not be acceptable to native English speakers. Chinglish, which is usually produced by beginners and sometimes by advanced English learners too, is a type of nonstandard English which is produced by Chinese learners of English with interference of Chinese thoughts, cultures and so forth (Lv, 2007). Chinglish violates many rules of native expressions, and it is essential to point out Chinglish in English majors’ English compositions, to analyze the nonstandard language and then to work out reasonable measures to minimize it.

Therefore, this paper focuses on the manifestations of Chinglish within the second graders’ English writing and attempts to find out solutions. With the chosen English Major students of Jilin Agricultural University as the participants, the research collected their English language output and analyzed the causes of their Chinglish from a connectionist theoretic perspective. It is firmly believed that the study is significant both in improving the English majors’ English learning and in the teachers’ English language teaching. Regarding students, if they understand the reasons of their errors, they will learn English in a more positive and effective way. To teachers, if they know the causes of Chinglish, they will be more tolerant of their students’ errors and find out better solutions to their problems. It is hoped that the analyses and implications will contribute to better English learning and teaching.

Manifestations of Chinglish within English Majors’ English Writing
This research chose the second-grade English Major students from the School of Foreign Languages of Jilin Agricultural University as participants, allowing them to describe a designated series of cartoon pictures and write down their descriptions. These English majors have had at least seven years of English education. All of them have learned about the culture of English-speaking countries and learned English grammar and vocabulary, so they are familiar with basic English skills. After their writing, a foreign language teacher, who is a native English speaker, was invited to evaluate the compositions. He should point out Chinglish words or expressions, but all the misspelling and grammatical mistakes were ignored. With the help of the foreign teacher, this research analyzed the data and classified the results. Generally speaking, Chinglish expressions manifested themselves in the following levels.
**Lexical Level**

Words are the basic units of a language. Within the second-grade English majors’ compositions, Chinglish manifests itself at the lexical level.

**Literal translation.** Due to over-literature translation, the English majors presented the problem of Chinese-conception transfer.

*Example 1: In the fourth picture, the doctor takes care of the little boy and said the little wound will be better soon.*

Here, the intended meaning “will be cured soon” was replaced by “will be better soon”. It is a common feature of Chinese students to translate literally from Chinese into English.

*Example 2: The walking man was happy when he saw the hurted man has nothing.*

In this sentence, the intended meaning “the man was not badly hurt” was replaced by “the hurted man has nothing”. It is another typical word for word translation from Chinese conception.

**Redundancy.** Redundancy is one of the most common phenomena of Chinglish, which comes out as adding redundant words because of literal translation (Wang, 2008). For example, Chinese learners might write, “because it needs to spend too much time and too much money” (Zhou, 2008). In this sentence, “to spend” and “too much money and too much time” overlap because time and money are spent by people, and if “spend” is deleted, the meaning of the sentence will be succinct. The following examples are from the data of this research.

*Example 1: So kindness will always bring happiness and good things, maybe good luck to you, but if you did something bad, you will definitely get a bad adversity.*

This student wanted to write down “adversity”, but she used “bad adversity” instead. According to Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English (2005), “adversity” means a situation in which you have a lot of problems that seem to be caused by bad luck. Thus, the expression of “bad adversity” is a typical expression of redundancy, of Chinglish.

*Example 2: Jean and the doctor were happy. As we can see, there are smiles on their faces.*

The above sentence is not typical of native English expressions though Chinese people can understand its meaning. According to Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English (2005), “smile” means an expression on your face in which your mouth curves upwards to show that you are happy, amused, friendly, etc. “Smile” has held the feature of “on the face”, so it is not necessary to put “on the face” as the modifier.

**Coinage.** The causes of coinage can be two-fold. First, it is because of overgeneralization. Second, it is to reach the accuracy of understanding. Productive vocabulary and receptive vocabulary are the two components of learners’ acquired vocabulary (Wen & Guo, 1998). When English learners encounter difficulties in English writing and can not find other expressions as substitutes, they head into a blind alley. Learners will extract lexicon from the receptive vocabulary the moment they find their productive vocabulary is not enough. Although receptive vocabulary is more accepted, they may not be applied properly by second language learners, and then coinage appears.

*Example 1: The school boy helped the little boy get on a bed, and the nurse was holding a bottle of water.*

In the sentence, “holding”, actually does not exist. “Held” is the past tense or past participle of “hold”. “Holding” is the right form of the present tense of “hold”. The following is another example by using “hurted” as the past participle of “hurt”.


**Example 2:** The walking man was happy when he saw the hurted man has nothing.

**Syntactical Level**
Besides Chinglish manifestations at the lexical level, incomplete component and improper collocation are two manifestations of Chinglish of the English majors at the syntactical level.

**Incomplete component.** Typical of Chinese English, incomplete component appears commonly in the compositions of English majors too. There are many manifestations of this phenomenon. For example, there is the lack of verbs. Sometimes, the meaning of a Chinese sentence remains complete if there is no verb. However, in English, which emphasizes cohesion, a verb is indispensable.

*Example 1:* One day, a boy walking on the road, and there have many trees beside the road.

*Example 2:* Then in the second picture, a boy falling down from his bike.

Both of the sentences are lacking the link verb “is”, which is grammatically wrong in the English language.

**Improper collocation.** Owing to the distinct differences between English and Chinese, there are many phrases used commonly in each language and a wrong collocation will lead to an error in meaning. Students are often influenced by the thinking mode of Chinese language and produce wrong English sentences.

*Example 1:* ... and the boy feels thanks for the boy who helped him.

*Example 2:* One day, a boy walking on the road, and there have many trees beside the road.

In Example 1, the predicate “feel thanks for” is a literal translation of the student’s own Chinese thinking, but it is not the correct expression of English. It should be the collocation of “be grateful/thankful to sb”. While in Example 2, the sentence pattern “there be” is used by “there have” instead, which is a Chinglish example quite common within Chinese students’ English compositions.

**A Connectionist Explanation of Chinglish**
Connectionism, also known as PDP (Parallel Distributed Processing) Theory, relates to the inspiration from what is known as neuro-physiological activity in the brain (Wang, 2008). The connectionist account adopts the analogy of brain-style neuronal interactions (i.e. the fact that we have brains which are made up of millions of interconnected neurons which can be viewed as “on-off” switches) and proposes that our cognitive system works in a very similar way (Forrester, 1996).

In the Second Language Acquisition perspective, Green (1993) notes that an effect of a delay in lexicon comprehension owing to competition between plausible first language and second language candidates for recognition has been modeled in a single-language framework (i.e., where the competitors are from the same language) using connectionism frameworks; Grass & Selinker (1994) evoked the relevance of connectionism to current theories of how second language words relate to each other in the learner’s mind.

According to the theory of connectionism, before learners learn a second language, the mother tongue has already rooted in their brains. When the learners encounter difficult situations because of the lack of target language expressions, they will turn to their mother tongue to cover the insufficiency. This mechanism is commonplace among the Chinese learners of English, whereas the more the learners use their mother tongue, the higher degree this mechanism is strengthened. The analogy between the target language and mother tongue makes Chinese learners produce Chinglish and that’s how mother tongue works on second language acquisition (Wang, 2008).
The meaning space of Chinese and English is rather similar, and lexicon exists in semantically meaningful connections. Second language output sometimes fails because the poor links between the meanings of the two languages discourage the second language learners from producing any target language, and they have to resort to their mother tongue for help (Wang, 2008). In other words, Chinglish appears because the connections of the target language are too weak to retrieve the semantically connected target language words, and the first language mental lexicon which is directly derived from his mind is resorted to. Therefore, to Chinese English learners, even to English Majors, the appearance of Chinglish within their compositions is unavoidable in the beginning period of their English learning, and it is a linguistic phenomenon that both teachers and students need to pay much attention to and endeavor to eradicate.

**Implications and Conclusion**

Chinglish has always been a very frequently discussed topic for many scholars, while this research adopts a connectionist-theoretic perspective to probe into the explanation of Chinglish. The participants of the research were all second-grade English Major students and they had studied English for at least seven years, so they had a good basic knowledge and would make fewer grammatical mistakes. Definitely, this study not only wants to discover problems, but also provide some advice to solve these problems. Through all the analyses above, the research believes that the following propositions will be helpful to the minimization of Chinglish.

With limited contact with English-speaking environment and native English speakers, English majors should use English-English dictionaries more. It is necessary to be aware that it is not enough to only know the spelling and the pronunciation of a word, and there is a need to master the word’s accurate meaning and collocation. Only the correct and standard input will lead learners to a more native output.

English majors should also be clearly aware that there are rarely equivalents between English and Chinese in the process of English vocabulary learning. Therefore, more efforts should be put on learning a combination of pronunciation, spelling and meaning of mental lexicon, as well as on studying their depth and width, which will make room for the balanced development in every aspect of knowledge. Hence, the failure to communicate caused by being unable to understand the exact meaning of words or to choose the right words will be successfully avoided.

Furthermore, teachers should also take measures to improve students’ abilities in English learning. For example, English teachers should cultivate students’ cross-cultural consciousness. That is to say, teachers should not only help them to promote linguistic skills, but also introduce the culture of the target language to the students. English teachers should have a good command of the language and pay more attention to language in use rather than to grammar. What’s more, they should take an appropriate attitude towards Chinglish and correct students’ Chinglish in proper ways.

Owing to individual unavailability and time limitations, this research is by no means exhaustive, for language is a complex system and many other unexpected factors might come into being, which are within the expectation of further research.

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The Application and Effect of Teachers’ Questioning in Vocational College English Class

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[Abstract] This paper illustrates the status quo of questioning in English classes in Higher Vocational Colleges from the perspectives of question types, question distribution, initiator of questions, and wait-times. This paper finds several problems in the present high vocational English class: the preferred display questions, small participation of students in answering questions, the teacher questioning initiator, and short wait-time. To solve these problems, the paper poses three suggestions: scientifically setting questions before class, properly adjusting questioning skills and strategies, and appropriately giving feedback.

[Keywords] higher vocational English class; referential questions; question distribution; initiator of questions; wait-time

Introduction
It was in the early 1980s that China began to carry out higher vocational education. During 20 years of exploration and practice, higher vocational education developed vigorously. At present, more and more English teachers in vocational colleges having been trying to transfer the “teacher-centered” English class into a “student-centered” class, and they are urging to change the teaching emphasis from grammatical competence to communicative competence. Their aims are to develop the students’ overall English proficiency and improve their communicative competence. However, due to the impact of the traditional concept for an English class, there is still a long way to go to overcome reality – the teacher-centered, examination-oriented English class – with their aims. To challenge traditional language teaching, the Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) model is recommend as an effective and efficient teaching pattern to arouse students’ interests in learning English and to motivate them to sense, experience, practice and cooperate under the teachers’ instruction. This new teaching pattern stimulates English teachers of high vocational classes to transform the traditional exam-oriented, grammar-focused class into a communication-oriented, student-centered class. Until now, do their aims come into reality? To investigate the effects of their application, the author will study the English classroom from the perspective of teachers’ questioning.

The motives why the author chose the teachers’ questioning as the angle for research is due to the following reasons. Questioning is a very important pattern of classroom interaction. They reflect the teacher’s beliefs of what counts in effective teaching and learning, plus they demonstrate the role of both teacher and students (Tan, 2007). By analyzing the teachers’ questioning, it can be easily seen whether the class organization is teacher-centered or student-centered.
Review of Relevant Literature

Two Typical Classifications of Teachers Questioning
Teacher questions constitute one-sixth to one-tenth of all classroom interaction time (Dunkin & Biddle, 1974), and are asked between 300-400 times a day (Leven & Long, 1981), so it is highly important to study the classification of questions. Questions can be classified in different ways according to different criterion, and the following two typical classifications are widely accepted.

First, it is the display and referential questioning classification that attracts the most research attention (Long & Sato, 1983; Brock, 1986; Nunan, 1991). A display question is “not a real question (i.e. which does not seek information unknown to the teacher) but which serves to elicit language practice” (Richards, et al. 2000b, p. 142), while the referential question “asks for information which is not known to the teacher” (Richards, et al. 2000b, p. 390). On the one hand, when the teacher asks a display question, there is only one correct answer for each question and the teacher already knows the answer. On the other hand, if the teacher asks a referential question, the question can be answered in several ways; the answers are usually not known to the teacher, and can be used to seek information.

Secondly, according to Bloom (1956), questions can be divided into two levels: low cognitive level and high cognitive level. Low cognitive level questions include questions on knowledge, comprehension, and application. High cognitive level questions include analysis, synthesis and evaluation questions. As for knowledge questions, they involve the students’ ability to remember information in basically the same form as they were presented, and answers can be easily judged as right or wrong if compared with the original source. Comprehension questions includes the processing information so that the meaning is clear, so in answering these questions, the students often use these words: “mean”, “explain”, “define”, and so on. Application questions are used to ask students to apply what they have learned to a new situation. Analysis level questions develop students’ ability to take apart some complex phenomena to show how it works. Synthesis questions are used to help students to form relationships and put what they have learned together in new or original ways. Evaluation questions need students to judge which is good, and which is bad, and which is right and which is wrong according to some criteria.

Functions of Teachers’ Questions
Questions are used as an effective tool to create an interactive teaching and learning atmosphere. According to H. D. Brown (2005, p. 165), there are four main functions of teacher questions. First, students’ interest and motivation can be stimulated so that they would like to take part in the interaction. Second, appropriate questions can be an interesting discussion topic which can bring out continuous interaction among students, and they may even have a follow-up conversation. Third, by checking how well students answer the questions, the teacher can learn how well the students have grasped the learning content so that the teacher can continue on to explain the students’ linguistic or content difficulties. Fourth, teachers’ questions can help students form a critical thinking mode and also help to cultivate their courage to air their views in front of classmates.

Questioning Distribution and Initiator of Questions
According to D. Nunan (1991), question distribution means that teachers tend to ask questions in a small area of students in the class. Teachers usually give more chances to the students sitting in the front and middle of the classroom to answer questions. If questions were asked to the whole class in chorus, they
are known as “general solicitations”. If questions were asked to an individual student, this kind of question can be called “personal solicitation”.

The initiator of the questions refers to the person who initiates questions: teachers or students. In a teacher-centered classroom, questions are usually raised by the teachers, while in a student-centered classroom, students have more opportunities to ask questions.

The Status Quo of Teachers’ Questioning in the Vocational College English Classroom
First, as for the questioning types in the class, both display questions and referential questions are put forward by teachers, and display question are far more likely to be posed by teachers. These questions are usually about the pronunciation of a fresh word or its spelling, meanings of new words or phrases, sentence structure, main ideas of a paragraph or a text, or grammatical points. What’s more, the questions can also be traditionally classified into two levels – high cognitive level and low cognitive level. Low cognitive level questions are more frequently posed by the teachers.

Second, as for the question distribution, chorus answering is often adopted by English teachers when the questions are distributed. In accordance, the teachers pose many questions without a definite object. What’s more, some teachers tend to ask more questions of students sitting in the front of the class than those in the back of the classroom. Some teachers tend to ask more questions of girls than of boys, or vice versa. Some teachers tend to ask more questions of high achievers than low achievers.

Third, as for the questioning initiator, most of the teachers and students believe that it is quite unusual for students to ask questions in class. The students in high vocational school are reluctant to ask questions in class mainly because of their poor English proficiency and low interest and motivation in learning. In class, the teachers have a slightly short wait time and they don’t give the students enough opportunity to respond to the questions.

Strategies for Questioning in the High Vocational English Class
Questioning plays a crucial role in the success of the English class, and in order to solve the present questioning problems, several strategies are posed as follows.

Scientifically Setting Questions Before Class
An effective question should include the following criteria according to Penny Ur (2000):

1. Clarity – The clarity of the questions means that the moment the question is posed to the students, they can grasp what the question means, and what kind of answer is required.
2. Learning Value – The learning value of a question means the question can stimulate the students to learn more new knowledge such as fresh words, phrases, and grammar, which is helpful to students’ further learning.
3. Interest, – The interest of the question means the question can arouse students’ interests and they have the desire to answer it. Therefore, the questions should be relevant to the students’ daily lives or their experiences.
4. Availability – Availability means the teachers can design different levels of questions that suit different levels of students.
5. Extension – Extension means the question can encourage extended or varied answers.
6. Teacher Reactions – The students feel safe to answer questions even if the students’ questions are inappropriate.
What’s more, teachers not only need to guarantee the quality of the questions, but also need to employ both display and referential questions. Display questions are more frequently used in the present English classes. Teachers should ask more referential questions which can motivate their students’ involvement in the learning activities.

**Properly Adjusting Questioning Skills and Strategies**

First, based on the present status, teachers should throw a question to the whole class so that more students will participate in the school activities rather than just ask a certain student. Meanwhile, the teacher needs to ask one or more students to answer the question so that the interaction can be more specific, rather than ask the students to answer the question in chorus.

Second, regarding wait-time, based on the status quo, students are usually given 0-3 seconds of consideration, and after that, they need to answer it immediately. In fact, that’s not enough time for students to think. In accordance, teachers should properly increase the wait-times for students to get enough preparation. This is one effective way to encourage students to actively participate in the class activities.

Third, students’ acquisition of the knowledge is not only from teachers’ teaching, but also from the discussion and questioning among students themselves. Therefore, in class, the questions should not only be from the teacher, but also from the students themselves, which can be good to create a relaxing learning environment and be helpful to reduce the students’ anxieties and stress coming from questioning.

** Appropriately Giving Feedback**

Appropriate feedback is a helpful way to motivate students to take part in the classroom interaction. Therefore, the feedback that can help students to positively engage in class interaction should be given by teachers more frequently. It is inappropriate for teachers to provide no feedback or basic feedback, such as “good”, “great”, and “OK”; this, in fact, can insult students’ confidence and interest. On the contrary, teachers should give different feedback to different students. For shy students, more encouragement is needed, and to encourage students to take part in the communication activities, teachers should give more feedback on the students’ answering content and fluency.

**Conclusion**

In the English classes of the higher vocational college, teachers’ questioning is an indispensable part in teaching and learning English. Teachers use questions to give students instruction, enlighten them, dominate the talking time, and give positive feedback to motivate students. After deep consideration of effective questions and the answers, students can not only be enlightened, but also progress in their communicative ability.

To sum up the present situation of English classes in high vocational college, we have a general understanding of the English classroom from the perspective of teachers’ questioning. Their major concern and orientation in English learning and teaching is the examination but not the communication.

Facing the present situation, several suggestions are presented. Referential questions should be posed more frequently, the questions should cover more students in the classroom, the wait-times should be longer to allow students enough preparation, these questions should motivate students to pose questions among themselves, and give different and appropriate feedback to different students in different situations. Maybe this will provide some useful references for English learning and teaching.
References


A Basal Study on the Phenomenon of “Chinese Culture Aphasia” in College Students’ English Study – Based on a Survey of Chifeng University

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[Abstract] As a global language, English has played an important role in the dominant position that cannot be ignored in the widespread trend of integration all over the world. In China, English teaching is popular from elementary to higher education. It has achieved a remarkable effect. Chinese college students have a common symptom of speechlessness in most cases, which is called “aphasia”, on expressing the contents of Chinese culture, even though they have learned English for more than a decade. This thesis mainly discusses the aphasia of Chinese culture in undergraduates’ studies and makes a cause analysis based on the survey result of Chifeng University. And last, the author puts forward some solutions for “Chinese Culture Aphasia” and draws a conclusion. English teaching should not only teach language itself. It is supposed to teaching culture related to Chinese in English.

[Keywords] Chinese Culture Aphasia; English teaching; solving methods

Introduction
Language, the most indispensable means of communication for human beings, is also a major informational carrier of social culture. Along with the rapid advancement of the world, English has been regarded as a universal communicative vehicle for several decades in contemporary society (Howatt, 1999). English should not to be viewed as a tool, but also as an indispensable component of cultural transmission. After the Reform and Opening-up of China, the emphasis of Chinese English teaching excessively aimed at the culture of English-speaking countries. Numerous English learners, especially college students of China, have acquired a lot of knowledge of the English language but cannot introduce our native civilization in English to foreign people. This phenomenon is called “Chinese Culture Aphasia”. It was clearly put forward as a terminology by Nanjing University’s professor, Cong Cong. College students, the hope of China, are considered to be a valuable elitist resource of our nation (Cong, 2000). The education of higher schools should pay more attention to their development. So, the author conducted a survey among students, including English majors, are troubled by “Chinese Culture Aphasia”. They all come from different departments of Chifeng University. Based on literature review of the study domestically and overseas, the author tries to find out the common issue from the investigation result, then obtain a series of solutions for “Chinese Culture Aphasia” in this thesis.

Theoretical Background
China, a large populated country with billions of individuals, has the largest amount of English language learners up to now. The earliest English teaching activities started in China in the 1860s, during the Westernization Movement era. The establishment of the Jingshi Tongwen Guan (or the School of Combined Learning) marked the beginning of pre-modern China's English teaching. It was a way to learn the western technology from foreign books that helped people realize the goal of “Learning from foreigners to competing foreigners”, created by Wei Yuan, an ideologist of the late Qing Dynasty (Adamson, 2004). In the progress of modern English teaching, it has become more mature than before. Academia and educational circle have begun to keep a watchful eye on the quality of English teaching.
Many educators and scholars have made extraordinary achievements in TESOL at home and abroad during the past thirty years (Canale, 1980). Meanwhile, some experts and teachers maintain that the ultimate purpose of EFL in current China is to improve the Chinese people’s competence for cross-culture communication.

**Relationship Among Language, Communication & Culture**

Language, communication, and culture, they are in a highly close relationship (Kramsch, 1998). Communication between cultures is a symbolic, expositive, transactional, and contextual process in which the degree of difference between folks is large and significant enough to create dissimilar interpretations and expectations about what are deemed as competent behaviors that should be used to create shared meanings (Lustig, 2003). As a system of alphabets or characters, language carries its own value and significance. Since the beliefs and knowledge combining a culture are automatically coded and inherited in the language, it is very hard to keep the two apart. Language is recognized as the most basic way through which human beings conduct their social activities. Language enables communication with others by giving visible expression to thinking. So people incapably finish communication without language. It is also related to culture in multiple and complex aspects. In other words, language is a subsystem belonging to a broader system – culture. Speakers study language in their childhood or school time, then they use language to communicate, to express their feelings and thoughts. Simultaneously, communication cannot be divorced from the culture. That is to say, if you want to understand the connotation of a culture, first you must comprehend its correlative language. Only with identical culture or cultural background can communicators share information and attain efficient communication.

To summarize, language is the medium of communication, the relation of language to culture just like the part subordinates to the whole. Culture impacts, and is affected by, communication. When cultures vary, practices of communication also do so because communication embodies cultural reality. The individual communication is forged or shaped by the culture. Culture also furnishes the language materials for communication; they are unable to be separated from each other. To understand the alien culture is necessary and conducive to have successful communication with foreigners. It is conducive to avoid misunderstanding and improve oral competence when we have cross-culture communication. Therefore, being foreign language learners, the category of the language we study should not merely include vocabularies and grammar, but also contain its culture.

**The Meaning of Cross-Culture Communication**

Communication, as a link to the rest of humanity, is as old as human beings (Samovar, 2000). There is no doubt that communication is closely connected with culture. Cross-cultural communication generally occurs by the time someone of one culture outputs a piece of information for consumption by an individual from another culture. Videlicet, intercultural communication not only comes about in different nations, but also includes interethnic communication or interracial communication. Nowadays, it refers to the persons who speak the same kind of language (maybe target language or first language) but come from different cultural background in the specific language environment of oral communication in particular. The communication between persons whose cultural perceptions and symbols are distinct enough to modify the event of communication. The cross-cultural communication is a way to strengthen the friendship of speakers with equal treatment between the target language culture and the indigenous culture.
Nonetheless, miscommunication of intercultural communication came into being for the last several years because of frequent international contact. Misunderstandings and involuntary offenses are always found in cross-cultural communication because of hindrances, including cultural stereotype, bias, and ethnocentrism, etc. These hindrances are born of the unconscious impact of the communicators’ own culture. It is necessary for us to study the knowledge of cross-cultural communication so as to help us reduce misunderstandings caused by cross-cultural variations.

The Explanation of “Chinese Culture Aphasia”
There is a common situation in all parts of our country. When Chinese communicate with aliens, tourists in particular, they cannot express something directly about China in English. Most of the time, they seldom speak of things with Chinese characteristics in English. A large number of Chinese will make mistakes or have nothing to say in translation if foreigners ask them about things that are peculiar to China. It is an aphasia phenomenon that comes from the cultural contexts in which encoding and decoding take place. “Aphasia” is a medical term from Greece, which describes a disease of human beings who have difficulty speaking and understanding language, or have no ability to communicate with even simple words. “Culture Aphasia” was first presented in 1995 and was used to interpret the phenomenon of speechlessness when Chinese cannot create proper ideas in English to communicate with foreign counterparts from English-speaking countries (Luo, 2011).

The Empirical Study into the Phenomenon

Related Research on “Chinese Culture Aphasia” in China’s College English Teaching
“Chinese Culture Aphasia” generally exists in colleges and universities of China’s mainland. A famous test for English majors was held at the Beijing Foreign Language University, aimed at examining the students’ ability for expression of Chinese and western cultures. Although the questions were very easy, none received a full mark. A majority of the subjects said they had great trouble in answering the questions. Since then, more and more researchers have been devoted to test the knowledge about Chinese culture of China’s English learners, and things didn’t go very well. Later, a large number of post-secondary teachers conducted numerous researches into “Culture Aphasia” of college students’ English studies, such as a translation test of Chinese traditional food, places of interest or historical sites, as well as folk customs. The consistent results show that China’s undergraduates can grasp primary native cultural expressions in English, but they are not very good in accurate translating Chinese into English. Most subsequent studies attempted to ascertain the various causes of “Chinese Culture Aphasia”.

By contrast, undergraduates from Hong Kong, Macao and Taiwan were more skilled in cross-cultural communication. Tracing its source, we can easily find that the teaching syllabus and course books for mainland college students are short in Chinese culture, but almost entirely made up of the culture of the target language. The loss of our own culture will absolutely generate an unbalanced circumstance of intercultural communication. To be more exact, it will cause a negative effect on the external propaganda of our splendid civilization.

Survey Methodology
The significance of Chinese culture in English teaching has called for extensive attention. But our home culture isn’t valued in actual English teaching progress. CET (Band 4 & Band 6), an acknowledged test in China, was reformed and presented new requirements for college English teaching and learning in December, 2013 (Zhou, Tao, & Wang, 2014). Millions of nationwide college students took this exam.
each year to test their English degree. The participants included not only the non-majors but also the professionals of English. Compared with the several reforms before, Chinese culture is designed to be the contents of the translation passage of CET and highly attached importance for the first time. It is a good beginning of Chinese educational innovation. This survey is based on the questionnaires which were answered by the subjects who recently took the examination of the new CET. The author attempts to explore the actuality of “Chinese Culture Aphasia” in the university and does his utmost to discover the underlying questions involved in this phenomenon, then presents advisable solutions. The questions below were used to guide the data collection and analysis of the survey.

1. Does the phenomenon of “Chinese Culture Aphasia” exist in non-major English teaching?
2. Whether or not this phenomenon exists among English majors?
3. What’s the degree of participants’ mastery of English expressions of indigenous culture in CET?
4. Why do college students contract the aphasia of home culture?
5. How to solve the problem of “Chinese Culture Aphasia”?

Before the investigation, the author adequately considered the proportion from every grade of undergraduates. All of the subjects of this survey were from 20 different departments of Chifeng University, and included 180 non-majors and 20 English majors. There are 60 sophomores, 60 juniors and 80 seniors among them. The proportion of gender is half-half. They have already taken the new CET for more than or equal to one time. The instrument, a questionnaire, was used to collect the data for this survey.

Data Collection and Analysis

Table 1. The Frequency Distribution of Students’ Exam

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grade Number of subjects (Band)</th>
<th>Band Four</th>
<th>Band Six</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Grade two (60 in total)</td>
<td>60 for once</td>
<td>/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade three (60 in total)</td>
<td>33 for once, 16 for twice and 11 for three times.</td>
<td>6 for once and 10 for two times.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade four (80 in total)</td>
<td>36 for once, 20 for twice, 16 for three times and 8 for four times.</td>
<td>38 for once, 19 for twice and 2 for three times.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2. Students’ Level of the Questionnaire

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level of the scores</th>
<th>Number of the subjects</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0–10 points</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>6.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11–15 points</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>9.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16–20 points</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>15.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21–25 points</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>21.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26–30 points</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>19.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31–35 points</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>13.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36–40 points</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>8.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41–45 points</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46–50 points</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.5%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The survey was carried out in Chifeng University on 22th December, 2014. In order to guarantee the validity and credibility of the questionnaire, the author introduced the thesis and the survey briefly to all subjects. The author pledged that the results of the survey were secret. Each of the participants was in a relaxed mood because of the author’s promise. The subjects were required to accomplish the questionnaires in 50 minutes. The author gave out 200 questionnaires and all of them were validated. The results are shown in the above tables.

In addition to the information above, 70% of the non-majors said that their teacher hardly taught Chinese culture in routine English teaching. Almost all of the students (95%) believed that the English course books for college students should include some articles about the native culture. All of the students
approved that contact with some knowledge of Chinese culture in their English class was necessary.

**Discussion and Solutions to the Study**

The subjects’ mastery of home culture and their abilities to express their home culture in English are not optimistic. The average score of the sophomores was 22.83, which is the lowest among the three grades. The mean of juniors’ was 31.08. This indicates that students’ abilities of English expression have been promoted after two years’ study. However, the average senior score was 26.33, which is flunking and inferior to the Year Two students’ mean. Among all the participants, there were only 58 students that score more than 30 points, which occupied 29% of the total. Sixteen (16) students scored more than 40 points, 6 scored over 45 points and no one received a full mark.

Culture Aphasia of college students is very obvious by observing the data of the tables. In the second part of the questionnaire, the author adapted or chose the question items from the new CET papers from the past two years. The expressions and sentence patterns were common and most of them had even been taught or had appeared in course books. The performances of the subjects in expressing the contents in English were disappointing and unsatisfactory. Including such answers as “Chinese knot”, “the strategy of sustainable development;”, “elderly will be looked after properly” and so on, no one, or very few, could write out the correct answers in English. The mastery of students in grammar and syntax is not good enough. Because of the insufficient knowledge in English, college students are more vulnerable to first-language interference and short on idiomatic English expressions. Most of their answers are incorrect with Chinglish features. All in all, “Chinese Culture Aphasia” is seriously rife among the university students.

Lastly, the author proposed a question to solicit the opinions from all the participants. They commonly presented that both teachers and students either discounted, or ignored, the Chinese culture in English teaching practice. There were some other factors that caused this phenomenon. As for college students of Inner Mongolia, most of them were weak in English expression. Inter-lingual interference is most influential to them. The English course books are exotic to the majority of students and very short of Chinese culture. English teachers pay less attention to the native culture and students study it at will. From the above, home culture teaching is still in a confused position. The author presents the following solutions to this phenomenon.

1. The department of university academic affairs should amend the syllabus of the public or major English classes. Chinese culture should be added into routine teaching. It is not only good for students’ English expressive abilities, but it is also helpful to increase the passing rate for the CET.

2. Teachers should improve their skills to expand their knowledge about the Chinese culture. Only when teachers are good at expressing the home culture in English can students learn more and more authentic English expressions from their teachers. The author proposes that teachers put more emphasis into training the students more often. Even better, teachers should spare no effort on building students motivation for Chinese culture learning.

3. Students should study English expressions of Chinese culture independently. Students’ mastery of knowledge of their native culture is confirmed to be less that desirable by the survey. The author advises all undergraduates to enhance their learning of Chinese culture. Students should utilize the learning resources of English rationally, such as TV programs (CCTV-9, CCTV-
NEWS), newspapers (China Daily, 21st Century), broadcasting resources (CNN, VOA, BBC), as well as Internet resources (Show China, China Today), etc.

**Conclusion**

With English teaching becoming more and more pervasive and advanced in current China, this study was based on the empirical survey of “Chinese Culture Aphasia”, and mainly discussed how to amend the situation of time. It has been recognized that culture teaching should be emphasized in China’s English teaching. The author tries his best to unscramble the phenomenon of “Chinese Culture Aphasia” in this precise treatise. The major findings from the survey and analysis include: first, the aphasia of Chinese culture exists commonly and ubiquitously among students of university. There are a lot of subjective and objective factors that account for this phenomenon. Secondly, Chinese students are lacking the opportunities for contact with unadulterated English in Mainland China. They may be influenced by their mother tongue so that they express something about Chinese in Chinglish. Third, both educational sectors and society at large should value home culture teaching in the English class. English teaching should not only teach language itself; it is also supposed to teach culture related to Chinese in English. They ought to do something to improve the present situation of English teaching from the following aspects: syllabus revises, teaching materials construction, the innovation of auxiliary methods and so on.

All in all, the author hopes that this ordinary investigation can make a contribution to English teaching. The solutions in this thesis are shallow and essential. Teachers ought to infiltrate indigenous cultures in routine English teaching as required knowledge and guide the students to express it in English, and then help them out of “Culture Aphasia” in cross-cultural communication. That is to say, the aphasia of Chinese culture needs the participation of all the educators and scholars. The author has visions of the future culture teaching in English. That will conduce to the spread of Chinese culture and the improvement of undergraduates English abilities.

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Study on the Construction of Spoken English Corpus
– Based on Classified Topics in College English Teaching

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[Abstract] With the increasing of capacity of the English corpus and the continuous maturity and improvement of the retrieval and labeling systems, the English corpus has gradually evolved from a traditional level of spoken and written language functions to a more specialized, more detailed development. This paper explores the possibility of the auxiliary function of small self-built corpus and its application in classroom teaching from the perspective of university oral English teaching. The results will greatly promote college English teaching.

[Keywords] college English teaching; self-built corpus; topic classification

Introduction
With the rapid development of computer-assisted language teaching in the past ten years, the auxiliary function of the corpus in foreign language teaching has been a consensus in the education sector, and great potential of the corpus to promote the effects of language teaching and autonomous learning has also been proven, thus, all kinds of language teaching modes based on the corpus are becoming one of the main research topics in foreign language teaching. However, compared with the results of theoretical research, the application of the corpus in teaching practice of College English is very small and the use of the corpus is not popular in teaching. What’s more, quite a few teachers know very little about the auxiliary function of the corpus. The main reason is that the existing corpus is not specifically targeting College English teaching, nor adapting to the local characteristics of teaching and different learning levels, which greatly hinders the English teachers from exploration in teaching practice.

Developments of Modern Corpora
The preliminary stage of the development of modern corpora can be dated back to Nelson Francis and Henry Kučera. In 1961, they began to prepare a huge and daunting project: they wanted to compile a synchronic corpus with nearly one million words representative of written English printed in the United States (Greenbaum, 1996). In 1964, with the high-speed developments of technology, this project was not unreachable. The precursory task was completed with prominent speed, in that the corpus was available on computer tape with an accompanying manual. Between 1970 and 1978, a corpus of written British English was compiled at the University of Lancaster and the University of Oslo in cooperation with the Norwegian Computing Centre for the Humanities at Bergen (Altenberg, & Granger, 2001). In 1975, however, Jan Svartvik established the Survey of Spoken English (SSE) at Lund University in Sweden. He was the first one to make the spoken texts in electronic form available and to transform the spoken part of the SEU Corpus into a machine-readable form (Greenbaum, 1996).

The second stage began from the 1970s, during the American Heritage project. The first major machine-readable corpus-based lexicographical project was also the first major mega-corpus project that
had been planned to be constructed, and was to become the premier foundation for the production of a new English dictionary (Leech, 1997).

From the 1990s, the third stage of corpus developments began. The tendency of corpus developments mainly focuses on the following three aspects: first, the constructions of large-scale and multi-species corpus; second, the deep processing of corpus researching; third, the applications of the corpus as related to different fields (Kennedy, 2000). Due to advancements in computer technology, other electronic communications and memory technology have developed at a high speed. This is the reason that they drive the construction scale of the corpus with fast expansion.

**Analysis of Feasibility of a Small Self-Built Corpus of Spoken English**

English Corpus undoubtedly has opened a new way to changing the present situation of oral English teaching. Self-built teacher-written English Corpus belongs to learners’ corpora, which, from the source of the material, can be divided into two categories: one is the learner corpus set up by the teacher using students’ works as the research objects, with comprehensive and systematic analysis of the current situation of using the target language. The other category is the collection of native English speakers’ work, setting a model for language learners at different levels, aiming to enhance the quality of language learners (Hunston, 2002). The key and difficulty in construction of university spoken English corpus is the consistency of the data collection, whether or not the corpus is truly representative of the university English levels, and as known to all, the degree of complexity of vocabulary and updating of the vocabulary material content is crucial to the credibility of the teaching effect of the corpus. A corpus of text selection must be suitable for the specific group of university English learners, which requires the collectors to be familiar with the students’ oral English materials. The language quality of the text must be moderate – being both higher and lower does not promote students’ oral English expression. In the long process of college English teaching practice, a mature standard has been established, accompanied by rich spoken and special written materials, that greatly simplifies the process of data collection, determining the scope, sampling demonstration, establishment of corpus collection standards, training corpus collection personnel, and establishing the work flow.

The development of computer software has greatly enhanced the feasibility of the self-built corpus construction, and at the same time, the popularity of the Internet has broadened the ways and methods of constructing the corpus. Therefore, the self-built corpus, whether it is English monolingual corpora or English Chinese bilingual corpus, is feasible. Modern information technology has brought the realization of internet connection, multimedia application, and artificial intelligence. The artificial information world of interactive multimedia generated from the electronic publication, hypertext, and hypermedia technology provides teachers and students with rich teaching resources, and convenience for construction of the corpus as well. As a new type of learning resource, the corpus, characteristic of digitization and large capacity of modern educational technology, needs to be constantly updated and enriched, and applied to the teaching environment. The valuable language resources not only have the demand of quantity, but also need to rely on retrieval technology to analyze. The existing corpus retrieval software can combine text materials, oral materials, and audio-visual materials, which greatly expands the sources for data collection for the corpus.
The Procedure and Implementation of Self-Built Spoken English Corpora

The construction of the corpus first needs to determine the proportion of different categories of texts within through survey. We can determine the frequency of occurrence for different types of text, and then select the actual text from a given group of samples to compile the corpus. The size of the corpus determines the type, content, and structure. It is up to the constructors to pick out the versions required for data collection. Different from other spoken corpus, this corpus is all written text – in other words, the collection of all the text. The reason for the choice of using a written collection lies in the core content and the target users of this corpus. It is aimed at specific groups, focusing on the theme of university oral English training. Through the study of this corpus, teachers can get first-hand information on the routine teaching topic, and students can get more information from a new perspective. The collection and classification of the topic is based on written text. The sources of text are mainly from the reading materials, of the CET test of band 4 and band 6, oral topics from IELTS and TOEFL, the College English listening and speaking textbook, and English newspapers and magazines, etc. An extensive collection of theme is aimed at highlighting the prominent auxiliary function of the corpus in college English teaching. Specific construction process of the corpus is divided into several parts: data collection, data sorting, CD promotion, and internet data sharing, etc. Spoken English Corpus at the college teaching level will be finally built into an electronic library corpus with the data collected according to the sampling standard. The length of each text is approximately 800 to 1500 words, with a time span for sampling from 1995 until now. The corpus is in open design; its initial capacity will be vocabulary of 1,000,000 words, leaving space for updating and expanding when needed.

The focus of this paper is how to build a corpus of spoken English Teaching for the university, and is mainly constructed from the angle of topic classification. Compared with the use of vocabulary, syntax, and grammar structure, the topic is the first step to improve oral fluency. The degree of grasping and understanding the topic directly affects the quality of oral expression, so college English teaching effectively guides students to correctly understand the various topics ranging from social life to academic field and is the key to improve teaching quality. The raw language materials are analyzed, induced, classified, and processed through the use of computer software, and processed materials are input into the corpus in the form of all text. The corpus covers topics from everyday situations to hot current issues and a considerable amount of deep academic knowledge, which enables users to quickly retrieve the corresponding title classification. Classification based on certain standards and category division provides a clear framework for language output, and in the meantime, helps students find the corresponding lexical collocations and grammatical features in oral expressions to more effectively improve their levels of oral English, making up the weakness of classroom teaching.

Compared with other large corpus, this corpus structure is relatively simple. Topic classification revolves around the daily life of the students, involving situational communication scenarios, academic knowledge, and general social issues. The basic structure of the corpus consists of five pools: oral vocabulary, situational dialogue, topic based, academic topics and social hot topics. The second level categories are set up under of five sub-corpora representing the branch subjects. Among them, daily communication scenarios stem from everyday life, including introductions, greetings, expressions of thanks, apologies, and farewells, as well as methods of asking for weather, hobbies and festivals. The basic topics relate to the general level of social life, including people, places, events, tourism, entertainment and leisure, emotional life, outgoing social communication, studying on campus, the
workplace, business contacts, all walks of life, and so on; the academic topic category covers debate on the basic areas of the development of human society, including science and technology, media, environment, transportation, education, human rights and gender equality, children and family, social morality, tourism, food and health, medicine and politics, the legal system and crime, economy, population and the society, history and culture, and social hot issues. The selection of social hot news, such as aging of the population, the civilian talent show wave, the real name system of internet and so on, focuses on controversial social life. The third level corpus is divided into several sub-directories again according to the topics; each directory includes affiliated topic categories. For example, in the division of “education”, the concept group is divided into elementary education, higher education, and adult education. Higher education is further divided into campus life, education system, academic research, social practice, and professional choice. Finally, the last sub-directory covers specific topics, such as campus life subjects in which data is collected about college students’ view of love, waste on campus, a green campus, campus security and other issues, and for each topic heading there are no less than five articles, discussing the topic from different angles. The texts can be added and deleted at any time according to the change of the times.

The main preparatory work for the construction of the spoken corpus is data collection. The internet is currently considered to be the most convenient and largest corpus. We can use a variety of search engines, download or use offline browsing tools, from free electronic book and periodical library websites. Data collection is a complicated process, including keyboard input, scanning, network downloading, and CD ROM copying, etc. Each sample is kept as a separate file, named after the topic category. The process also involves text backups, text cleaning and corpus meta information. The collection of data, whether it is downloaded from the Internet, or obtained by scanning and word recognition, will have errors in format and text by collating and requiring collating by the use of word processing software that is converted into text. At the same time, useless information included in the text need to be deleted to enhance usability.

An Empirical Study of Corpus of Spoken English in Oral College English Teaching
After the completion of the corpus, an empirical study was carried out in a small range. Engineering students of general colleges who were non-professional English learners were selected as the research object, and then the experimental class and the contrast class were set up. The experimental class used the self-spoken corpus as the auxiliary material for classroom teaching and the students’ autonomous learning. Teachers consciously created oral teaching plans based on different levels, from simple to difficult, according to the principle of reasonable arrangements for teaching content. Each class was assigned a different topic category for the students, and through their own exploration of corpus, using keywords in the context of retrieval, advanced into the corpus vocabulary statistics list understanding collocation. Again the students explored the selection list, created their main points of understanding to explore the topic, and clicked the last to understand the topic of expression by words and sentence patterns. In the classroom teaching, through the use of corpus retrieval, teachers can correct the students’ mistakes in spoken communication, or their misuse of words or collocations, as well as corpus comparison. Students can find their shortcomings, self-correct their mistakes and deepen the correct vocabulary memory. The corpus can provide a lot of material for the students’ oral expression, so they have to speak in the classroom. A large number of similar articles do not enable students to understand the single subject inside all possible support and opposition, strengthen their memory, and the successful
completion of tasks and expression in the face of new problems can infer other things from one fact. After training and a period of time, the classroom students’ oral expressions of logical thinking, quality of vocabulary, and pragmatic fluency will be greatly improved. This library can also be used for oral English intensive reading exercises. This corpus-driven teaching method stimulates students’ learning motivation and interest in learning to a great extent, and promotes their learning autonomy and independence. For teachers, the use of the corpus liberates them from heavy lesson preparation and teaching work, and through analysis of the corpus, teachers can identify the language items and teaching rules related to register, and in a short time, develop the corresponding teaching courseware. At the same time, for teachers in oral English teaching, according to the general scope of reference or their knowledge to answer the questions of the demonstration, there will inevitably be vocabulary use and expressions of opinion on the deviation, so corpus use reduces the teacher having to give answers at random, and it provides the language speakers use and the most commonly used collocations, The use of these methods, as well as vivid and convincing examples, improves the students’ practical ability in communication.

Conclusion
At present, the lag of reform in methodology is a very important factor that restricts the improvement of the quality of English teaching in colleges and universities. The new teaching outline sees the coordinating development of the knowledge, ability and quality, and comprehensive training as the ultimate goal of college English teaching, so the reform of corresponding teaching methods and updated teaching materials is imminent. Most of the existing oral English teaching materials pay more attention to the training of grammar structure and vocabulary, ignoring the delivery of information on communicative skills. In addition, the text in the spoken language textbooks for teaching purposes is obviously different from that of real English. The corpus based on this research has made up the deficiency of many current teaching materials. Therefore, from the point of view of language learning, the teaching function of this corpus is effective. Teachers and students can use the self-built corpus to teach or learn. The language features of authentic materials in the corpus can be absorbed, and we can also insist on the advantages of traditional spoken language teaching. Compared with other large corpora, the amount of construction of the corpus is not enough. But over time, teachers and students can supplement the corpus at any time, only when they feel it is necessary; this is also a significant advantage of this corpus. Based on the changing levels of the learners’ spoken language, the teacher can update the corpus text according to the ability of the students. At the same time, teachers should consciously help the students to accept the spoken corpus, and teach them how to use it and how to adapt to the new teaching mode.

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Grateful acknowledgement is made to my colleague Ms. Li Xiuwen who gave me considerable help by means of suggestion, comments and criticism. Her encouragement and unwavering support has sustained me through frustration and depression. Without her pushing me ahead, the completion of this thesis would be impossible. In addition, I deeply appreciate the contribution to this thesis made in various ways by my friends and students.
References
Study on the Way College English Teachers Guide Students to Carry Out Values

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[Abstract] Nowadays, in the face of such a variety of surging thoughts and different beliefs found in this era of coexisting, foreign language teachers, as teachers of public compulsory courses, should not only impart professional knowledge and skills of the language, but also be responsible for nurturing human nature, perfecting personality, and promoting the comprehensive development of college students. Through concrete examples, this paper expounds on the concrete ways university students value guidance in college English teaching from three aspects.

[Keywords] values; foreign language teachers; English teaching

Introduction
Values are the general and fundamental points of view for the relationship of the people; they are the sum of processing relatively stable viewpoints, attitudes (Miu, 2011). Values are a concrete manifestation of a person’s world view, and different world views have different kinds of values. Once a value is formed, it permeates all the activities of people; values guide people's value evaluation, choice, creation, and basis. Values constitute the important parts of people's world/life outlook (Miu, 2011).

A person's values are not inherent but gradually formed in practicing social activities in a certain social environment. College students are a group of sharp and active-thinking individuals. They are warm and cheerful, and they accept new things easily, but due to the lack of life experience and recognition, they cannot wisely resist the negative individualism and hedonism of Western culture (Wen, 2007). These characteristics have a significant impact on the formation and development of college students' conceptual values. Therefore, to improve the ideological and political quality of college students, we should strengthen their education in terms of values.

Foreign language teaching in colleges and universities is the main way for students to study foreign language and culture, which inevitably involves exotic cultures and pluralistic values (Miu, 2011). Because the objects of foreign language teaching are all the freshmen and sophomore students of the university, their outlook on life and values are in flux through the process in which they are gradually establishing their value system. Therefore, foreign language teaching should be permeated with the guiding values and incorporated into the whole process of teaching through language and integrating the cultivation of knowledge, skills, criticism of culture, and pluralistic values.

The Concrete Ways of Guiding the Values
College students usually give more attention to foreign language teachers, their materials, and college foreign language teaching. It is much better than the simple ideological theory through which value guidance and life education are integrated into the daily college English teaching process. Specific ways are as follows:
Choosing the Appropriate Content for Foreign Language Teaching

Language is the carrier of thought and culture, and it inevitably influences learners. For foreign language teachers, the moral education content is not usually given more attention to in the course of teaching. Since teaching and teaching material are related directly, the kind of foreign language teaching materials are very important. The content of foreign language teaching should not only be in accord with the law of foreign language acquisition, but it should also be in accordance with the general spirit of moral education (Song, 1998).

On the selection foreign language textbooks, it should be based on the principle of transferring positive energy, paying attention to the intrinsic relationship between the ideological content and student growth, emphasizing the code of ethics that the individual and society should follow, focusing on a person's emotions, attitudes, values, and the pursuit of the beauty of the people; this forms a certain positive role in the formation of students' values. As many universities are using the New College English Integrated Course, each unit of the textbook is developed around a reflection of the actual theme of contemporary life. For example, the third book, the first unit, Changes in the Way We Live, tells the story of an American writer who chooses to give up the middle class, rich, material life in order to realize his dream of the farm, and he changes his way of life. “We trust this unit will give you the opportunity to reflect on such changes and the resources to express your own feelings about them” (Li, 2014, p. 2). By learning from this story can make the students understand that only having a dream is not enough: we should put it into action, and the realizations of any dream are accompanied by hardships and persistence. The second unit, Civil-Rights Heroes, tells about the initial stage of the civil rights movement in order to help blacks get free; a large number of heroes emerge in the secret underground transport station network, which make the students realize that the happiness of the moment is the result of countless heroic struggles. We should cherish life and try to be helpful. The sixth unit, Human Touch, Text A, The Last Leaf, let us appreciate the world's famous writer, O'Henry’s exquisite writing language, but also demonstrates real and good humanity.

In addition to the college English teaching, foreign language teachers in colleges and universities often assign students extracurricular reading, listening materials, and CET-4 or CET-6 exercises; selection of the content should also be cautious. In our country, the contemporary college students from the beginning of the 1980s more or less have a kind of xenophile psychology. They think that everything of the Western world is okay, so more and more turn to go abroad, but a considerable number of them are blind and only know going out, and that is as far as they think. In the face of this situation, as the foreign language and culture spreader, the foreign language teachers have the responsibility and obligation to make the students understand what the Western world is like. So, in choosing extracurricular reading materials, we should introduce foreign culture, technology, and the social status quo. Such as a reading comprehension in 2013 CET-4 sample test, which the content introduced, makes students very surprised about the status quo of the United States: one sixth of the population is facing the problem of hunger in the United States, and not all of them are employed, of which 36% of the people live in the family of an adult laborer. Reading of this material can help students understand the real foreign society. In addition to the advanced science and technology and rich material life, there are also a variety of social problems; thus, the students can evaluate the Western world and look at a broad problem objectively.

Foreign language teachers should also recommend some meaningful English original movies for entertaining. Through film and drama watching, on the one hand, we can help the students understand the
culture of the West and learn the positive life view. The movie Forrest Gump lets students think about loyalty, trustworthiness, sincerity, and friendliness.

Guiding the Values of University Students Through the Subject Discussion and Other Teaching Link

Classroom discussion is an important link in college foreign language teaching. Combined with the contents of the materials, teachers should carry out some discussions with the expansion of British and American cultural background knowledge and practical life. The teacher can instruct students to acquire and master the language and cultural knowledge, enrich the corpus, and carry the teaching link on the training of the language comprehensive application's ability about the subject. In the course of the preparation of classroom topic discussion, teachers should try to excavate the value education resources contained in the text as much as possible, and understand the author's feelings and the central idea of the text. To guide students in using the correct ways of thinking before reading, we should design some of the issues related to the classroom discussion so that students read and think in the right way.

In classroom discussion, teachers should grasp the students' cognitive levels and language abilities, seize a starting point, integrate the ideological content of texts with students' real life so that students can easily comprehend the content of the text. In addition to paying attention to the usage of the language knowledge in speech, teachers should also stimulate students to do more in-depth and creative thinking so that students gradually improve their confidence. Through the experience of collective cooperation, in the process of constantly exploring language, students will improve their abilities of listening and speaking, and they will form correct emotional attitudes and values. An example is in New College English Integrated Course in the fifth unit of Book 3, “Giving Thanks”. In that selection, the protagonist on Thanksgiving Day, wrote letters of thanks to his father, grandmother, and a headmaster of a primary school, which had given him great help. To his surprise, the three men in his reply were very grateful because their behaviors were recognized. This article can make students discuss gratitude and remember to praise others anytime, anywhere. In the face of the phenomenon of the false, the bad, and the ugly sides of society or in realizing that students have some value orientation deviations, teachers can guide them to discover the true, the good, and the beautiful aspects of society, and tell them the vast majority of people are honest and kind-hearted, life is beautiful, and students should not let negative values of society's dark side influence their university view.

Improving the Moral Education Quality of Foreign Language Teachers Continuously

The construction of high quality foreign language teachers is an important guarantee for the students' value guidance (Ye, 2000). The moral education level and ability of foreign language teachers in colleges and universities directly influences the effect of the value guidance in foreign language teaching. Owing to the objective limitation of subject content and teaching practice, the breadth and depth of knowledge of foreign language teachers is more restricted than those of other subjects. Therefore, foreign language teachers should strengthen their own knowledge, ability, culture, and morality.

The professional development of foreign language teachers should adhere to the unity of correct values and scientific teaching ideas. Only identifying the common ideal of socialism and values, the teachers can establish a correct concept of education and cultivate students into social builders and successors with innovative spirits and healthy personalities. Morality is the most important quality of foreign language teachers; we should make efforts to implement moral construction engineering and strive to build a knowledge charm and charisma with both ability and political integrity. To build
high-quality foreign language teachers, we should improve the enthusiasm for moral education of foreign language teachers and consciously take the initiative to study the educational characteristics and rules of discipline. The foreign language teachers with unique knowledge wisdom and charisma should shoulder the mission of educating people.

Foreign language teachers should correctly grasp the guiding way of the content in teaching material related to moral values and improve the ability of carrying out teaching each link. Foreign language teachers in their classroom teaching should strengthen the research on textbooks involving the values of different types of teaching and research activities, explore organic combination of the curriculum standards and values, and guide the moral values in teaching design, teaching implementation, and teaching evaluation.

Conclusion
Foreign language teachers in colleges and universities should strengthen students' values by choosing appropriate foreign language teaching materials, developing related teaching activities, and improving their moral education quality. Further changing the concept of education, it is necessary to pay more attention to moral education than training of language skills, helping students establish correct values and cultivating their innovative ideas, and self-development consciousness. With updating their knowledge and improving their skills, we should continue to develop, strengthen, and enhance the value of innovative thinking, correct analysis, judgment ability, and ideological understanding levels.

The teaching contents of college foreign language teaching, mostly are Western original literature; students are exposed to Western values in the classroom, so foreign language teachers should guide students to coordinate and clarify various value views between differences and conflicts, forming the value of basic viewpoint of philosophy, which can dominate and influence students' study, lives, and social practices in various fields by the way of textbook analysis and classroom discussion. The values provide a standard and power of thought and action in the process of understanding, evaluating things, and making behavior choices.

References
Study on the English Selective Curriculum in the Art College in Beijing

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[Abstract] The selective curriculum in colleges comprehensively covers knowledge structures and, usually with rich contents, as a result, it forms an indispensable part in the college curriculum framework. Correspondingly, the application and development of the selective curriculum in art colleges directly determines the teaching quality of a regular college course. Through investigations of the art colleges in Beijing, this thesis gets to know the current situation of the English selective curriculum in art colleges, and it explores problems during its implementation. In order to solve the problems and make a smoother way for the English selective curriculum in art colleges, this thesis provides strategies of value for the purpose of change, aiming specifically at improving teachers’ competence and teaching management regulation through statistics analysis, experience summary, and following the teaching law.

[Keywords] art colleges; English selective curriculum; investigation

Introduction
The selective curriculum is an important part of the higher education system, which aims to promote overall development of students both academically and professionally (Guo, 2010). When art colleges are concerned, there are even more challenges for this part of education for the reason that a selective curriculum is still not prevailing in most art colleges, and students overlook fundamental teachings to focus on their profession improvement. This thesis provides a comprehensive study of the setting and implementing of selective curriculums in art colleges in Beijing by means of interviews, surveys, and investigations. This investigation is based on the aims and characteristics of college education, as well as features of art colleges. There are mainly two parts in the investigation, namely surveys in the Central Academy of Drama and investigations of its counterparts in Beijing in which problems and possible solutions are explored. This thesis is expected to enrich higher education theories, improve the existing education practices, and support improvement in this field.

Literature Review
In recent years, people have become more aware of the problems with the existing English education system. Luckily, many teachers have realized the situation and are engaged in research on selective lessons. Basically, there are four frequently covered topics. The first type is research on the current situation in some specific colleges and universities. It is found that students generally overlook selective lessons, while teachers don’t put much effort into preparation for the class. The whole curriculum tends to be out-of-date. Most of the lessons are even arranged in the night (Chen, 2009).

The second type is research on related administration based on personal experiences from teachers working in the Office of Teaching Affairs. Some believe there is a lack of strict regulation from the beginning of the application for teaching one selective lesson, let alone in the process of in-class supervision, class evaluation, and testing (Lu, 2007). Zhu (2007) suggests class discipline should be strictly maintained to guarantee good teaching efficiency. Despite full attention to this field and good intention, there are mainly two problems with this research. First, since many authors are administrative staff, who though full of first-hand experience, are lack in related theories, which makes their papers more
of a recording type (Wang, 2008). Second, for some of the papers that focus on one college or university, it is hard to get the whole picture and come to some solution that can be generally applied.

**Current Situation of English Selective Curriculum in the Central Academy of Drama**

*English Faculty in the Central Academy of Drama*

In the Central Academy of Drama, the responsibility for English teaching is carried out by the Fundamental Teaching Department, in which there are 8 English teachers serving.

**Table 1. Age of English teachers in the Central Academy of Drama**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age group</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>25-35</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>37.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36-45</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>37.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46-50</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>25%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Among the eight English teachers, seven have a master’s degree, which accounts for 87.5% of the whole group, meeting the requirements named in the *Principle of Enhancing Faculty in Higher Education in China* released in 2005 by the Ministry of Education.

**Current Situation of English Class in in the Central Academy of Drama**

First, during the survey in the Central Academy of Drama, we find that when we take Gaokao English score as a standard of class division, students can be divided into two types. The first group includes students from the Acting Department, Musical Department, Opera Department, Peking Opera Department and Stage Design Department, with the scores ranging from 50 to 89; together, they become the fundamental class, while the rest students are from Dramatic Literature, Art Management, Film and Television, and the Directing Department, with scores ranging from 90 to 129, forming an advanced class.

To further analyze students’ attitudes about English learning, we conducted a survey in terms of the degree of difficulty, degree of interest, sense of satisfaction, and degree of participation. It shows that the students’ satisfaction level is closely related to their own English level. For teaching content, most of the students majoring in stage design, the Peking Opera, and acting feel it is difficult. The other departments generally believe the textbooks are suitable for them. Thus, we need to teach students in two different levels: fundamental students and advanced students, and we need to adjust the teaching method and content accordingly.

Another finding is that students’ motivation and interest can be summarized as the traditional type (mostly students majoring in stage design and dramatic literature, paying more attention to reading, writing, translation, and CET-4 and CET-6 training) and the practical type (mostly students majoring in acting, the Peking Opera, and opera).

**Current Situation of English Curriculum in in the Art Colleges in Beijing**

In many colleges on the mainland, English is the compulsory class for students. After years of development, a large number of comprehensive colleges have achieved lots of valuable experiences in terms of graded teaching, extra-curriculum learning, multimedia education, and even overseas classes. Thus, in the second part, the interview group investigated several art colleges in Beijing on their English selective curriculum plans or systems, attending lectures and engaging in discussions. These are the main findings.
Many problems have appeared during this investigation for English teaching. First, we come to the conclusion that the size of class will affect the teaching efficiency and effect the teacher’s reasonable and effective supervision. For students who are less motivated or highly dependent, this type of classes cannot yield satisfactory outcomes. Second, there are only limited choices of selective classes available at present. In Western countries, selective classes account for more than 50% of the whole system, while it is only 30% in some of the most renowned colleges in China (Zhang & Xiao, 2006). Third, according to the experience of selective classes of teachers, the whole process seems to lack order and purpose. Some of the teachers, under pressure from the department, have applied and taught English selective classes for a year or two, but they ceased for lack of teaching personnel or a resetting of the teaching system. So, we can say that there is no consistency of teaching in the selective courses. Finally, through interviews, we found that teachers in art colleges are usually under heavy workloads that produce unbalanced teacher groups. Despite the fact that China is the country with most students and teachers (Wen, 2014), the capacity for English teaching is probably the lowest.

**Reason Analysis on the Existing Problems with English Selective Classes**

After a comprehensive investigation and detailed interviews, we came to have a deeper understanding of the current situation and problems with the English selective classes. When considering the practical reality of art colleges in Beijing, we believe the following factors should be paid more attention to:

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**Table 2. English Selective Curriculum in Art Colleges in Beijing**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Colleges</th>
<th>The Central Academy of Drama</th>
<th>Beijing Film Academy</th>
<th>Academy of Traditional Chinese Opera</th>
<th>China Conservatory of Music</th>
<th>Central Conservatory of Music</th>
<th>Central Academy of Fine Arts</th>
<th>Beijing Dance Academy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Weeks</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>15-18</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student’s Class /week</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2+2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2+2</td>
<td>2+2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Class division</td>
<td>Department based</td>
<td>Graded teaching based on Gaokao in three levels of classes</td>
<td>Graded teaching in two types of classes: comprehensive class and practical class</td>
<td>Four levels</td>
<td>Graded teaching based on Gaokao for freshman and selective for sophomore</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Size of class</td>
<td>20-45</td>
<td>60-80</td>
<td>Less than 50</td>
<td>50-60</td>
<td>35</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English Selective Curriculum system</td>
<td>News English for juniors. Three classes sophomore</td>
<td>Photograph English and Film producing English (junior)</td>
<td>Photograph examination English class for junior and senior in forms of lectures</td>
<td>Musical English for sophomore</td>
<td>CET-4 and CET-6, Film English, Advanced Listening and Speaking, English Literature, rock music English</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Traditional Focus on Professional Teaching in the teaching practice
Under the influence of school type and the tradition of education, selective classes have always been neglected. In art colleges, both teachers and students fully realize the importance of professional training, and they all put most efforts into it. Colleges, consequently, set very low standards of English for its students. Compared with common colleges, CET-4 is not a necessity for graduation; thus, the high school period will be the last time when art students have ever tried hard to learn English well. What’s more, English proficiency is not a common requirement for art students when they come to work. So, it can be predicted that the resources put into selective classes in art school are quite inadequate.

Designing Problems of Selective Classes
The current process of establishing an English selective class is through the Office of Educational Administration evaluation and organizing. After years of practice, it is functioning relatively well. However, there remains one problem: there are not many choices for all the students, and class times’ conflicts with professional classes. Also, we can see from the table that the chances of choosing English according to one’s interests are just for freshman and sophomore students.

Teachers’ Problems
Taking a selective class for teachers is a very challenging and laborious task. With the aim of having the English selective class serve professional teaching, teachers have to do a lot of preparation beyond English itself to cater to the interests and needs of students from different departments. Besides, due to the inadequate range of choices for students, those who fail to choose the classes they like will be very demotivated and act passively in the English classes. They talk, listen to music, watch movies, talk with others, and even sleep. Teachers, whose job includes preparing for the class, conducting a class well and monitoring the students’ behaviors rarely have the energy to correct these bad behaviors. In this case, we can see that English selective classes require more energy and efforts while providing very little sense of achievement.

Suggestions on Improvement of Selective Classes
Despite the different stages of implementing selective classes, there are some common problems during this process. In the last part, we explored the problems from different angles. Here, we are to provide some practical measures to address these problems in the hope of bettering English selective classes in Chinese art colleges.

Correct Understanding of Positions and Functions of Public Selective Classes
English is, basically, a course closely related to the development of society. While other subjects generally remain stable, English education in China is constantly changing. In fact, since 1978, English teaching has changed every seven or eight years. Despite such efforts, Hu (2002) also emphasized on the falling of college-level English teaching. “After years of study, college graduates fail to conduct effective communication with this language. So, it's high time to address this issue,” Li Lanqing remarked (Hu, 1999).

Nowadays, it becomes a common problem that in art colleges, selective courses are overlooked. We admit that in a short period, selective classes may not yield direct outcomes. However, in the long run, considering the whole of career and globalization, this type of class can be quite important. First, such classes can serve as the core professional classes in colleges. Second, they can build students' overall capacity and help them branch out in future development. It's common that many celebrities choose be go
back to school and learn, mostly in order to improve their English communication skills. In recent years, with the growing chances of international exchange in the field of TV, film, and art, requirements for language proficiency and cross-cultural knowledge have been increasingly higher. It is vital for colleges, teachers, and students to realize the importance of selective classes and an adequate accumulation of different knowledge.

**Reasonable Setting of English Selective Classes**

It has become a trend to develop English selective classes in colleges. The investigation group came to understand that in the background of college English reforms, the focus should be on the arrangement and improvement of selective classes. Problems with the current curriculum are that there are not enough high-quality classes for the students to choose (Wang, 2005). The class arrangement should be reasonable, practical, and cohesive, helping students to realize the expected study goals. Besides, students’ needs and interests should also be fully considered according to the theory of “inner education” and “inner study,” which focus on development of human beings. We believe that it is the teacher’s job to motivate students to explore their own potentials and enhance their inner awareness of learning (Zhu & He, 2009).

**Teacher’s Upgrading their Capacity**

The role of teachers has always been in discussion. Traditionally, teachers have played a dominant role in class, being responsible for knowledge communication. This will lead to lack of exchange with students and unfulfilled student’s needs. In the age of information, teaching modes vary. Faced with the changing situation, some experts have suggested the re-positioning of different levels of English teaching: primary English teaching focuses on laying a foundation, while undergraduate and graduate English teaching should be about ESP or academic English. Liu Runqing (2010) said, “Time has changed and now I expect that, within a few years, ESP will be the only way out.” Zhang Shaojie (2011) noted that with the basic foreign language education improving, high school graduates, especially in the key universities, no longer need this time-consuming and inefficient college foreign language education. The skill-oriented English training should be replaced by profession-oriented training.

In college English teaching, it is advisable for teachers to associate theory with practice to create a good English context for students in which to learn the language, making the students fully aware of the social life, cultural traditions, and customs of the English-speaking Western countries. The highest goal of culture teaching is to train students to communicate using the needed language. Instead of scores, teachers should mainly focus on students’ cultural awareness or cultural sensitivity and cultivate the students' cultural communicative competence.

**Conclusion**

College public selective curriculum is a significant and interesting topic. Based on much other related research and the results of interviews and surveys conducted in many art colleges in Beijing, we have finally come to a better understanding of this problem. The problems that need to be addressed in art colleges are the following: 1) Large-sized English class, 2) Limited categories of selective courses, 3) Under-performing students, and 4) Lack of input from the teachers.

After examining these problems, we believe the reasons for such problems mainly are, basically, inadequate support and attention to such courses. Colleges fail to strictly enforce application, supervision, and evaluation regulations. Teachers, under-motivated, don’t strive to improve the teaching efficiency, while students treat these kind of lesson as chances to sleep or chat in. To solve these problems and make
selective courses a functioning part of the educational system, their position should be reconsidered. We can learn from overseas experiences to diversify choices, rationalize the package, and try to motivate teachers to explore their interests and specialties. We know that taking several colleges in Beijing as an example and source of information could be inadequate for such important issues. However, this research greatly inspires our confidence in improving this course system, as we find that as a complementary part of the English higher education system, selective courses will prove to be more and more important. With enough awareness, attention, recourse, and efforts, our research can make a difference in the future.

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An Investigation of Teachers’ Attitudes and Practices in Learner Autonomy

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[Abstract] Learner autonomy is very important to enable students to learn more effectively. It is necessary to investigate English language teachers’ attitudes towards learner autonomy and what teachers have done in practice to promote learner autonomy. The purpose of this study is to investigate CESL teachers’ attitudes towards learner autonomy and what they practice in daily teaching inside and outside the classroom to enhance learner autonomy. Sixteen English teachers participated in a questionnaire survey, and the collected data were analyzed and interpreted. The results of the survey showed that though teachers have taught students some learner autonomy strategies, there is still more they need to do to promote learner autonomy more effectively in their future teaching.

[Keywords] learner autonomy; learning strategy; effective learning

Introduction
In recent years, learner autonomy has become an important research area in foreign language teaching. Many scholars and researchers have been devoted to the concept of learner autonomy, such as Holec, (1981) the pioneer, and other recent researchers, such as Chitashvili (2007), Dang (2012), and so on. However, not many have dealt with the teachers’ attitudes towards learner autonomy and what teachers have done in practice to promote learner autonomy.

Palfreyman (2004) notes the gap between the theoretical definition of learner autonomy (LA) and the teachers’ understanding of the concept. Teachers’ views about LA are shaped by the different ways of conceptualizing LA. Teachers' beliefs about LA are equally important. They not only dictate how teachers perceive of LA, but also shape the teachers’ practices. Therefore, the purpose of this study is to investigate teachers’ attitudes towards learner autonomy and what they practice in daily teaching inside and outside the classroom to enhance learner autonomy.

Methodology
This study tries to find answers to these research questions:
1. What are CESL teachers’ attitudes towards learner autonomy?
2. What learner autonomy strategies have teachers applied inside and outside the classroom to promote learner autonomy?
3. In what ways do teachers facilitate autonomous language learning?
4. What difficulty do students have in improving English proficiency, especially in listening and speaking?

Participants
The participants of this study are sixteen English teachers of the CESL (Center for English as a Second Language (CESL) at the Southern Illinois University, Carbondale, U.S.A.), including 4 males and 12
females with teaching experience of 1 to 35 years for all levels from the beginning to the advanced. Their educational qualification is from M.A. to Ph.D., all majoring in TESOL.

**Instrument**

The instrument used for gathering information is a questionnaire. It consists of three sections. In Section One there are six questions about teachers’ personal profiles. Section Two consists of 24 questions, the majority of which are in the form of frequency-scale items on a five-point scale. Questionnaire items include information about the following: *What learner autonomy strategies have teachers applied inside and outside the classroom to promote learner autonomy? What have teachers done to facilitate learners to do independent learning after class?* In Section Three, there are five open-ended questions about teachers’ ideas of students’ problems in English learning, especially in listening and speaking, and their own ways of helping students in these aspects.

**Procedure**

The questionnaire was distributed via online questionnaire creator Survey Nuts among the teachers in CESL. They could complete them at any time, and their answers and responses could be viewed immediately online. After a month, 16 teachers had completed the questionnaire, and then the data were analyzed to get the results (see [http://survey.nuts.com/surveys/take?id=26704&c=184791697VFL](http://survey.nuts.com/surveys/take?id=26704&c=184791697VFL))

**Data Analysis**

After collection, data from the participants were analyzed and changed into descriptive data. The percentages were calculated using SPSS software to illustrate teachers’ practices in applying learner autonomy strategies. Some of them are shown in the form of bar charts.

**Teachers’ Attitudes Towards Learner Autonomy**

From the respondents’ answers, we can see that all the teachers hold that learner autonomy doesn’t mean learning without teachers’ guidance. The majority of teachers ask students to set learning goals, encourage them to use English inside and outside the classroom, and teach them learner autonomy strategies. What’s more, all the teachers make themselves available to students outside class time to help students. It can be said that CESL teachers have positive attitudes towards learner autonomy. They all believe learner autonomy has effective influence on the improvement of students’ language proficiency, especially in listening and speaking.
The Learner Autonomy Strategies Teachers have Applied Inside and Outside the Classroom to Promote Learner Autonomy

![Graphs showing learner autonomy strategies](image)

**Figure 1. The Learner Autonomy Strategies Teachers have Applied**

From Figure 1, we can see the majority of the teachers have taken learner autonomy strategies seriously, and 75% of the teachers ask students to set learning goals at the beginning of every term. All the teachers teach students self-learning strategies; 81.2% of the teachers teach students self-management strategies; 67.5% of the teachers teach students self-motivating strategies; 75% of the teachers encourage students to do assessment themselves.

Practical Ways Teachers have Employed to Facilitate Autonomous Language Learning

(‘Ss is students for short)

![Graphs showing practical ways](image)

**Figure 2. The Practical Ways Teachers have Employed**

Figure 2 shows what teachers do to promote students’ autonomous language learning. All the teachers meet students in their office hours, and, in addition to office hours, many of them make themselves available to students by extra appointment, email, phone, or some social networks. Of all the teachers,
75% often recommend learning resources to students besides the class learning materials. All the teachers use technology in class, and 31% of the teachers continue to use digital media technology, such as Moodle, websites like Youtube, TED talks, quizlet.com, apps like Dictionary, Duolingo, and so on, to help students with autonomous language learning. Of the teachers, 56.25% sometimes ask and urge students to keep a reflective learning log to reflect on and monitor their own learning processes.

**Difficulties Students have in Improving English Proficiency Especially in Listening and Speaking**

**Q:** What skill(s) do you think your students lack in speaking?

The most common answers given by the teachers are usually grammar-related skills, pronunciation, a lack of confidence, vocabulary, and fluency. Pronunciation and intonation are what students should work on more. One teacher gave a detailed explanation like this, “Well, of course, they need more vocabulary…sometimes, productions of individual phonemes is a problem. They omit copula ‘be’ a lot when speaking. They use a tense vowel when they should use a lax vowel and vice-versa so communication transfer is less than successful sometimes. Otherwise, I think they do a good job for their level. I guess I’d say they lack fluency, but again it is difficult to expect much fluency from true beginners.”

**Q:** What skill(s) do you think your students lack in listening?

Teachers think that students at lower levels need more help with listening strategies, phonemic recognition, idiomatic expressions, and differentiating general from specific ideas; students at the upper levels need to improve note-taking skills, anticipation, critical listening, inferring, and understanding fast speech.

**Q:** In what ways do you think Chinese students you have taught differ from your other students? Please share both positive and negative aspects.

Some teachers think that many Chinese students fall into stereotypes. From positive aspects, they are stronger in written tasks and in reading, studious, hard-working, disciplined, having a good memory, having a strong work ethic, systematic, and enthusiastic about studying and learning. From negative aspects, they are weaker in listening and speaking, poor pronunciation, lacking active participation, shy, quieter, and often preferring to work alone, not sociable.

One teacher said, “I think they have an easier time with grammar, writing, and listening, but a more difficult time with speaking. I think it's just a cultural thing because maybe students want to always have the correct answer and are worried that they won't. In the past, I have had Chinese friends tell me that they are so worried about the grammar that they are scared to speak.” It’s true that cultural differences can influence one’s way of learning.

Another teacher gave such a response, “They also follow their teacher's advice more readily and, in general, will do what you tell them to do/recommend that they do to improve. Even if it is a technique they have not heard of before or are not familiar with, they usually seem to trust the teacher and give this ‘new way’ a try. They don’t dismiss it right away or say they don’t understand and use that as a reason not to try something new.” Chinese students are used to teacher-oriented class teaching, and it takes them a long time to get adjusted to the Western way of teaching.
Findings

This study has investigated learner autonomy from the perspectives of English teachers. The study specifically explores the teachers’ attitudes towards learner autonomy and the learner autonomy strategies and specific ways they have applied to promote learner autonomy.

Regarding the teachers’ answers in the questionnaire, we can see that teachers all hold positive attitudes towards learner autonomy, and there are some certain points about learner autonomy strategies that are pertinent to the findings of the study. First, more than 70% of the CESL teachers devote some time to teaching metacognitive learning strategies to students because they know learner autonomy does not mean learning without the teacher. Useful metacognitive learning strategies teachers have focused on are as follows:

• Planning. Teachers encourage students to set short-term and long-term goals, plan how to accomplish the tasks, choose the best way that suits individual student, and so on.

• Self-monitoring and self-management. While working on a task, students instead of teachers should check progress on the task, such as checking comprehension and production of the language. With the help of study groups, students can construct knowledge and monitor each other’s language learning.

• Self-assessment. After completing a task, students are encouraged to assess how well they have accomplished the learning task and whether or not the learning strategies are effective.

Second, in practice, the CESL teachers have applied specific ways to promote language learner autonomy. Some ways are quite effective and worth mentioning.

• Enough communication between teachers and students and individual guidance. CESL teachers all have office hours to meet students and give them extra help outside class time. Besides office hours, teachers keep in touch with students by appointments, email, phone, or some other social networks. All the teachers investigate students learning needs so as to make teaching more student-centered, and 87.5% of teachers share their personal interests with students and welcome students’ feedback for improving the course. These ways are effective in shortening the distance between teachers and students so that students may get more individual instruction from teachers and teachers can help students develop their own independent study.

• Enough learning resources recommendation and digital media technology use. With the widespread use of the internet and computers around the world, learning resources have been enormously enriched. Faced with so many resources, students don’t know what to choose and what suits them best. So, teachers’ recommendations become really important and necessary. CESL teachers suggest students to use websites like Youtube, TED talks, quizlet.com, apps like Dictionary, Duolingo and so on, to help students do autonomous language learning.

Teachers’ guidance and help in digital media technology use have great effect on students’ language independent study. Over the internet there are various sources where students can get resources and communicate, such as discussion boards, interactive blogs, and online forums. In addition, many students are downloading English music, movies, and TV shows recommended by the teachers or according to their own interests, which allow them to get exposure to different accents and expressions from around the world. Social networks and voice-chat programs, such as Facebook, twitter, Wechat, Skype, and Google Talk enable students to become more involved in authentic language learning environments.
Conclusion and Limitations

The present study tried to explore the teachers’ attitudes towards learner autonomy and the learner autonomy strategies and specific ways they have applied them to promote learner autonomy. The study revealed that most teachers have realized the importance of promoting students’ learner autonomy, especially in language learning, and most of them have applied some specific learning strategies and ways inside and outside class. However, there are still some issues worthy of attention. Although most teachers gave students guidance for learning strategies, they didn’t give students systematic strategic guidance for full development of their metacognitive learning skills. The learning strategy training is not systematic and detailed. For example, only 6.25% of teachers often guided students to keep a reflective learning log. The majority of teachers didn’t give students concrete and detailed help in how to make a good plan and how to reflect on one’s progress and do self-assessment in an effective way.

As is known, the role of the teacher is central to the development of learner autonomy. In the learner autonomy classroom, from an imparter of information, the teacher becomes more of a manager, a resource person, and a counsellor (Camilleri, 1997). So, it can be concluded that teachers should raise students’ awareness of the benefits of increased independence in their learning. If teachers intend to promote students’ learner autonomy, teachers themselves need to have a systematic guideline of what learning strategies to teach, how to teach, and how to help students to keep to these strategies and develop learning skills until they become autonomous learners. Teacher education programs need to provide such opportunities and training for teachers on how to promote learner autonomy effectively in their teaching.

Acknowledgement

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