Journal of Foreign Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics

J-FLTAL

Volume 1 - Number. 2 - 2014
ISSN: 2303-5528

Typeset in Times New Roman by Irfan Hasić
Printed and bound in Bosnia and Herzegovina by AMOS GRAF D.O.O.,
Sarajevo

National Library Cataloguing in Publication Data
A catalogue record for this book is available from the National Library of Bosnia and Herzegovina
Library of International Burch University Cataloging-in-Publication Data
Journal of Foreign Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics (J-FLTAL) /
Editor-in-Chief Azamat Akbarov

Circulation:
200 copies
Nacionalna i univerzitetska biblioteka
Bosne i Hercegovine, Sarajevo
371.3:81’243](082)

Journal of Foreign Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics (J-FLTAL) /
Editor-in-Chief
Azamat Akbarov- Sarajevo : International Burch
University, 2014. – 284 str. : ilustr. ; 30 cm

First published 2014
by International Burch University
Francuske Revolucije bb., Sarajevo 71210

J-FLTAL

TABLE OF CONTENTS

J-FLTAL

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ESP Teaching Practice at Technical Faculties

Aida Tarabar
University of Zenica, Bosnia and Herzegovina

Abstract: *The paper offers an insight into the highlights of the ESP teaching practice at the University of Zenica, the university with the longest ESP tradition in the country. This type of language instruction started as part of an optional course at the Faculty of Metallurgy in 1970s. During the following decades – especially in recent times – the teaching has been developed and organized into several obligatory ESP courses that are taught during the final four semesters of undergraduate studies at technical faculties. The training finishes with so called Public Lecture – a series of presentations delivered by the students themselves. The main characteristics of ESP instruction at these faculties are total flexibility and adaptability. This means the ESP teacher not only tends to follow the most recent findings in the realm of the ELT, but also observes the specific educational and social circumstances within which the learning/teaching process takes place. In a country such as Bosnia and Herzegovina, where the legacy of war includes a brain drain and a complex situation at all three educational levels, it is important to design innovative practices that can compensate for the aforementioned deficiencies. By being responsive to students' needs, we try to bridge and/or fill in the gaps in their knowledge. In the course of our ESP instruction the students are equipped with the most appropriate and practical tools they can use when they encounter the problem of translating a technical text – a simplified 'translation technology'. Thus, they are encouraged to enter the language arena. Without such a scaffold, they would most probably remain only spectators.*

Key words: *ESP, translation technology, vocabulary, syntax, morphology*

Article History:
Submitted: 15.04.2014.
Accepted: 24.11.2014.

DOI Number:
10.14706/JFLTAL15211

Introduction

We are all aware of a growing tendency for universities to provide courses in English. In his book, *The Future of English*, a British linguist David Graddol describes this trend and its consequences in the following words:

> *'One of the most significant educational trends world-wide is the teaching of a growing number of courses in universities through the medium of English. The need to teach some subjects in English, rather than the national language, is well understood: in the sciences, for example, up-to-date text books and research articles are obtainable much more easily in one of the world languages and most readily of all in English ... English-medium higher education is thus one of the drivers of language shift, from L2 to L1 English-speaking status' (Graddol 1997: 45)*

Indeed, such education presents an invaluable advantage for those who can afford it. But the question remains: Is such education possible in most countries? If not - What should be done? How can the grounds for such education be set or how can we speed up its implementation?

Having been a language teacher at different technical faculties for fifteen years now, I have become quite familiar with the situation in B&H education. The University of Zenica provides more English teaching at its technical faculties than any other university in Bosnia and Herzegovina. It was the management of the Faculty of Mechanical Engineering that first recognized the importance of the English language for their students and their professional development. They introduced English as a subject during each year of studies. Soon afterwards, the other faculties, i.e. the Faculty of Metallurgy and Materials and The Faculty of Polytechnics, followed suit. Due to these actions, conditions were met for an adequate instruction in *English for Specific Purposes* (hereinafter: ESP). The results of such a praxis proved to be so good that the University opened its 'doors' to quite modern approaches in foreign language teaching such as *Content and Language Integrated Learning* (CLIL). During the academic year 2012/2013, CLIL was tested at technical faculties and the outcome was exceptionally good. However, CLIL is not the topic of this paper. I mention it only because one of the researchers' conclusions was that CLIL would not have produced such good results at our faculties had it not been supported by the ESP teaching in the first place.[1] In other words, the time is not ripe for modern approaches such as CLIL at the majority of our universities. This is because students

[1] This paper's discussion of ESP instruction focuses exclusively on the kind that is currently practiced at our technical faculties.

who enrol in the faculties generally arrive with poor English proficiency. This situation is mainly the legacy of war. Over the last 10 years, some of the deficiencies in English teaching have been overcome, but many of them remain, particularly those related to vocational or technical schools. The majority of students recruited by technical faculties have graduated from schools where English doesn't have the status it deserves.

Therefore, we wish to share our experience, particularly in terms of *ESP*, in order to help others find their way to contemporary types of English language teaching.

Is a Different Approach to ESP Teaching Needed at Technical Faculties?

There is nothing new about the idea that ESP is reserved for professional discourse and university-level education. Although ESP instruction is also offered in certain secondary schools and in companies that prepare professionals for tasks that require proficiency in English, universities pose a special challenge for ESP.
There are few reasons for this. It is expected that students' proficiency at this level of education is high – *intermediate* at the very least. Also, students are expected to demonstrate a significant level of enthusiasm for studying English, because it is the language that will help them understand the content of the books and texts from their reading lists in the course of their studies as well as in their further specialization through *Life Long Learning* (*LLL*).

However, the situation in B&H falls far short of these expectations. When referring to foreign language knowledge, we must appreciate that students studying at these faculties typically come from rural areas where, up until recently, foreign languages at primary school level were taught by unqualified staff. The same goes for teaching the mother tongue.

A similar situation prevails in secondary technical schools, which supply the most students to the technical faculties.[2] The language instruction has been deficient, substandard and irregular, which has generated resistance amongst students towards learning foreign languages in particular. Turnover among teachers is often high, which adds to the students' uneasiness about dealing with foreign language texts.

However, aware of the importance of the English language, these students are keen to fill in the gaps in their knowledge. Given a low number of hours allocated to teaching foreign languages (2 hours per week) and a high number of students, it was

[2] The number of students coming from gymnasiums (general secondary schools) is negligible.

not possible to apply the usual foreign language teaching methods and expect high achievement rates across the student population. Therefore, we decided to:

a) introduce the *General English* classes in the first two years of studies,
b) start with the ESP in the third year (when there are fewer students compared to Years 1 and 2) and to
c) offer 'a new beginning' to students by adopting an approach that is designed to give them a badly needed boost.

In other words, we knew that students needed a different, or *enstranged*[3] approach to reading technical texts. More precisely - they required a different 'language narrative'.

Bearing all this in mind, we designed the ESP, which includes, amongst other things, an analysis of a limited range of simple sentence structures, as well as some phrasal forms, which is necessary for basic understanding of a technical text. Particular focus is given to simple sentence forms, such as SV, SVO, SVA and SVSC, and to simple and easily recognisable phrasal forms, such as NP, PP, and VP. This seemed to be the only way to give students a sense of a new beginning and motivation to start learning and using English in a practical manner. Our current experience of teaching ESP suggests that students with basic foreign language knowledge find this aspect of ESP most helpful in gaining confidence when translating an English technical text.

A Short Overview of ESP Activities at the University of Zenica

At the time the ESP starts, students are supposed to have already passed their exams in General English (1, 2, 3 and 4). The General English courses take place during the first four semesters and are designed to provide an elementary basis for students' further development in the field of *Technical English* (ESP).

In the fifth semester, students are instructed to use the basic vocabulary and syntax related to technical English, both orally and in writing. In this semester, they translate simple technical texts while using bilingual dictionaries.

In the sixth semester, the texts to be translated are more complex, both in terms of vocabulary and in their morphological and syntactic structures.

[3] This term, quite appropriate for the purpose, was coined by a literary critic and theorist V. Shklovsky. The term is found in *Russian Formalist*s who posited that something attracts attention only if it is *'enstranged' or unusual*. (see: Petković, N. 1988: 71-111).

In the seventh semester students are developing their oral skills by means of repetition, reformulation, substitution of certain elements in given constructions etc. Writing skills are developed mainly through translating longer texts from English into *BHS*[4] and vice versa. Students are expected to master vocabulary and grammar typical of technical-register sentence constructions. Special attention is paid to writing summaries of different technical texts.

The eighth semester is reserved for assignments that lead to *Public Lecture* - the final activity where students deliver their own lectures in English on different technical topics.

The Technology of Translation

From the overview, it is evident that translating technical texts from English into *BHS* and other way round is one of the priorities for ESP teaching at the technical faculties in Zenica.[5] In an attempt to bring the process of translating closer to the students' experience, we sometimes call it 'Technology of Translating a Technical Text'. Namely, the use of this technical term (*technology*) has a significant positive effect on removing the barriers that the students have towards language teaching and on raising their motivation levels, which very often result in high achievement.

In the following paragraphs we will explain how using the ESP methodology can help students overcome problems they encounter when translating technical texts. In this process, the grammatical explanations are adapted to technical discourse that these students are familiar with, and the use of technical vocabulary and descriptions resonate with the familiar content of technical subjects that they have learnt in their mother tongue.

As typical for any technology, the starting point is basic materials. In our case, basic materials are *word classes* (*parts of speech*). This is one of the most difficult problems our students must overcome, as they are not sufficiently familiar with the word classes and their functions. Therefore, at the very beginning of the course we introduce word classes and provide basic information about them. During this process we try to avoid overburdening the students with unfamiliar linguistic jargon or excessive information. Our aim is to achieve maximum results with minimum means. We therefore carefully assess the quantity of information, or technically

[4] BHS stands for Bosnian-Croatian-Serbian. It is the mutual language of the people of Bosnia and Herzegovina.

[5] The ESP Curriculum Plan at the technical faculties places the greatest emphasis on building students' knowledge and skills to enable them to translate technical texts.

speaking 'the volume of information input', in order to avoid excess information that may discourage students from continuing, or even cause them to drop out.[6]

In the next phase we try to address the structure of sentences. Our starting point is the foundation, i.e. basic 'materials', which are then combined into more complex 'structures'. In order to bring these language phenomena to life, we often use graphic representations, such as diagrams, graphs, tables, technical drawings, photographs, etc. This approach has very positive results on students' motivation. Grammar stops being a collection of prescriptive rules that must be learnt in order to translate a technical text and becomes a toolbox that facilitates translation. That is what the students need. Successes during this phase of teaching encourage students to achieve more later on.

It is important to emphasise that initially students are not expected to translate paragraphs. Instead they concentrate on singular simple sentences, which are then broken down into smaller constituent parts. For that purpose it is important for students to learn how to move from the sentence level down to a phrase level.[7] In order to learn this, the students have to understand how phrases are connected into sentences, i.e. how lower-level constituent parts link together to form higher-level parts, thereby forming a sentence structure. Students are introduced to the simplest sentence types, e.g. SV, SVO, SVA, SVSC, and SVOA, which are selected from textbooks suitable for this level.[8]

In the process of identifying sentence types, or their individual constituent parts that perform certain functions within those sentence types, students are advised to use certain 'road signs' or ' signals'. Learning to recognise them makes it easier to divide sentences into smaller constituent segments (phrases), which are then individually translated before they are connected again and translated as a whole sentence. The following are examples of these 'road signs':

A) Students are asked to start analysing a sentence by identifying ***the predicate*** in the main sentence. They are advised to first identify all verbs, both finite and non-finite ones, and after that to exclude the following[9]:

[6] The academic strength of individual student cohorts is often a deciding factor for selecting ESP teaching materials.

[7] In our explanations we often use technical terminology the students have already learned in their Machine Elements syllabus, which is as important for their chosen study as Anatomy is for medicine.

[8] The textbooks used in our ESP classes are: *English for Metallurgy and English for Mechanical Engineering*. See: Šestić, L. (1985.), (1994.)

[9] It is worth noting that during lessons we do not use linguistic terminology, such as *constituent, finite or non-finite* verb form, or *markers*, because this would create barriers and disengage the students.

1. all non-finite forms i.e. those verbs that they identify as incomplete to form a Tense and then:
2. finite forms appearing in dependent/subordinate clauses after the dependent clause markers, such as *which, that, when, because, where, who, when, if,* etc. with which they would be familiar from the previous year of study.

The remaining verb is then identified as *the predicate* of the main sentence.
Here we are only referring to selected examples. The students are never given difficult sentences. The examples we give our students illustrate the above methodology very clearly[10]. Here are a couple of examples:

1) *The factory produc**ing** steel needs iron ore.*
2) *The conveyor belt **which** carries raw material to the plant is very expensive.*

Applying the above methods the students will exclude from the first sentence the non-finite form *producing* and will deduce that the predicate can only be *needs,* which is also confirmed by its affix –s. In the second sentence, the students will exclude the clause beginning with the marker *which,* thereby concluding that *is* is the only finite form of verb, which therefore represents the main verb (*linking verb)* and introduces the *subject complement.*

B) The identification of ***the subject*** in the sentence is made easy by explaining the fixed word order in English sentences in which the subject precedes the predicate, especially in affirmative sentences. Such sentences are typical in technical texts. For instance,

A vast quantity of energy *has been lost* *in the process*.
S V A

C) Students are also alerted to the possibility of ***adverbials*** appearing at the beginning of the sentence, which can also be positioned in the middle or at the end of the sentence.

The comma is cited as the most common 'road sign', albeit not the only one, for differentiating an *adverbial* from the *subject*. However, technical texts are often riddled with mispunctuation, which makes the comma an unreliable 'road sign'. For

[10] The aim is to provide simple examples for sentence analysis, which would boost the students' confidence. Otherwise, it would become obvious very quickly that such 'road signs' are not always present in more complex examples.

that reason, the students are asked to check if an adverbial is placed at the very start of the sentence before they mark another segment as the subject of the sentence and start translating it as such.

The students are also advised that it is possible to have an adverbial in the form of a *prepositional phrase* at the beginning of the sentence, or a dependent clause starting with e.g. *when, how, which,* or *if* which precedes the main clause. At this point, we do not introduce the notion that clauses with the aforementioned markers can act as the subject of the main sentence, as that may cause a degree of confusion.

Let us look at some examples we use in the syllabus:

Over the past few years, the laboratory has been performing regular inspections.
A S V O

If the temperature does not rise, the speed of molecules will not increase
A S V

When this ideal condition is obtained, we start the process.
A S V O

It is, of course, possible to have an adverb, functioning as an adverbial and ending with -ly at the start of the sentence, which the students recognise easily, such as the following example:

Usually, the process starts upon the completion of the prerequisites.
A S V A

In parallel with learning how to identify *the subject*, the students are also introduced to ***noun phrases*** and the functions they perform in the sentence. The basic elements are covered as well as the importance of their meaning for the correct translation of a sentence. By using the technical terminology, the noun phrase is referred to as a subsystem 'meshing' with other similar subsystems to form a whole sentence, which is a system in itself.

To help identify a noun phrase, the students are introduced to signals such as ***determiners*** that precede it.[11] Students can easily remember that this function is performed by indefinite and definite articles, *a, an* and *the*. In order to help them memorise as many determiners as possible, we draw a parallel between the indefinite

[11] In the ESP syllabus, the term *determiner* is used to designate both a pre- and a post-determiner in order to avoid unnecessary confusion that such complexity may cause amongst the students.

article *a* and number one, which also introduces numbers, as well as quantifiers such as *some, any, much, little, many, few* etc. as possible determiners. Similar methodology is used with the definite article *the*, and the students are taught to regard demonstrative pronouns *this* and *that* as determiners. This number of words signalling a noun phrase is enough for the students' translation needs. From our experience it is evident that the students have no difficulties in identifying other similar determiners, although they were not explicitly mentioned during the course.

The absence of determiners is also referred to, but not elaborated on. The students accept the possibility of nouns not being signalled by determiners. They regard the presence of a determiner as an aid for easier identification of a text segment, such as a noun phrase.

In the next step students are informed that the following element within the noun phrase can be a ***noun premodifier*** (usually adjective), the task of which is to modify i.e. to change the meaning of the noun while preceding it. In other words, we explain that the premodifier unites its meaning with the meaning of the noun, whereby the reference of the noun is narrowed down.

In order to reduce the probability of their making mistakes in determining the noun head within a noun phrase, students are made aware of a possibility that the noun head can be preceded by another noun (*noun adjunct*) that also functions as a premodifier (e.g. *metal part*). The majority of students make mistakes while translating such phrases. When they encounter two nouns, one next to another, they usually go in the wrong direction and use the first noun as a noun head of a phrase. Then they try to adjust the rest of the phrase to the initially inaccurate translation. Such errors normally occur in the series of nouns that the students are not familiar with. When informed of a possibility that a noun can be a premodifier to a noun head, they become more careful and consequently make fewer mistakes. It becomes evident to them that the second noun to the right in the linear series of two is actually the noun head of the phrase. Of course, this refers to situations when there is neither a preposition nor a hyphen between the nouns.

As far as ***the intensifier*** is concerned, we explain to the students that it has the same influence on the premodifier as the premodifier has on the noun. Namely, the premodifier inherently modifies and narrows down the meaning of the related noun, so does the intensifier modify the meaning of the premodifier. For instance, in the phrase *very successful production* the premodifier *successful* modifies the meaning of *production* and the intensifier *very* further modifies the preceding premodifier.

Most common intensifiers are identified, such as adverbs with the suffix -ly (e.g. *successfully conducted experiments*). However, as students expand their vocabulary

over time, they begin to recognise other, non-derivative forms of adverbs. In this phase of their learning, it is important to help the students understand the linear nature of language, where the words appearing in a linear order are interconnected and interdependent. In this respect, our approach has had positive results.

Because we provide a short repository of word classes (*parts of speech*) at the beginning of ESP teaching, the students become quite successful in identifying them. Although they are not expected to have an extensive vocabulary, these students display a fairly good grasp of morphological markers, which enables them to identify the key word classes. Therefore, we pay particular attention to affixes of derived nouns, adjectives and adverbs, which also has positive results on student attainment. In this phase, the students become very aware that the knowledge of basic elements of noun phrases will be very useful for their future work.

As to the role of ***noun postmodifiers***, students are told that they modify meaning of a noun, similarly to noun premodifiers, the only difference being that they are placed after, not before the noun. The students are acquainted with the most frequent postmodifiers:

1. Relative Clause with its markers: *which, where, who, that* (*N+ which...*)
   e.g.: the conditions <u>which/that can be obtained</u>
2. Reduced form of Relative Clause in Active Voice (*N+Ving*)
   e.g.: the power plant <u>producing energy</u> (obtained by reduction of: *the power plant <u>which produces energy</u>*)
3. Reduced form of Relative Clause in Passive Voice (*N+Ved)*
   e.g: metallurgical <u>phenomenon observed</u> in cold worked metals (obtained by reduction of: *metallurgical phenomenon <u>which was observed</u> in cold worked metals*)
4. Prepositional Phrase (*N + PP*)
   e.g: a support <u>for rotating elements</u>

A special attention is paid to the last type of postmodification (*N + PP*). When we first introduce a prepositional phrase in our classes, students are told that this phrase consists of preposition and a new noun phrase. This information usually arouses a feeling of satisfaction among the students because it brings them back into the noun phrase domain, which – in their opinion – they know well by then.
Also, the students are constantly warned to be careful about the scope that a noun phrase can take within a sentence. The warning makes them more concentrated and analytical, especially when a more complex noun phrase is in question – particularly the one with prepositional phrase as a postmodifier to a noun head, i.e. *N + PP*. It

should be highlighted that this type of postmodification is rather frequent in technical texts.

It is interesting to note that students easily discern the difference between the noun head in a noun phrase and the noun in the noun phrase within a prepositional phrase that serves as a postmodifier to noun head. Namely, the students immediately observe that the position of a noun after a preposition indicates that the noun is not the head noun of the phrase (*N+PP*) but only a part of its postmodifier (PP=prep+NP).

With regard to the appositive adjective phrase and infinitive phrase, we rarely mention them as possible postmodifiers in order to avoid information overload, which could have negative effect on students.

D) When identifying **the object** (O) of a sentence, the emphasis is given to its position after the sentence predicate. Nevertheless, this position can be occupied by an adverbial in the form of a prepositional phrase (e.g. *The slag layer remains on the surface*), or by an adverb (e.g. *The process develops slowly*). For that reason, students are advised to analyse closely what comes after the predicate before they move on to translating the sentence. Thus, if the position is taken by a noun phrase, the students know it can only be the object of the sentence.

It is well known that sentences of the SVOA structure are quite frequent. It is difficult for the students to quickly determine where the object ends and where the adverbial starts, which slows down their translation process.

However, a number of them manage to do this correctly thanks to their knowledge of noun phrases as well as the context of a subject area with which they are familiar. One of the things that we always insist on is for students to rely on the context and general technical knowledge.

E) Finally, when introducing **the *subject complement*** (SC) to students, we underline that the best indicator of its presence in the sentence is the linking verb *to be*.[12] It is also stressed that this verb, as the main verb in the sentence, is followed by either noun phrase or adjective phrase.[13]

[12] In the initial phase of the ESP course we do not mention other linking verbs such as *seem, prove, appear* etc.

[13] Of course, other constructions that may serve as subject complements, such as: *infinitive, gerund or noun clause*, are not mentioned at this stage, because the complexity of information could potentially confuse students.

The name of subject complement is derived from the word *subject,* as they can be interchangeable in function. Therefore, this relation is easily explained by using the 'equals' sign between the subject and its complement, as in the following example:

Arcelor Mittal is the biggest company in this region. →
Arcelor Mittal = the biggest company in this region.

Although seemingly simple, this sentence type (SVSC) leads to plethora of incorrect translations. Namely, students that are not acquainted with it see the verb *to be* as an auxiliary verb, i.e. as a part of predicate. While looking for the main verb of the predicate, they identify the coming word (usually noun or adjective) as a verb, and translate it accordingly. Then, confused by the remainder of the text, which obviously does not fit the translation, they start improvising and end up with inaccurate translations. It is for this reason that a special attention is paid to the SVSC type of sentence.

We should mention here that once the students get enough skill in translating simple sentences, more complex structures are introduced.

In the end, it is worth mentioning that the students are warned of exceptions to all rules, including the ones provided by the course, as well as of the necessity to always check out the truth-value of their translations. If they feel that their translation does not fit the logic of the text, they are advised revise it.

Conclusion

Our approach to teaching English for Special Purposes (ESP) focuses on functional sentence analysis with the aim of simplifying the translation process. We try not to overburden our students with more linguistic information than they would find useful in their future engineering careers. With that in mind, we have introduced relatively simple examples of individual sentences, or texts specifically adapted for this purpose.

When introducing this teaching methodology, we were concerned that the 'technology of translating technical texts' might be problematic, but we were prepared to take the risk in consideration of other factors such as the students' very low level of English proficiency. We were pleased to note very positive results.

Our experience, as well as numerous student surveys, confirmed that the students are very satisfied with this approach. They are mindful of the fact that they are future engineers, not linguists. They are aware that their linguistic knowledge will be

limited but they are still keen to learn. The students approach translations with pragmatism and logic. The methodology used in ESP classes enables them to engage in the process of translation without fear, and to translate simple texts independently. This is a good basis for translating more complex texts in the future. Their progress is evident even after the initial translation exercises. This boosts the students' motivation, as well as self- confidence.

In conclusion, the approach described above empowers the students to translate technical texts from and into English with a degree of confidence and ease. Our experience confirms that it is better to encourage students to use their limited linguistic knowledge than not to try at all for fear of the reaction of their tutors or peers. The guidance we offer them, and continue to do so, is not aimed at producing proficient translators but at enabling future engineers to take important steps towards interrogating technical literature in English with confidence, thereby using the language as a tool for furthering their professional knowledge.

References

Graddol, D. (1997). *The Future of English.* London: British Council.

Huskanović, A.; Tarabar, A. (2009). The Importance of Foreign Language in Teaching Mathematics at Technical Faculties. *Proceedings: 13th International Research/Expert Conference - TMT 2009.* Tunisia: Hammamet, 265-267

Šestić, L. (2013). *Forme sa nastavkom –ing u engleskom tehničkom registru i njihovi prevodni ekvivalenti u bosanskom/hrvatskom/srpskom.* Zenica: Univerzitet u Zenici

Šestić, L. (2002). *Gramatika tehničkog engleskog sa rječnikom.* Zenica: Minex

Šestić, L. (1994). *English for Mechanical Engineering Students, Engleski za studente mašinstva.* Zenica: Univerzitet u Sarajevu

Šestić, L. (1985). *English for Metallurgists - Engleski za metalurge.* Zenica: Univerzitet u Sarajevu

Tarabar, A. (2013). *Jezička komponenta CLIL-a na univerzitetskom nivou.* (Doctoral dissertation) Zenica: Univerzitet u Zenici

Tarabar, A. (2010). Nastava engleskog jezika i upotreba lokaliziranog softvera na tehničkim fakultetima. *Zbornik radova III Međunarodni naučno-stručni skup: Edukacija nastavnika za budućnost*, Zenica: Univerzitet u Zenici, 679-686.

Tarabar, A. (2003). EFL and ESP Teaching Practice at the Faculty of Mechanical Engineering. *Proceedings of the 11th International Scientific Conference CO-MAT-TEC,* Bratislava: Slovenska tehnická univerzita v Bratislave

Petković, N. (1988). Poetika avangarde kao avangardna poetika: teorijska načela ruskih formalista. *Moderna tumačenja književnosti*, ur. Đurčinović, M. et al. Sarajevo: Svjetlost, 71-111.

Trimble, L. (1985). *English for Science and Technology: A Discourse Approach*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press

Derivative and Stylistic Features of Verbs of Words of Persian Origin in the Bosnian Language

Amela Šehović & Đenita Haverić
University of Sarajevo, Bosnia and Herzegovina

Abstract: *Before it was fully adopted by the Bosnian language, a Persian loanword, from the moment it was borrowed from the source (Persian) to the receiver (Bosnian) language, would undergo various stages of adaptation on the phonological, morphological, and semantic plane. Due to the fact that many Persian words entered the Bosnian language through Turkish as the mediator language, a great number of semantic changes occurred when the word was borrowed from Persian and later used in Turkish. Later on, the same meaning from Turkish would be transferred to Bosnian language. Words of eastern origin, i.e. words from Turkish, Arabic or Persian, made their way into the Bosnian language due to various influences and during various periods of time. These words were introduced to the Bosnian language mostly through Turkish and are, for that reason, referred to as turcisms. However, a more scientifically approved term is orientalisms since not all of these words belong to the Turkish lexical material, and since they involve a great number of Arabic and Farsi phrases. This paper examines the significance and role of the Turkish language as the language mediator in the case of words of Persian origin entering the Bosnian language. As loanwords, turcisms were used mainly during the 500-year-long Ottoman rule in Bosnia-Herzegovina, when the contact with the Turkish language and culture was most immediate. For that reason, the number of turcisms in the Bosnian language is quite impressive. For instance, Škaljić's Rječnik turcizama (Dictionary of Turcisms) contains 8,742 words (expressions) and 6,878 terms (1979: 23). During the Ottoman period, Persian was the language of literature, especially poetry. The most of the lexis of Persian origin entered the Bosnian language owing to great Iranian classics, but also, indirectly - through Turkish. Compared to Turkish and Arabic, lexis of Persian origin is the least present – more than 600 words in Škaljić's Dictionary of Turcisms (Akopdžanjan 2010: 18).*

Keywords: *Persian loanwords, Turkish language, Bosnian language, semantics changes*

Article History:
Submitted: 12.04.2014.
Accepted: 03.11.2014.

Doi Number:
10.14706/JFLTAL15212

Introduction

The Bosnian language contains a number of words of Persian origin, mainly received through Turkish as the relay language during Ottoman rule in Bosnia and Herzegovina. Today, these words are mainly part of the passive lexis of modern Bosnian, which is primarily a consequence of the disappearance of the notions and phenomena they denote, but also a result of their replacement with other forms. However, quite a number of these lexemes appear in conversational Bosnian, where they are used for the purpose of greater expressive force. They are most frequently nouns, followed by adjectives and verbs – parts of speech that carry the largest amount of information.

This paper will focus on verbs derived from words of Persian origin, usually nouns. This is no surprise in light of the fact the majority of loanwords are nouns. This is because nouns' function is to name phenomena and objects – both those that do not have adequate local equivalents, and those that do have local equivalents, but are for some reason less prestigious and are therefore replaced with a borrowed noun. Since Persian loanwords no longer enter our language, due to the influence of different factors, the corpus of this research comprises dictionaries of modern Bosnian language[1]. Namely, we thought that such lexicographical sources would represent a reliable source for a derivation and style-based analysis of verbs in Bosnian. However, since the root of such verbs is Persian, we consulted dictionaries of the Persian language in order to determine their origin and semantics. These dictionaries were used as an auxiliary tool in this derivation and style-focused analysis of verbs in the lexical stock of the Bosnian language.

Derivative features of verbs of Persian origin in Bosnian

Most verbs in our language derived from Persian words are dominative, i.e. derived from nouns. Although prefixal derivation is indeed the most productive type for derivation of verbs, this paper will first look at verbs of suffixal derivation, since the meaning of verb suffixes is far more precise than that of verb prefixes.

Suffixal derivation of verbs

As a method of word formation, suffixal derivation is more frequent in nouns than in verbs. Still, there are numerous verbs derived in this way.

[1] They include: *Rječnik bosanskoga jezika* (2010) by Senahid Halilović, Ismail Palić and Amel Šehović, published by the Faculty of Philosophy in Sarajevo, further referred to in this paper as RBJ, as well as *Rječnik sarajevskog žargona* (2003) by Narcis Saračević, published by Vrijeme Zenica, further referred to in this paper as RSŽ.

Suffixal derivation of verbs from nouns

The most prominent are verbs derived with the following suffixes (according to: Barić – Lončarić i dr., 1979:293–294):

1. the suffix **-a-,** used to form verbs related to the meaning of the noun,
a) as object: *erendati* – 'to grate potato, cheese etc.' (RBJ: 272), *hujati* – '*conversat., expr.* to cause anger, fury, to anger, upset' (RBJ: 373);

i.e. those whose meaning can be described by transforming nouns: noun + *-ati* → verb + noun in the accusative case (Babić, 1986:449), for example: *džumbusati* – '*conversat., expr*. to cause *džumbus*, excitement, noisy celebration' (RBJ: 253).

The verb *erendati* is interesting in terms of norm, since the former Serbo-Croat norm recognised only the form *rend(e)isati* (MS[2]: 506–507), and *erende* was marked as *pokr.* [regional, provincial] (MS – MH[3]: 858), indicating its non-normative status and forwarding the entry to the noun *rende*. The situation is the opposite in modern Bosnian – the form *rende* is non-preferred in the norm of contemporary Bosnian (RBJ:1142), as indicated by the marking *v.* [see], forwarding the lexicographical entry to the noun *erende*.

b) as substance or object used as a tool or a device for a particular action: *pandžati* – 'scratch and hurt with *pandže* [claws]' (RBJ: 872); *tamburati* – '*rare,* to play the *tamboura*' (RBJ: 1316); *testerati* – 'to cut using *testera* [saw], to saw' (RBJ: 1327).

Derivatives of this meaning are the most frequent among verbs derived using the suffix -a-.

c) as a name of a state: *beharati* – 'to be in *behar* [spring blossom] (fruit trees), to blossom' (RBJ: 54);

d) in various other meanings: *pendžerati* – '*conversat., expr.* to go to someone' *pendžer* [window] for the purpose of courtship' (RBJ: 889);

2. suffix **-i-**, used to derive verbs:
a) whose meaning can be described by a transformation: noun + *-iti* → verb + noun in the accusative case, for example *abdestiti se* – 'to take *abdest,* to conduct the ritual of ablution' (RBJ: 1); *divaniti* – '*expr*. 1. to

[2] This abbreviation is used to refer to *Rečnik srpskohrvatskoga književnog jezika*, vol. 5 (P – S) (1973), published by Matica srpska Novi Sad.
[3] This abbreviation refers to *Rečnik srpskohrvatskoga književnog jezika*, vol. 1 (A – E) (1967), published by Matica srpska Novi Sad and Matica hrvatska Zagreb.

speak, discuss, present, etc.; i.e. to conduct *divan* – meeting, discussion' (RBJ: 193);

or when related with the starting noun:

b) as substance or object used as a tool or a device: *sirćetiti* – 'to season with *sirće* [vinegar]' (RBJ: 1194); *šećeriti* – 'to sweeten with *šećer* [sugar]' (RBJ:1288);

c) as an object resulting from the action denoted by the verb: *ćariti* – '*conversat., expr.* to acquire *ćar* [gain], to earn, e.g. through trade' (RBJ: 148); *ćemeriti* – '*arch*. to build as *ćemer* [type of roof]' (RBJ: 149), *jagmiti* – 'trying to reach or grab something by fighting others' (RBJ: 454); *kauriti* – 'to turn into a *kaur*' (RBJ: 495); *pazariti* – 'to conduct *pazar,* to purchase or sell, to trade' (RBJ: 885); *šićariti* – '*conversat., expr*. to gain *šićar* [profit, gain] easily or quickly, *(u)ćariti*' (RBJ: 1292); *zijaniti* – '*conversat., expr*. to suffer damages or loss' (RBJ: 1523);

d) expressing the same thing as the base noun: *bećariti* – 'to live the life of a *bećar* [carefree, sociable, enjoying a good time, etc.]' (RBJ: 53);

e) expressing a feature: *jaraniti (se)* – '*conversat., rare*, to become friends, to maintain friendship, to spend time together, to socialise' (RBJ: 457–458);

f) denoting a particular job or profession: *pehlivaniti* – 'to be *pehlivan,* to perform the acrobatics of a *pehlivan*' (RBJ: 888); *piljariti* – 'to be a *piljar*, a (green)grocer' (RBJ: 898);

g) in various other meanings: *meziti* – '*conversat.,* to be served or eat *meze*' (RBJ: 648); *nišaniti* – '*mil.* to take aim (*nišan*)' (RBJ: 770); *timariti* – 'to clean and groom (esp. a horse) using a brush or a comb' (RBJ: 1331).

The last set of verbs belongs to a large group of derivatives from inanimate nouns of unidentifiable general semantic definition.

3. with the suffix ***-ira-***, used to derive verbs that mean:

a) to play or seek amusement: *šahirati* – '1. *conversat.,* to play chess for fun, 2. To attack the opponent's king in chess' (RBJ: 1284).

Most nouns used as the base for verbs derived using the suffix *-ira-* are of foreign origin, primarily Latin and French, and less frequently from Classical Greek and Italian, with numerous colloquial examples from German and more recently from English (data from: Klajn, 2003:355), and this kind of verbs derived from a noun originally from Persian is thus particularly interesting in terms of derivation.

4. the suffix ***-isa-*** used to derive verbs meaning:

a) to be or resemble the meaning of the noun: *dembelisati* – '*expr.* to live like a *dembel* [lazy person]' (RBJ: 169).[4]

If the base noun is labelled pejorative, the verb inevitably carries with it a pejorative connotation, despite the fact that the source may not register the pejorative meaning with the verb, but rather only with the noun.

b) to perform a particular job or craft: *dunđerisati* – '1. to be a *dunđer* [builder], , 2. *pejor.* to perform building or construction work poorly' (RBJ: 240);

c) an action or the result of an action expressed by the noun: *mahanisati* – 'to find *mahana* [fault]' (RBJ: 619);

d) a substance or an object used as a tool or a device: *testerisati* – 'to cut with a saw' (RBJ: 1327).

As for verbs derived using the suffix *-isa-*, particularly interesting are those which use the Turkish *-le(n)-* or *-la-* before this one, itself of Greek origin (cf. Muftić, 1960-1961:23), such as: *muhurleisati* – '*arc.* to place a *muhur* [stamp, seal], to certify with a stamp' (RBJ: 680).

5. the suffix ***-ova-***, used to derive verbs meaning:

a) to be or resemble the meaning of the noun: *bećarovati* (*bećariti*) – 'to live the life of a *bećar*' (RBJ: 53).

Verbs ending in *-isa-* and *-ova-*, derived from animate nouns, such as the one listed in example a), denote behaviour.

b) to perform a particular task or craft: *šegrtovati* – 'to be a trainee craftsman, *šegrt*' (RBJ: 1288).,

Suffix-based derivation of verbs from adjectives

Verbs are derived from adjectives using the following suffixes:

1. with the suffix ***-i-***, when they mean 'to develop a feature expressed by the adjective', as in *ćoraviti* – 'to make *ćorav* [blind], to go blind' (RBJ: 151);

2. with the suffix ***-je-***, when they mean 'to develop a feature expressed by the adjective', as in *ćelavjeti* – 'to become *ćelav* [bald], to lose hair' (RBJ: 149); *ćoravjeti* – 'to become *ćorav*; to lose sight' (RBJ: 151).

[4] Although Bosnian classifies this word as both a noun and an adjective (RBJ: 169), here it appears as a noun and it is treated accordingly.

Prefix and suffix-based verb derivation

Some of the verbs we looked at in the previous chapter also use prefixes, hence they can be considered prefix-based derivatives. Although some authors (cf. Babić, 1986:495) restrict prefix-based derivation to a limited number of prefixes (*o-, ob-, po-, pod-, pre-, u-*) and suffixes (*-nuti, -jeti, -iti, -ati*), we decided to accept a more comprehensive treatment of this form of derivation, as elaborated in *Priručna gramatika hrvatskoga književnog jezika*, and include all the prefixes and suffixes that appear in verb derivation.

However, unlike verb suffixes[5], which, in most cases, render clearly defined meanings, the meaning of verb prefixes do not entail such precision. Klajn even insists that 'as language developed, certain prefixes were combined with certain verbs in a more or less arbitrary fashion', influenced by different factors, rendering an 'entirely unpredictable' result (Klajn, 2002:248).

In light of this fact, we will try to offer explanations of prefixes noted in the verbs included in our analysis:

A typical meaning of verbs derived using the prefix **iz-** is completion of an action, as evident in the verb *istimariti,* which also includes sound assimilation [z into s].

The primary perfective meaning is evident in the use of the verb prefix ***na-***, which can also express completion of an action (*narendati* [to complete grating, cf. above]), though not necessarily (*nanišaniti* [to take aim]).

The verb *narendati* deserves an additional comment: the prefix *na-* is added to a form which is not preferred in the Bosnian language – *rende*, probably caused by the tendency to avoid the initial hiatus. Also, the verb *narendati* is opposed to the form *izrendati,* derived under the same principle as *narendati*: prefix + root *rend-* + suffix *-a-* + suffix *-ti*, though not confirmed through sources.

Performing an action on the surface of another object is expressed using the prefix ***po-*** in verbs such as *posirćetiti* [to drizzle with vinegar (*sirće*)] and *pošećeriti* [to sprinkle with sugar], whereas *pokauriti* [to convert to Christianity] presents the meaning of completion of the action denoted (perfective).
Although verbs derived using the prefix ***pro-*** on a noun are not that numerous, our corpus incudes the verb *probeharati* [cf. above], denoting a completed action (perfective).

[5] The meaning of these will not be added, since they were covered in the preceding section.

The prefix ***s-*** is used to derive transitive and reflexive verbs, mainly from nouns, as evident in the example *sjaraniti se*, meaning to come together.

The meaning of the prefix ***u-*** in verbs such as *ućariti*, *ujagmiti* and *ušićariti* is identical – completion of the action denoted.

The prefix ***za-*** has numerous meanings, and those noted in the corpus include:

- inchoative: *zameziti*, *zamezetiti*;
- completed action (perfective): *zabeharati*;
- perform an action on the surface of an object: *zasirćetiti*, *zašećeriti*; but also possible with a nuanced majorative meaning.
-

Therefore, it can be concluded that prefixes may change the aspect of the verbs they are attached to – they may shift their meaning from imperfective to perfective, which is the primary feature of verbs derived by prefixation.

Derivational synonymy

A number of verbs derived from words of Persian origin display a relationship of derivational synonymy – be it that suffixes are synonymous, as they are in examples such as: *bećar**ova**ti, bećar**i**ti; tester**a**ti, tester**isa**ti* (only in the 1st meaning) or prefixes with synonymous meaning, such as: ***pro**beharati: **za**beharati* (perfective meaning); ***po**sirćetiti: **za**sirćetiti* (perform an action on the surface of an object), ***po**soliti: **za**soliti* (perform an action on the surface of an object); ***na**rendati: **iz**rendati* (perfective). In principle, all these verbs are used frequently in everyday communication, since their roots denote objects, notions and phenomena present in everyday life – 'two or three derivational forms would not have appeared in case of a rarely used item' (Šehović, 2012:413) and the explanation of this phenomenon should certainly be sought in light of this fact.

Stylistic features of Bosnian verbs derived from words of Persian origin

There are numerous verbs derived from words of Persian origin that belong to conversational Bosnian. These include the following[6]: *jagmiti* – '2. trying to be ahead of others in something; rush, hasten' (RBJ: 454); *jaraniti se* (with an added label *rarely*), *meziti*, *pekmeziti* – '*pejor.* whine (RBJ: 889)'; *šahirati* (in the 1st meaning), *tezgariti* – '*pejor*. to earn money on the side, doing part-time or honorarium-based work in addition to regular employment (often in art or intellectual services)' (RBJ: 1328); some of them are also expressive, such as: *ćariti*, *džumbusati*, *hujati*,

[6] meaning will be added for verbs described previously: they will be listed for illustration only.

pendžerati, *šićariti*, *zijaniti* – 'to suffer damages or loss' (RBJ: 1523). We may add to this group additional examples of jargon, thus completing their assignment in terms of style. This group includes the following: *lešiti* – 'hit, beat' (RSŽ: 146); *lešiti se* – 'drink heavily, use drugs, participate in a fistfight' (RSŽ: 146); *mezetiti* – 'abuse verbally, ridicule' (RBJ: 648); *olešiti* – 'beat up someone' (RSŽ: 190); 'hit hard, beat up with great force' (RBJ: 822); *olešiti se* – 'get drunk' (RSŽ: 190); 'get very drunk' (RBJ: 822); *tamburati* – 'hit someone, beat up someone' (RBJ: 1316); *testerati* – 'be very boring to someone, annoy someone' (RBJ: 1327); *zijaniti* – '*sport.* experience defeat; lose a game' (RBJ: 1523). All these are examples of metaphoric meaning, as is evident in the following examples, unmarked in terms of which functional style to which they belong: *beharati* – '(humorous) turning grey [hair]' (RBJ: 54); *pehlivaniti* – 'a. managing to survive in a complex situation; b. *pejor*. be a turncoat' (RBJ: 888); *šegrtovati* – 'be a beginner in a job and trying to learn from more experienced ones' (RBJ: 1288); *testerati* – 'snore very loudly (resembling the sound of a log being sawed)' (RBJ: 1327); interestingly, pejorative meaning seems to have developed parallel to the metaphoric one, as evident in the following examples: *dunđerisati* (in the 2nd meaning); *piljariti* – 'work as a petty merchant' (RBJ: 898); *tamburati* – 'speak incessantly, bore the interlocutors with pointless talk' (RBJ: 1316).

Some of these verbs are certainly marked for their expressiveness. One of them is certainly the verb *horoziti se*, derived in Bosnian from a word of Persian origin, *horoz,* which means: '1. rooster, 2. trigger on a firearm' (RBJ: 368), whereas *xorūs* in Persian means: '1. *zool*. rooster' (PBR[7]: 406). In Bosnian, the verb *horoziti se* belongs to the conversational style, and its figurative meaning is based on the meaning of the word it is derived from: '1. to become angry 2. to rise in anger, to be upset' (RBJ: 368). The same features can be found in the verbs *dembelisati*; *pandžati se* – 'enter suspicious relations' (RBJ: 872), and *divaniti*, which also includes an element of pejorative meaning: 'talk nonsense, speak pointlessly, fantasize' (RBJ: 193).

Conclusion

This analysis of verbs in the Bosnian language derived from words of Persian origin leads to the following conclusions:

1. These verbs are usually derived using suffixes and prefixes, with clear evidence of derivational synonymy in certain cases.

[7] This abbreviation refers to *Perzijsko-bosanski rječnik* (2010) by Mubina Moker and Đenita Haverić, published by the Ibn Sina Research Institute Sarajevo Sarajevo

2. Many of these verbs have developed figurative meaning, often pejorative and expressive, sometimes arising from the expressiveness of the root word itself.
3. The verbs included in this analysis are present in Bosnian mainly in the conversational style, but they can be entirely neutral in terms of affiliation with a particular functional style. This however is quite rare.

Therefore, these conclusions indicate a clear need for further research in relation to words of Persian origin in the Bosnian language, and linguists should focus in particular on their various derivatives. That is why we hope that this paper will open new avenues for more comprehensive research in this segment of our language.

References

Babić, Stjepan (1986). *Tvorba riječi u hrvatskom književnom jeziku*. Zagreb: Jugoslavenska akademija znanosti i umjetnosti – Globus.

Barić, E., Lončarić, M. i dr. (1979). *Priručna gramatika hrvatskoga književnog jezika*. Zagreb: Školska knjiga.

Dehhoda (Loġatnāme-ye Dehxodā). See: http://www.loghatnaameh.org/.

Halilović, Senahid; Palić, Ismail; Šehović, Amela (2010). *Rječnik bosanskoga jezika*. Sarajevo: Filozofski fakultet.

Jahić, Dževad (1999). *Školski rječnik bosanskog jezika*. Sarajevo: Ljiljan.

Klajn, Ivan (2002). *Tvorba reči u savremenom srpskom jeziku. Deo prvi, Slaganje i prefiksacija.* Beograd – Novi Sad: Zavod za udžbenike i nastavna sredstva – Institut za srpski jezik SANU – Matica srpska.

Klajn, Ivan (2003). *Tvorba reči u savremenom srpskom jeziku. Deo drugi, Sufiksacija i konverzija.* Beograd – Novi Sad: Zavod za udžbenike i nastavna sredstva – Institut za srpski jezik SANU – Matica srpska.

Moker, Mubina; Haverić, Đenita (2010). *Perzijsko-bosanski rječnik.* Sarajevo: Naučnoistraživački institut „Ibn Sina".

Muftić, Teufik (1960–1961). „O arabizmima u srpskohrvatskom jeziku". *Prilozi za orijentalnu filologiju*. X–XI. Pp. 5–29.

Rečnik srpskohrvatskoga književnog jezika. Vol. 1 (A – E) (1967). Novi Sad – Zagreb: Matica srpska – Matica hrvatska.

Rečnik srpskohrvatskoga književnog jezika. Vol. 5 (P – S) (1973). Novi Sad: Matica srpska.

Saračević, Narcis (2003). *Rječnik sarajevskog žargona*. Zenica: Vrijeme.

Šehović, Amela (2012). „Univerbacija u bosanskom jeziku". In: *Tvorba reči i njeni resursi u slovenskim jezicima*, a conference book (ed. Rajna Dragićević). Filološki fakultet: Beograd. Pp. 407–417.

Evaluating ESL Students' Creativity in Writing

Arta Toci
South East European University, Macedonia

Abstract: *Writing as a productive skill isan integral part of the language-learning process. However, students do not consider writing an easy skill to learn and many ESL teachers certainly consider it a difficult skill to teach.Creative writing normally refers to the production of texts that have an aesthetic rather than a purely informative, instrumental or pragmatic purpose. Creative writing in ESL classes has started developing lately, but only to be incorporated as a supportive skill in teaching writing.Responding to students' writing is an important issue to discuss when considering teaching creative writing. Response is a process that includes peer review, peer editing and continuous feedback through the stages of creative writing. By providing constructive feedback, the teacherunderstandsa writer's problems and intentions by making students responsible for finding and analyzing what needs to be improved.*

Key words: *teaching, writing, creativity, feedback, assessment*

Article History:
Submitted: 15.04.2014.
Accepted: 19.11.2014.

DOI Number:
10.14706/JFLTAL15213

Introduction

Writing as a productive skill is an integral partof the language-learning process.However, students do not consider writing an easy skill to learn and many ESL teachers certainly consider it a difficult skill to teach.According to Reid (1993), many ESL teachers only used writing as a skill to support language learning. This assumption led them to think that writing could be useful as a technique for adding interest or as a testing device for assessing grammar errors. Nowadays, writing has become an important communicative skill as a result of researchin this field. ESL teachers have come to recognize writing as a skill that is equal to other integral language-learning skills and many of them have investigated different approaches to writing.

The importance of writing in EFL classes

Like speaking, writing is a key to academic language success**.**From an early age, students acquire second languagesthrough words, and thencontinuing with sentences, paragraphs and longer papers.They encounter difficulties because most students find it hard to express ideas even though they have basic language knowledge. When taking on a writing assignment, students have little confidence, which leads to different preconceptions and stereotypes about writing. This problem has been a topic for discussion among many language teachers and researchers due to the great importance of writing in language learning. "Each time I am assigned a paper I stuck in my breathas if I had to move a hundred-pound stone from the entrance to my apartment in order to go on living" (Bishop, W., 1990, p.26).Anxiety makes students reluctant to engage themselves in the writing process. The fear of not doing everything right makes them step back and teachers miss out on what students really know. If students are free to express themselves, teachers will be able to see what they know and what they need to learn in order to improve.

There are many contradictory opinions on whether controlled instruction should be the prevalent method for teaching writing or ifcreative writing techniques should take over. A group of researchers would prefer to use them interchangeably even though they might prefer one to the other. Having looked at different researchers' views in this area of study, we teachers can decide to choose which instruction methodis the most useful and fruitful in teaching writing. It is crucial to bear in mind what writing really is and how we can enhance learning through the instruction of writing. "The view of writing as a tool for learning and not just a means to demonstrate learning is one of the major contributions of the research into the writing process" (Elbow, 1998). Therefore, if students are given the opportunity to use the target language in

order to build their capacities to write, they will surely acquire the language at the same time.

Defining creativity in writing

The traditional approaches to writing have had a great impact on both teachers' and students' beliefs about how to teach and learn writing. Despite the fact that many researchers have reported positive results from usingcreative writing techniques, many teachers have been reluctant to adoptthis method in the classroom. It must be noted that creative writing existed in theory long before it started to be used in practice. Considering that creative writing differs in many ways from traditional methods of teaching writing, it has been considered a challenge and an unfamiliar method that does not take into account important elements such as accuracy and precision.

The movement from controlled to free or guided writing started in the early 1980s when teachers decided to embrace this new methodology (Reid, 1993).Creative writingas a writing methodology is characterized by the free expression of thoughts and ideas in a supportive and constructive classroom environment. It is also referred to as expressive or creative writing. This approach focuses on enhancing students' ability to express their creativity and to genuinely practice writing in an anxiety-free atmosphere. Techniques that demonstrate the above-mentioned characteristics of creative writing include: writing a paragraph by describing a person or a place; writing a short story; writing an informal letter to a friend or a report about something you have read; writing about a given topic; and writing by describing a picture. Moreover, there have also been discussions about creative writingas a way of boosting critical thinking. Major (1994) has argued that creative writing activities actually improve critical thinking since they are based on students' personal and emotional state, which gives them a sense of motivation. Elbow (1998) also supports the use of creative writing by giving arguments for its general application and even recommending it for freshman writing courses, saying that students "need to practice nonacademic writing".

Evaluating creativity in writing

"Feedback has long been regarded as essential for the development of second language (L2) writing skills, both for its potential for learning and for student motivation."(Hyland, K. & Hyland, F., 2006, p.83). Giving the wrong feedback may discourage students' progress in creativity and decrease their creativity. Responding to students' writingshould be seen as a process in itself and proper attention should be given to its importance in their language-learning progress. In most cases, a piece of writing is analyzed as a final product and the main focus is on error correction.

However, language teachers face a permanent question: Does error correction always help to improve students' writing in L2? "One line of argument, influenced by process theories, claims that feedback on error to L2 students is discouraging and generally fails to produce any improvements in their subsequent writing."(Hyland, K. & Hyland, F., 2006, p.84). However, a considerable number of researchers claim the opposite.

Feedback is considered a much more difficultapproach to evaluating creative writing.This is because an idea that one person considers creative may not be seen as such by another person. Another problem in measuring creativity is avoiding subjectivity and choosing the right criteria. "Self-report measures of creativity and global assessments of students' creativity by others (such as teachers) have also failed to demonstrate sufficient validity to be trusted for most uses." (Baer, J. & Mc Kool, Sh., 2009, p.2)

Giving feedback on creative writing is thought to be very difficult since not everyone rates creativity in the same way. In addition, it is human nature to render judgments based on feelings, and a work that changespeople's feelings is considered worthier.To better illustrate this idea, Kaufman, Christopher & Kaufman, (2008) claim:

> It may be the case, then, that we make judgments of a set of work based upon the pieces that made us 'feel' the most. If we attach an emotion to a piece of poetry, then we should be able to remember that piece better and, further, to use it as an anchor for our judgments of other works by that artist. (p. 3).

What to focus on when giving feedback on creative writing? Thisis the hardest part for language teachers. Creative writing positively affects language expression through writing, which leads to a better general performance in that language. Students need to have access to this writing approach, which seeks to be aesthetic and at the same time offers relaxation for both the reader and writer. Whether approached in a traditional way or in a contemporary one, the teachers' main aim should be to help their students progress in their language learning. With a lot of care, they should offer feedback so that students can see their strengths and errors and continue striving for optimal performance.

The research

This study was conducted among 25third-year students at the English department at South East European University in Tetovo. Participantswere givenassignments such

as writing a letter, writing a short story, writing by using pictures, etc. All of the in-class activities mentioned above were used according to creative writing techniques and no error correction was provided. The teacher's role during the course of these activities was to be an observer, a supporter and a guide or a prompter. Students received more peer feedback rather than teacher feedback during the in-class activities. As a result of their group and peer work, students were giving comments to each other related to the structure of ideas and the choice of vocabulary. Students received feedback from the teacher after they read what they had written. The teacher feedback included appraisal for the good and strong points of the writing task and suggestions for improvement on the weaker points. It did not include error correction or correction related to mechanics. The students were evaluated ontheir progress in the following categories: Introduction, support, organization, vocabulary and sentence structure, and grammar and spelling.

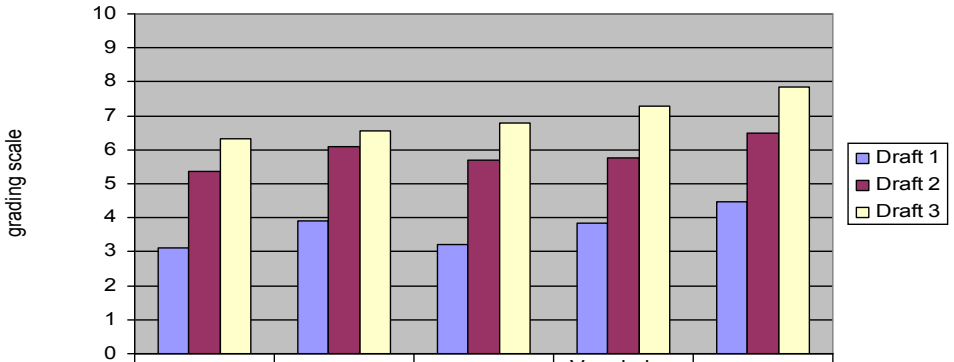
Students' assignments were collected every week. After each class the students received feedback from the teacherbased upon the following criteria:

Table 1. Evaluation criteria adopted from 'The HOT Writing Rubric' developed by Project Zero at Harvard University and by the Composition Program at the University of California, Irvine.

Criteria	5	4	3	2	1	0
Creative Writing	Excellent use of imagery; similes; vivid, detailed descriptions; figurative language; puns; wordplay; metaphor; irony. Surprises the reader with unusual associations, breaks conventions, and thwarts expectations.	Some startling images, a few stunning associative leaps with a weak conclusion or lesser, more ordinary images and comparisons. Inconsistent.	Sentimental, predictable, or cliché.	Borrows ideas or images from popular culture in an unreflective way.	Cursory response. Obvious lack of motivation and/or poor understanding of the assignment.	No response.

All three drafts submitted by the students were analyzed according to the analytic scale in order to tracktheir progress through the workshop. Detailed results from drafts are shown in Figure 1. The following figures will show students' progress throughout the drafts in five categories as separate units and throughout drafts as whole essays.

Chart 1: Draft results for all five categories



	Introduction	Support	Organization	Vocabulary and sentence structure	Grammar and spelling
Draft 1	3.12	3.92	3.2	3.84	4.48
Draft 2	5.36	6.08	5.68	5.76	6.48
Draft 3	6.32	6.56	6.8	7.28	7.84

As shown in Figure 1, students' introductions scored an average of 3.12 inthe first draft. In the second draft, the average score improved to 5.36. Students showed additional progress in the third draft, with the average score rising to 6.32. In other words, the writers made significant progress between their first and second drafts, with the average score improving by 2.24, whereas the improvement between the second and third drafts was slighter at about 0.96. The overall average increase from the first to the thirddraft was 3.2.

In the category of support, students' performance in writing the first draft was evaluated at an average of 3.92 out of 10. Students' ability to support their essays improved significantlyby the second draft, where they scored an average of 6.08. However, their progress slowed between the second and third drafts, where the average score was 6.56. In other words, the average score rose 2.16 points between the first and second drafts, while the improvementbetween the second and third draftswas just 0.48. Even though the progress between the second and third draftswas not significant, it must be noted that the difference between the first and third drafts was 2.64, which is a considerable success.

In the category of organization, students scored an average of 3.2 in the first draft. The second draft showed a considerable difference, with the average rising to 6.68. A slighter difference was detected between the second and third drafts, where the average score was 6.8. Nevertheless, students' progress in organizing their essays from the first draft to the second showed a very significant difference of 2.48, while

the third draft improved on the secondby just 1.12. It should also be noted that in all three categories discussed so far, students made greater progress between their first and the second drafts than between their second and third drafts. In the organization category, total progress between the first and third draftswas 3.6, which is higher than the total improvement in the first two categories, especially support.

Vocabulary and sentence structure is the fourth category that was analyzed in the three student drafts. In the first draft, students' performance with respect to the vocabulary they used and their sentencestructure resulted in an average of 3.84. The second draft showed an average increase to 5.76, while the students' average scores rose to 7.28 in the third draft. In this category, students' progress between the three drafts was more equal than in the first three categories. There was a difference of 1.92 between the first and the second draft, while the progress between the second and the third drafts showed a difference of 1.52. The overall progress from the first draft to the last one in this category was 3.68, slightly higher than the total progress in the organization category.

The fifth category, grammar and spelling,presented the following outcomes:The average score in the first draft was 4.48 – the highest first-draft average in all five categories. The average scoresin the second and the third draftswere 6.48 and 7.84, respectively. The difference between the first and second draft was 2 points, whereas the difference between the second and the third drafts was 1.36. Overall, students' scores improved by 3.36 points between the first and third drafts, which is approximately the same as theirrate of progress in the introduction category.

Conclusions

The findings of this research not only reflect the expected outcomes,but also provide insight into some interesting points with respect to writing instruction. Research on students' progress in writing has been an issue for decades and has covered many important aspects of writing. The interpretation of the findings is similar to the results of some research projects, but different from others. This may reflect the different nature of the sample that each researcher uses.

The results of this research point toa need for other related studies. If EFL students respond positively to creative writing instruction, it would be interesting to find out whether adult students of English as a foreign language respond in a similar manner. Other in-depth investigations into feedback and its effects on language learningmightprovide more interesting insights on the proper way to respond to student writing.
Teachers and educators should practice creative writing so that students can produce a 'self work'.

The outcomes of teaching creative writing are enormous for language learners. In addition to practicing new vocabulary, students practice structure deductively and at the same time concentrate on the content.

Writing drafts and peer feedback are closely connected to the final evaluation. Teachers have the main say when evaluating creative writing. Using an evaluation chart is helpful both for the teacher and the student writer.

This study answers several questions. Clearly, creative writing makes students better writers. This does not mean that students who practice creative writing are able to do well in other writing approaches, but it helps in creating writing habits.
Creative writing is also an approach to writing that finds a good place in literature.Creative writing, also known as a poetic or artistic writing, can help students become better writers.

References

Baer,J. & Mc Kool, Sh. (2009). *Assessing creativity using the consensual assessment technique.* USA, IGI Global.

Black, Paul and Wiliam, Dylan (1998). Assessment and Classroom Learning. Assessment in Education: Principles, Policy & Practice, Vol. 5. Issue 1. pg. 7-74. Print

Bishop, W.(1990). *Released into a language: options for teaching creative writing*. Printed in USA, National Council of Teachers of English 1111Kenyon Road, Urbana, Illinois 61801.

Elbow, P. (1991).*Reflections on Academic Discourse: How It Relates to Freshmen and Colleagues*. College English, Vol. 53. No. 2. pg. 135-155.

Elbow, P. (1998). Writing without teachers. New York City: Oxford University Press, Inc.

Emërllahu, D.(1998). *Bazat e MetodikëssëPunësEdukative* .Prishtinë: FakultetiiMësuesisëiUniversitetittëPrishtinës.

Harasim, L.&Hiltz, S. R. &Teles, L. &, Turoff, M. (1997) *A field guide to teaching and learning online;Learning Networks.* London, England:The MIT Press, Cambridge, Massachusetts.

Hyland, K. & Hyland, F. (2006) *Language Teaching. Feedback on second language students' writing.*USA:Cambridge University Press. Retrieved on March 25, 2014 from: http://epi.sc.edu/ar/AS_4_files/Hyland%20and%20Hyland,%202006.pdf

Kaufman, S. B. & Christopher, E.M. & Kaufman, J.C. (2008). *The Genius Portfolio: How do poets earn their creative reputations from multiple products.*Empirical Studies of the Arts, Vol. 26. No.2. pg.181-196. Retrieved on 27 March 2014 from: http://scottbarrykaufman.com/wp-content/uploads/2011/06/Kaufman-Christopher-Kaufman-2008.pdf

Leki, I. (1998). *Academic writing-Exploring processes and strategies*, New York City: Cambridge University Press

Lillis, Th. M. (2001). *Student Writing: Access, Regulation, Desire.* London:Routledge 11 New Fetter Lane, EC4P 4EE.

Langan, J. (1997).*College writing skills with readings* (4th Ed.) United States of America: McGraw- Hill Companies, Inc.

Major, W (1994). Freewriting: A Means of Teaching Critical Thinking to College Freshmen. Retrieved on April 3, 2014 from: http://grammar.ccc.commnet.edu/grammar/composition/major_freewriting.htm

Oshima, A. & Hogue, A. (1998). *Writing Academic English*. New York City: Addison Wessley Longman.

Reid, J. M. (1993). *Teaching ESL writing*. United States of America:Prentice Hall Regents

Steinberg, M. (2000) *Peninsula: Essays and Memories from Michigan*. Michigan: Michigan State University Press

Semantic Group of Units with the Semanteme "Thinking" in the Uzbek Language: A Contrastive Analysis with Bosnian and English Lexicons

Azamat Akbarov
International Burch University
Sarajevo, Bosnia and Herzegovina

Saodat Muhamedova
Tashkent State Pedagogical University
Tashkent, Uzbekistan

Abstract: *The article deals with the semantic field units with semanteme "thinking" in Uzbek, Bosnian and English languages, defined by their integral seme, on the basis of the criteria specified internal semantic groups. Lexical units refer to the meaning "thinking" and semantic field, integral and distinctive meaning have been investigated, inner groups have been classified in the example of the Uzbek language. The study of linguistic units on the basis of semantic fields is widespread in the world linguistics. They are mainly directed at the study of semantic groups of verbs. Our research will compare the semantic fields of units with semanteme "thinking" in the Uzbek language. The given lexical-semantic field includes not only the lexeme of the verbs, but the lexemes of nouns, lexemes of adjectives, lexemes of adverbs and also some of the idioms. In the result of the analysis of the factual material revealed the following semantic groups of units with semantepe "thinking" in the Uzbek language.*

Keywords: *semanteme "thinking," semantic fields of units, idioms, factual material, Uzbek language*

Article History:
Submitted: 12.04.2014.
Accepted: 18.11.2014.

DOI Number:
10.14706/JFLTAL15214

Introduction

Known works of Russian linguists devoted to the study of lexical-semantic fields (groups) include verbs as action verbs (Kildibekova, 1985), verb relations (Gysin , 1981, 1982), speech, feelings, thoughts and behavior (Vasiliev, 1981), verbs initiation object (Kuznetsov, 1974) and desire (Vorkachev, 1994), emotions (Rudakov, 1994, Fomenko, 1974), giving (Gonchareva , 1981), compliance (Gysin , 1989), speech (Rubtsov , 1976), gender inequality (Gysin, 1977), verb classification relations (Gysin , 1980), full coverage (Paducheva Motherland, 1993), verbs of communication (Glowinski , 2000).

In Uzbek linguistics, the previous research was conducted in the semantic fields of the verbs of speech (I.Kuchkartaev , 1977), states (R.Rasulov , 1989), motion (S.Muhamedova, 2007) , relationships (M.Sodikova, 1992) , feelings (T.Musaev) and view (Z.Siddikov, 2000).

In German linguistics as well, previously the research was conducted in detail with the lexical-semantic group of verbs both by the German and the Russian linguists. These are the verbs of the event semantics (Vaysgerber, 1964, Vikmane, 1989), thinking (Kozhevnikov, 1970), verbs with the meaning of connection (Rumin, 1970), verbs of receiving and withdrawal (Shcherbakov, 1975), verbs of motion (Orthen, 1976), verbs of directed motion (Alexandrov, 1993), and verbs of motion gehen kommen (Irgashev, 1985), sound (Savina, 1978), beliefs (Egorchenkova, 1985), promotion (Paly, Slepko, 1999), verbs of behavior (Grishaeva, 1999), verbs of state (Vinokurov , 2002), verbs of surprise (Kolayan 2001), verbs expressing liquid (Vintsova, 2001), verbs haben and possession besitzen (Kalinin, 2002), auditory perception verbs (Vliegel , 1988), verbs with the meaning "see" in German and French (Schpping, 1982).

Also in comparative linguistics method of semantic fields is widely applied as well as in this field it is applied mainly in respect to the lexical-semantic groups of verbs. There are some PhD thesis such as "verbs of movement in German and English" (Zlobin, 1993), "Visual verbs in German and Georgian" (Karegauli , 1991), "The German and Russian verbs of motion" (Shamne, 2000), "Verbs of perception of English and German languages" (Babalova, 1989)," The verbs of sound in German and Russian " (Dementieva, 1982)," Russian and German verbs with the meaning of beginning (Shihanova, 1987), and others.

Thus, the field of linguistics presently has no special research on the object of our study - the semantic field units with semanteme "thinking." There is the study in Russian linguistics that considers the verbal speech means of the physical and

intellectual activities, recorded in the dictionaries of the Russian and English languages also functioning the class of verbs of intellectual activity in all poetry of the Russian texts of Joseph Brodsky. In these studies, detailed and comprehensive semantic features are considered only some of the verbs with seme "thinking."

According to Steven Pinker, in order to analyze and compare the words, we should find a case in which the rule and the words themselves express the same content; however, even when compared, and when an equivalent was found (among the languages), they (the words) would still be psychologically and neurologically distinguishable (Pinker, 1999). Therefore, in the following examples we will try to find some equivalents of Uzbek words in the Bosnian language, with their explanations in English language, but always bearing in mind that the words can never be completely the same in two languages.

1. Units with seme "thinking, the thought." This group includes such linguistic units of the Uzbek language as Tafakkur (thinking), тафаккур қилмоқ (thi nk), ўй (thought), ўйламоқ (think), ўй сурмоқ (think over), фикр (thought), фикрламоқ (think), фикрлашмоқ (share thoughts), фикран (mentally), фикрли (thinking), фикрий (mental, intellectual) and others. (Siddikov, 2000)

In the Bosnian language the term for thought is Misao. From this word the following forms were made: *misliti (thinking – to think), promišljati (to think over), premišljati (se) (to think through or to be indecisive), promijeniti misao (to change one's mind), podijeliti mišljenje (to share thoughts), misaono (mentally), istomišljenik (the person that has the same opinion as someone else).* (Halilović, 1996)

In the English language, the word *thought* originally meant, "to conceive in mind, consider" (Harper, 2001). As seen above, most of the English equivalents of thought exist in both the Uzbek and Bosnian languages, except for Bosnian word *istomišljenik (the person that has the same opinion as someone else)*. English language recognizes this word as *supporter*, however the word supporter means the one who supports the idea, but *istomišljenik* is the one who has the same idea as someone else, and shares that idea with the person.

2. Units with seme "Decision." This group includes such linguistic units of the Uzbek language as аҳд (determination), аҳд қилмоқ (decide), аҳдлашмоқ (decide together), қарор (decision), қарор қилмоқ (decide), қарорга келмоқ (come to a decision), қарорида тўхтамоқ (stay on the decision), ҳисобламоқ (think that decision is right) and others. (Kuchkartaev, 1977)

In the Bosnian language the derivations from the word decision are: *određivanje (determination) or odluka (determination), odlučiti (to decide), odluka (decision),*

donijeti odluku (make a decision), držati se odluke (stay firm when making a decision), etc. (Halilović, 1996)

The Uzbek word *аҳдлашмоқ (decide together)* , actually has a lot in common with the English word *decision*: settlement, agreement. The action of agreeing requires at least two participants, and sometimes the derived word in one language describes the original thought behind the main word in another language – in this case, English. (Harper, 2001)

3. Units with seme "discuss, deliberate." This group includes such linguistic units of the Uzbek language as муҳокама 1,2 (discussion), муҳокама қилмоқ (этмоқ, юритмоқ) (discuss), ақллашмоқ (advice), кенгаш 1,2 (discussion), кенгашмоқ 1 (confer, consult), маслаҳат 1,2,3 (advice, recommendation), маслаҳатлашмоқ 1 (advice) and others. (Glowinski, 2000)

The Bosnian forms are: *rasprava (discussion)* and *raspravljati (to discuss).* (Halilović, 1996)

4. Units with seme "Awareness , understanding thought." This group includes such linguistic units of the Uzbek language as англамоқ 1,2 (understand, realize), тушунча 1,2,3 (concept), тушунчали (having a vision, knowing), тушунмоқ 1 (understand), тушунмоқ 2 (penetrate), идрок 1 (mind, intellect), идрок қилмоқ (этмоқ) (to work out, realize), зеҳн (mind, intellect, consciousness), фаҳм (ingenuity, resourcefulness), фаҳмламоқ (think, guess, know, understand, to catch onto), уқув 1 (understand, bright), уқмоқ 1, 2 (understand, know, take in a sense) and others. (Kuchkartaev, 1977)

The Bosnian language has similar equivalences in these terms: *shvatati, poimati (understand, realize), shvatanje (understanding).* (Halilović, 1996)

In the English language, the word “awareness” has two meanings. The one is that of thought: being aware of something. However, the original form of this word means to be cautious, to be aware of danger. This meaning is not very odd if we make a closer comparison with both the Uzbek and Bosnian languages, where in some of the forms (in Uzbek *этмоқ:* to work out, realize, and in Bosnian *shtavanje – understanding)*, we perceive that all three languages at some point identify the word “awareness” with caution.

5. Units with seme "to justify somebody’s thoughts." This group includes such linguistic units of the Uzbek language as асосламоқ (justify), исбот (evidence, argument), исботламоқ (prove, argue), изоҳ 1 (explanation, interpretation),

изоҳламоқ (to clarify, explain, interpret), талқин 2 (interpretation), талқин қилмоқ 3 (to interpret), тушунтирмоқ (to clarify, explain, expound, cram), уқдирмоқ (to clarify, explain, expound, cram, to make it clear), шарҳ (interpretation, explanation), шарҳламоқ (explain, cram, comment) and others. (Vasiliev, 1981)

Bosnian: *opravdati (justify), dokaz (evidence), dokazati (to prove), objašnjenje (explanation), protumačiti (interpret) pojasniti (clarify), razjasniti (to make something clear) etc.* (Halilović, 1996)

In this aspect, English language recognizes few more examples of justifying someone's thoughts: to bear out (verify), confirm, and validate. (The Oxford Thesaurus)

6. Units with seme "Knowledge." This group includes such linguistic units of the Uzbek language as ақл (mind, intelligence, reason, intellect), ақлли (smart, intelligent), онг I, 1 (conscious, mind, reason), онгли (conscious, intelligent, clever), мия 3 (figuratively) mind, intelligence), мияли (smart, intelligent), интеллект, интуиция, билим 1 (knowledge, cognition), билмоқ 1 (know, possess the knowledge, to understand, to think), билимли (knowing, having deep knowledge), билимдон (having deep knowledge), илмий 1,2,3 (scientific), олим 1,2 (scientist) and others. (Vinokurov, 2002)

The Bosnian equivalents of these are: *pametan (smart), inteligentan (intelligent), svjestan (conscious), oštrouman (smart, intelligent), znalac (the one who knows things).* (Halilović, 1996)

7. Units with seme "Mental comparison." This group includes such linguistic units of the Uzbek language as *солиштирмоқ 2* (match, compare), *чоғиштирмоқ* (match, compare), *қиёс 1* (comparison and contrast, analogy), *қиёслашмоқ* (compare, to draw an analogy), *таққосламоқ* (contrast, compare) and others. (Vasiliev, 1981)

Bosnian equivalents: *porediti (compare), suprotstavljati (contrast), razlikovati (distinguish), analogija (analogy).* (Halilović, 1996)

English sources: to match up to, be on par with, be in the same class, come close to, hold a candle to; etc.
(The Oxford Thesaurus)

8. Units with seme "Think for a specific purpose." This group includes such linguistic units of the Uzbek language as мақсад (goal), ғоя 3 (idea, concept), кўзламоқ 1 (scheduled to pursue, keep in mind), мўлжал 1.2 (basting, preliminary calculation), мўлжалламоқ 1.2, 3 (schedule , estimate, expect) , чоғламоқ 1,2,3 (

assume, schedule, to plan), режа 2 (plan, basting) , режа тузмоқ (режалаштирмоқ) (build-up, schedule), ният (intention, purpose, plan) and others. (Vasiliev, 1981)

Bosnian equivalents: *cilj (goal), ideja (idea), držati na umu (to keep in mind), promišljati (to think), očekivati (expect), pretpostaviti (assume), planirati (to plan), isplanirati (build up a schedule), namjera (intention).* (Halilović, 1996)

9. Units with seme "has a sharp mind and talent." This group can be divided into two subgroups: A. Units with seme "has a sharp mind." B. Units with seme "has talent and ability."

A. Units with seme "has a sharp mind." This sub-group includes such linguistic units of the Uzbek language as зеҳнли (smart, quick-witted, shrewd, clever), иқдидорли (sensible, intelligent, understanding), тазимли 1.2, (clever, clever), фаросатли (perceptive, very clever), зийрак (smart) дид 2 (insight, intelligence), дидли 2 (shrewd, smart), заковат (bright, insight, intelligence), заковатли (clever, shrewd, smart), уқувли 1 (smart, quick-witted, shrewd, clever) фаҳмли (smart, quick-witted, quick on the uptake). (Taranov, 2012)

   The terms for this category in Bosnian language are the same as ones mentioned in part 6.

In the English language, the expressions are: brilliant, expert, competent, adept, and proficient. (The Oxford Thesaurus)

B. Units with seme "has talent and ability." This sub-group includes such linguistic units of the Uzbek language as истеъдод (talent) 1 истеъдодли (talented), иқдидорли (with a strong, powerful mind, gifted) қобилият 2 (ability, gift, giftedness, talent), қобилиятли 2 (capable of, gifted, talented) лаёқат 2 (giftedness, talent), лаёқатли 2 (gifted, talented) and others. (Taranov, 2012)

Bosnian: *talenat (talent), nadarenost (talent), oštrouman (strong, powerful, gifted mind), nadarenost (giftedness).* (Halilović, 1996)

English language: gifted, skillful, skilled, brilliant, top-notch. (The Oxford Thesaurus)

10. Units with seme "Imagination and presentation." This group can be divided into two subgroups: A. Units with seme "Imagination." B. Units with seme "Representations".

A. Units with seme "Imagination." This sub-group includes such linguistic units of the Uzbek language as хаёл 1 (imagination, representation, thought), хаёлкаш (haëlparast) (dreamy, visionary), хаёллий (imaginary, fictional, seemingly) хаёлланмоқ (think, stargaze, dream), хаёлчан (dreamy, pensive) хаёлан (mentally, in dreams) and others . (Taranov, 2012)

Bosnian: *mašta (imagination), bujna mašta (vivid imagination), sanjar (dreamer), sanjariti (to dream), vizionar (visioner).* (Halilović, 1996)

English: vision, inspiration, insight, by any stretch of the imagination, a flight of fancy (shows a lot of imagination, but it's not very practical in use). (The Oxford Thesaurus)

B. Units with seme "Representations." This sub-group includes such linguistic units of the Uzbek language as тасаввур 1.2 (presentation), тасаввур қилмоқ (present), хаёлига келтирмоқ (idiom) (pictured in the imagination), кўз олдига келмоқ (idiom) (present before the eyes) and others. (Muҳamedova, 2007)

Bosnian: *zamisliti (to picture), vidjeti kao pred očima (present before the eyes).* (Halilović, 1996)

11. Units with seme "processes associated with memory." This group can be divided into two subgroups: A. Units with seme "Total Recall." B. Units with seme "Forget."

A. Units with seme "Total Recall." This sub-group includes such linguistic units of the Uzbek language as хотир 1.2 (memory, mind, thought) хотирламоқ (remember, recall, restore memory), эс 2 (memory, mind, thought) эсламоқ 1.2 (recall, restore memory) ёд (memory), ёдламоқ 1.2 (remember, restore memory), ёдаки (memory, learn by heart), ёдга олмоқ, ёдга солмоқ, ёдга тушмоқ (idioms) (remember, recall, restore memory), эсга олмоқ (idiom) (remember, remember), эсга тушмоқ (idiom) (restored in memory, etc.) (Muhamedova, 2007)

Bosnian: *memorija, pamćenje, sjećanje (memory), pohraniti u memoriji (restore in ones memory – more used as a computer term), zapamtiti,*

naučiti napamet (learn by heart – in Bosnian language learn by mind). (Halilović, 1996)

English: consciousness, recollection, flashback, retrospection, camera-eye (meaning: the one that memorizes almost everything, mind's eye (meaning: bright) (The Oxford Thesaurus)

B. Units with seme "Forget." This sub-group includes such linguistic units of the Uzbek language as унутмоқ 1, 2, 3 (forget, pass into oblivion), ёдидан кутармоқ, ёдидад чиқармоқ (idioms) - (go to tradition), эсидан чиқармоқ, эсидан чақарилмоқ (idioms) (delete from memory, forget), хаёлидан кўтарилмоқ (idiom) - (forget) and others . (Vasiliev, 1981)

Bosnian: *zaboraviti (forget), izbrisati iz sjećanja (idiom: delete from ones memory).* (Halilović, 1996)

English: fail to remember, deliberately cease to think of, neglect to behave in an appropriate way. (The Oxford Thesaurus)

12. Units with seme "Guess, guess what." This group includes such linguistic units of the Uzbek language as чама 2 (assumption, reckoning, a rough calculation, the approximate definition), чамаламоқ 1.2 (assume, estimate, determine approximately), тахмин (guess, approximate), тахминан (presumably approximate), тахмин қилмоқ (assumed to figure), тахминий (presumably approximate) фараз (suggested hypothesis, assumption), фараз қилмоқ (assume, estimate, determine approximately) тусмол (assumption, reckoning, about the definition), тусмоллamоқ (assumeestimate, to determine approximately), гумон (guess suspicion , doubt) , гумон қилмоқ (ass ume suspect doubt) and others. (Vasiliev, 1981)

Bosnian: *pretpostavka (assumption), pretpostaviti (guess, assume), odlučiti "otprilike" (colloquial use: to decide approximately), sumnja (doubt), etc.* (HAlilović, 1996)

So, a special study of the object of our research – the semantic field units with semanteme "thinking" – is not observed in general linguistics. There are studies in Russian linguistics in which verbal speech means considering the physical and intellectual activities, recorded in the dictionaries of the Russian and English languages and also functioning class of verbs of intellectual activity in the poetry of the Russian text by Joseph Brodsky.

Conclusion

At present, the lexical-semantic field includes not only the lexeme verbs, but the lexemes of nouns and adjectives, as well as some idioms. An analysis of the factual material revealed the following semantic groups of units with semanteme "thinking" in Uzbek language:

1. Units with seme "thinking , the thought ."
2. Units with seme "decision".
3. Units with seme "discuss , deliberate ."
4. Units with seme "awareness , understanding thought."
5. Units with seme "to justify their thoughts."
6. Units with seme "knowledge."
7 Units with seme "mental comparison."
8 Units with seme "think for a specific purpose ."
9. Units with seme "has a sharp mind and talent."

A. Units with seme "has a sharp mind."
B. Units with seme "has the talent and ability."

10. Units with seme "imagination and presentation."

A. Units with seme "imagination."
B. Units with seme "representations".

11 Units with seme "processes associated with memory." This group can be divided into two subgroups:

A. Units with seme "total recall."
B. Units with seme "forget."

12 Units with seme "guess, guess what."

The study of the semantic field units with semanteme "thinking" in the Uzbek language allows new possibilities for compiling dictionaries with valence and with the units of automatic data analysis.

References

Johnson-Laird, P. (1987), *The Mental Representation of the Meaning of Words*, Cognition 25, 189-211

Klima, E. and U. Bellugi (1979), *The Signs of Language*, Cambridge, Mass, Harvard University Press 1979

Meyer D. and R. Schvaneveldt (1971), Facilitation in Recognizing Pairs of Words: Evidence of a Dependence Between Retrieval Operations. *Journal of Experimental Psychology* 90, 227-234, 1971

Halilović, Senahid (1996), *Gnijezdo lijepih riječi (The Nest of Beautiful Words)*, Baština Sarajevo, 1996

Harper, Douglas (2001), *Online Etymology Dictionary* (http://www.etymonline.com), 2001-2014

Pinker, S. (1995), *The Language Instinct*, New York: HarperPerennial, 1995.

Pinker, S. (1999), *Words and Rules*, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, 1999

Pisoni, D, and P. P. Luce (1987), *Acoustic-phonetic Representation in Word Recognition;* In Frauenfelder and Tyler 1987.

Taranov, A. (2012), *Uzbek Vocabulary for English Speakers*, T&P Books Publishing 2012

Tsohatzidis, S. ed. (1990), *Meaning and Prototypes,* London: Routledge, 1990.

Implementing a Listening and Speaking Curriculum in a Linguistically Homogenous English for Academic Purposes Program

Clare J. Zuraw
Michigan Technological University, United States of America

Abstract: *Linguistic homogeneity in English for Academic Purposes (EAP) programs can be a challenge to curriculum design and implementation. In university EAP programs where the majority of students share an L1 with classmates, instructors sometimes struggle to balance the use of the L1 and L2 in class. Despite the potential for immersion, students in these settings may also socialize primarily in their L1 rather than English, the target language. These factors demand special consideration in courses focused on oral production and comprehension where sustained interaction and negotiation of meaning is crucial. Ninety percent of the students in the Intensive English as a Second Language Program at Michigan Technological University come from China and share an L1. In this context, the classroom provides important opportunities for interaction and negotiation of meaning in the target language. The program recently redesigned, piloted, and evaluated a new curriculum. Using examples from the curriculum and the classroom to present this case, I argue that linguistically homogeneous classrooms focusing on oral and aural communication require different curricula than more diverse EAP settings. Examples from the development and delivery of the new listening and speaking curriculum are potentially applicable in both ESL and EFL settings.*

Keywords: *Curriculum development, EAP, EFL, oral communication, higher education*

Article History:
Submitted: 15.04.2014.
Accepted: 01.11.2014.

DOI Number:
10.14706/JFLTAL15215

Introduction

In the United States, 64% of students inIntensive English Programs (IEP)came from the top four sending countries: Saudi Arabia (29.9%), China (15.9%), South Korea (9.4%), Japan (9.1%). In American universities more the 28% of international students came from China in 2012, a 21.4% increase from the previous year (Farrugia& Bhandari, 2013).In this context, it is not uncommon for university IEPs to have large groups of students who share a first language. Linguistic homogeneity in IEPs can be a challenge to curriculum design and implementation.
For many IEP students, the stakes of language learning are high, with admission to and success in degree programs hinging on their ability to communicate in English. Concerns over money and time may be distracting stressors that can influence students in and out of the classroom (Yang & Berliner, 2013).Despite the immersion setting of an American university campus, students with networks of friends who share their L1 may get their primary exposure to English in the classroom. For their instructors, negotiating the use of L1 and L2 in the classroom can be challenging.

The Intensive English as a Second Language Program (IESL) at Michigan Technological University (MTU) serves international students conditionally admitted to degree programs. Ninety percent of the studentsin the program between 2011 and 2014came from China. The faculty recently redesigned, piloted, and evaluated a new curriculum. The listening and speaking courses in this new curriculum were developed to address the specific needs of linguistically homogenous classes that are typical in the program. This case is an illustration of how linguistically homogenous classrooms focusing on oral and aural communication skills require curricula designed specifically with the role of interaction in mind.

Mackey (2012) suggests that the connections between instructors and researchers studying interaction are strong andencourages engagement between the two groups. This paper will explore some of the ways that interaction research has informed the design and delivery of the curriculum. The examples of activities and assessment tools from the new listening and speaking curriculum could be adapted to fit both EFL and other ESL settings.

IESL at Michigan Technological University

Students in the IESL program at MTU are required to study English and meet standardized testing benchmarks before they can enroll exclusively in academic courses. Internal needs analyses have shown that to succeed in academic classes, students must be able to use English to write academic research essays, read extensively, understand lectures, and actively collaborate as group members. As a

pipeline program, students are under pressure from family-members and peers to complete English training as quickly as possible in order to move on to academic classes to save money. Instructors are seen as gatekeepers and their decisions to pass a student out of the IESL program indicates that he/she has a high enough level of English proficiency to begin academic classes.

During the 2013-2014 academic year 97% of IESL students were from China and over the last three years 90% of all students in the program were Chinese. In most cases students share Mandarin Chinese as an L1.[1] The linguistic homogeneity in this setting is similar to many English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classrooms. As in some EFL settings, the students' learning goals are usually not oriented towards community integration as they might be in other North American ESL settings (Nayar, 1997). While some students hope to work in the United States after graduation, many plan to return to China with their degrees.In other ways the situation is unique. While EFL instructors often grapple with the challenge of finding authentic language, real-world applications, and opportunities for students to interact with English speakers, most students in an IESL program in the United States are surrounded by campus communities who use English daily. Despite these opportunities for immersion, not all students seek them out. At MTU students spend 18-24 hours each week in a classroom with other IESL students and often form friendships within this group. For students who socialize and study in their L1, the IESL classroom can be their primary opportunity for sustained interaction in the target language.

Research has shown that English only policies in the classroom do not necessarily enhance language learning and that attempting to eliminate L1 from the classroom would be ineffective (Auerbach, 1993; Levine, 2003). At the same time, there is strong evidence that L2 interactionsupports language learning (Mackey, 2012). The IESL program at MTU does not have an English only policy and each instructor balances L1 and L2 differently to achieve the program mission of preparing students for academic success. Along with tasks like essay writing and extensive reading, some of that success is based upon their ability interact in English with both NS and NNS. Listening and speaking instruction in the programseeks to prepare students for communicative academic tasks in the target language and as a result, some classroom tasks, particularly those focused on interaction, requires the use of L2. It is in this context that the faculty redesigned and implemented the new curriculum during the 2013-2014 academic year.

[1] There have been some exceptions, with a handful of students identifying Cantonese or Tibetan as their first language. However, these students typically speak Mandarin Chinese in addition to their L1 and English.

The Curriculum: Task design and the Role of Interaction

Before the curriculum was redesigned, the faculty conducted a needs analysis to determine what skills students would need to use in academic classes after exiting the IESL program. Long and Norris (2009) categorizeneeds analysis to identify "*target tasks*" as the first step in task-based language teaching program design, writing that these tasks are "the real-world things people *do* in everyday life" (p. 137). Course goals, objectives, and outcomes were written with these real-world tasks in mind. In the case of MTU students, everyday life is focused on the university.In surveys of university faculty,one of several skills identified as important was the ability to communicate and collaborate with members of a group. For this reason, one of the exit outcomes for students leaving the IESL program was dedicated to this skill: Students will be able to participate actively and mediate communication breakdown in classroom discussions and small group settings.All listening and speaking curriculum documents include objectives and outcomes related to group work and/or the negotiation of meaning.

Research and the Curriculum in the Classroom

Like many EAPcurricula, the listening and speaking courses at MTU include a focus on listening comprehension, particularly academic lectures. The role of input in these courses is an important part of curriculum and classroom activity design. To prepare students for lectures and lab courses, the IESL program includes listening practice ranging from simple modified texts through complex authentic oral texts. But listening comprehension is only one aspect of the course and Long (1996) asserts that "comprehensible input alone is *insufficient*" (p.422).

Research shows that interaction in the target language is crucial for learners and plays an important role in the ESL classroom (Mackey, 2012; Pica, Young, & Doughty, 1987). Interaction and the negotiation of meaning cause the learner to make "*interactional* adjustments" and draw their attention to form (Long, 1996 p. 451). The type and context of the interaction is also important and can be adapted to fit learner needs (Mackey, 2012). In the IESL program interaction plays an important role in the listening and speaking curriculum and in classroom work. Onefactor influencing the design of interactive tasks is the cultural background of students. Some research suggests that students coming from educational systems that do not focus on communicative classroom techniques can be skeptical of interactive activities (Rao, 2002). Our experience at MTU has been that some students do struggle to adapt to a more interactive classroom environment, but that most of them come to see the interaction as an important part of their learning. In an anonymous program evaluation survey conducted in fall 2013, students identified positive results

from interactive activities. Students commented that they can speak more confidently, better comprehend NS, and that they "liked communications with teachers and classmates." A key to getting learners to accept student-centered interaction is to design activities that they find engaging and to explain the purpose and goals of interactive tasks. The best examples of are graded formal student discussions.

Formal Student-led Discussions

At all levels of listening and speaking, students participate in graded classroom discussions. These are designed to motivate students to interact and negotiate meaning in the target language. Sustaining discourse in the TL can be difficultin linguistically homogenous classrooms, especially at lower proficiency levels, but students have responded well to these activities.Students prepare a text – oral or written – before class. In class they hold a discussion on that text with little or no input from the instructor. How the discussion is organized depends on the level. Early on, code-switching is common. As students build confidence they are better able to maintain interaction in English. At the intermediate level, discussion questions are "crowd-sourced" from the group. All students submit questions for discussion which the instructor organizes and distributes at the beginning of the activity. At the advanced and transitional levels, one student is responsible for preparing and leading the discussion but the complexity of the text is differentiated. Students are graded on their participation, ability to make connections to the text, turn-taking and negotiation, and their production of comprehensible output.

In these student-led discussions the task is open; consensus is not necessary (Mackey 2012). Open tasks give students the chance to spend time exploring a topic and controlling discourse (Willis, 2004). Willis points out that SLA researchers have typically favored closed tasks, but that open tasks may have their place:

> When planning a TBI program, teachers would need to decide which kinds of tasks best reflect target language use or which kinds best help students achieve an established language-acquisition goal. In the case of language for academic purposes, this is certainly likely to involve open tasks. (p. 24)

Gass, Behney&Plonsky (2013) emphasize that "conversational interaction in an L2 forms the basis for the development of language, rather than being only a forum for practice of specific language features" (p.378).Graded formal classroom discussions engage students in the L2 rather than L1, which can benefit their language development while strengthening their ability to navigate American classroom culture. The kind of task and interaction in the classroom matters not only to the

students' learning but also their perception of the learning experience. In the fall 2013 surveys students again gave positive feedback on classroom discussion and identified personal language development related to fluency and comprehension.

Interaction with Native Speakers

Student-led discussions focus on NNS-NNS interactions, but research has shown that interactions with a NS can be even more valuable for student noticing and modification (Gass&Varonis, 1994). In a study by Gass and Varonis (1994) NNS who were allowed to interact were able to give clearer directions, especially after interacting with a NS. Interaction with NSs must be incorporated into classroom activities and teacher-fronted work sometimes plays a role. In addition to student-led discussions, teachers may lead discussions, especially when the focus is on form or when consensus is necessary. Teachers also interact with students in one-on-one conferences for formative assessment purposes. These conferences are typically designed around a task like editing a presentation, but also provide students opportunities to interact with a NS.

Another setting for program-organized interaction is the Conversation Partners Program. Each semester, IESL faculty match volunteers from the campus community with an IESL student or small group. They are required to meet for a minimum of ten hours each semester and their participation counts as part of their listening and speaking course grade. This interaction is typically between a NS and a NNS. The guidelines encourage participants to avoid doing using the time as a tutoring session. Instead, the goal of the program is for students to practice authentic interaction with a native speaker.

Presentational skills also play an important role in the curriculum. The presentations themselves are primarily a performance rather than interactive task, but it is possible to design the requirements for a presentation to involve interaction. Group presentations can provide an opportunity for L2 interaction with partners to accomplish a series of tasks in preparation for a presentation, but if all students share an L1 they are unlikely to primarily use English to accomplish the tasks. One way to ensure interaction in the L1 is to require students to conduct interviews as part of their research for a presentation. In Intermediate Listening and Speaking, students give informational presentations about either their academic major or introducing the audience to the local community. If they choose to present on their major they are required to interview one professor or two students who do not share their L1. Those giving a presentation about the local community conduct interviews with employees of local businesses, students, or other community members. This turns out to be a

motivational experience for many students who have reported that they felt better prepared to communicate with native speakers after the project.

Conclusion

Interaction is an important part of language learning and should play a central role in the design of EAP curricula, particularly in courses where the focus is on listening and speaking. This is especially important, and potentially challenging, in linguistically homogenous classrooms where students can interact easily in their shared L1. Through carefully designed interactive tasks like those described in this paper, instructors can provide learners with authentic opportunities for L2 interaction.

Several issues have come up in this case study that cannot be addressed adequately in this forum. More research into the trend towards Chinese majority EAP programs in the U.S. and how this influences curriculum design and classroom practice will be important for program administrators and faculty.Further research into roles of motivation and social integration in linguistically homogenous EAP programs could also contribute to a better understanding of student learning. The more accessible and relevant that interaction research is the more likely instructors will be to incorporate findings into their curriculum and their classrooms.

References

Auerbach, E.R. (1993). Reexamining English only in the ESL classroom.*TESOL Quarterly*, 27(1), 9-32.

Farrugia, C.A. & Bhandari, R. (2013).*Open doors 2013 report on international educational exchange*. New York: Institute of International Education.

Gass, S. M., Behney, J., &Plonsky, L. (2013).*Second language acquisition: An introductory course*. New York: Routledge.

Gass, S.M. &Varonis, E.M. (1994). Input, interaction, and second language production.*Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 16, 283-302.

Levine, G. S. (2003). Student and instructor beliefs and attitudes about target language use, first language use, and anxiety: Report of a questionnaire study. *The Modern Language Journal*, 87(3), 343-364.

Long, M.H. (1996).The Role of the linguistic environment in second language acquisition.In W.C. Ritchie & T.K. Bhatia (Eds.), *Handbook of second language acquisition*(pp. 413-468). San Diego: Academic Press.

Long, M. & Norris, J.(2009). Task based teaching and assessment. In K.van den Branden, M. Bygate, & J.M Norris. (Eds.) *Task-based language teaching: A reader* (pp. 135-142). Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins Publishing Company.

Mackey, A. (2012). *Input, Interaction, and Corrective Feedback in L2 Learning*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Nayar, P.B. (1997). ESL/EFL Dichotomy today: Language politics or pragmatics? *TESOL Quarterly*, 31(1), 9-37.

Pica, T., Young, R., & Doughty, C. (1987).The impact of interaction on comprehension.*TESOL Quarterly*, 21(4), 737-758.

Rao, Z. (2002). Chinese students' perceptions of communicative and non-communicative activities in EFL classrooms.*System*, 30(1), 85-100.

Willis, J.R. (2004). Perspectives on task-based instruction: Understanding our practices, acknowledging different practitioners. InB.L. Leaver& J.R. Willis(Eds.) *Task-based instruction in foreign language education* (pp.3-44). Washington, DC: Georgetown University Press.

Yan, K., & Berliner, D. C. (2013).Chinese international students' personal and sociocultural stressors in the United States.*Journal of College Student Development*, 54(1), 62-84.

A Contrastive Study of some Lakoff and Johnson's Metaphorical Expressions from LOVE IS A JOURNEY Metaphor and their Croatian Equivalents

Dragana Božić Lenard
Faculty of Electrical Engineering, Osijek, Croatia

Abstract: *Many people would argue that metaphor is a characteristic of extraordinary rather than ordinary speech. However, Lakoff and Johnson (2003: 8) strongly disagree, claiming that our conceptual system is fundamentally metaphorical in its nature. Moreover, metaphors do not only shape our communication but the way we think or act. Occurring primarily in thought, metaphors are grounded in culture; hence they serve as a valuable resource for cross-cultural linguistic research. This paper aims to study similarities and differences of the English and Croatian perspectives on love in terms of a journey. For the purpose of this research, Lakoff and Johnson's eight metaphorical linguistic expressions of the LOVE IS A JOURNEY conceptual metaphor from Metaphors We Live By (2003) were used in a survey and offered to 28 native Croatian speakers and former English language and literature students majoring in the field of translation studies who were asked to provide their Croatian equivalents. After the survey was conducted, the research has shown the great similarity of metaphorical linguistic expressions in English and Croatian language. However, it has shown that, in order to maintain the same effect, sometimes different tenses or voice perspectives have to be used. Furthermore, it has shown the existence of the same metaphorical expression in the respective languages, yet used within different conceptual metaphors. Moreover, the research has shown not only interliguistic but also intralinguistic differences, i.e. synonimical options that the Croatian language has due to close geographical, historical, cultural and linguistic contact with Serbian language. In conclusion, it has been proved that even though two languages might share the same conceptual metaphor, the actual linguistic expressions underlying the conceptual metaphor may be coined on the basis of cultural-ideological differences, thus referring to metaphors being both cognitive as well as cultural entities.*

Key words: *metaphorical expressions, love, journey, cross-cultural linguistic comparison*

Article History:
Submitted: 14.04.2014.
Accepted: 23.11.2014.

DOI Number:
10.14706/JFLTAL15216

Introduction

Many people would argue that metaphor is a characteristic of poetic expressions. Moreover, it is usually understood as a characteristic of a language *per se* rather than thought or action. Lakoff and Johnson (2003: 8) strongly disagree with this notion, claiming that our conceptual system is fundamentally metaphorical in its nature. Furthermore, metaphors do not only shape our communication but the way we think or act, making our conceptual system the core in defining our everyday realities. Since the way we speak is based on the same conceptual system used for perceiving, thinking or acting, linguistic study is a good resource for proving the nature of the system.

Aim

This paper aims to study similarities and differences of English and Croatian perspective of love in terms of a journey, examining Lakoff and Johnson's subset and Croatian translation equivalents. The objective is to find out how the figurative meaning of love is expressed in the respective languages and to investigate interlinguistic and intralinguistic differences together with the cultural involvement in the linguistic expression of this metaphor.

Material and method

For the purpose of this research and due to length restrictions, Lakoff and Johnson's eight metaphorical linguistic expressions of the LOVE IS A JOURNEY conceptual metaphor from *Metaphors we live by* (2003) are selected. The selection was based with respect to different subdomains representation. Then, 28 former English language and literature students majoring in the field of translation studies who are native Croatian speakers were asked to provide their Croatian equivalents. The survey was done using the Googledocs tool, which offered efficient and fast data analyses. Furthermore, the questions/examples were composed in open-ended form, offering the interviewees liberty in their translations. Given the small number of variations, all provided translations will be used based on their frequency, starting with the most frequent (marked with a) examples) and ending with the least frequent (marked with d), where possible, examples). The examples that might be understood by native Croatian speakers, yet are not used as such in the language will be marked with ? and the examples that clash with any level of Croatian language will be marked with *, thus implying their incorrectness. Bearing the small number of interviewees in mind, it must be noted that the results might have been different with a larger number of interviewees, which is the limitation of this study.

Theoretical background

Jakobson and Halle's book *Fundamentals of Language* in 1956 marks the beginning of linguistic-metaphor research, prior to which only literary research was applied. However, the turning point was Lakoff and Johnson's book *Metaphors We Live By* in 1980, which offers very precise methodological instrument for linguistic metaphor researches. They established three major theses: metaphors are omnipresent and should not be limited to literary contexts; metaphors show high level of systematicity and coherency; and they are not just a figure of speech, but a way of thinking. Keeping that in mind, cognitive linguistics establishes conceptual metaphor.

Conceptual metaphor

Conceptual metaphor is a cognitive mechanism that provides for highly abstract entities to be conceptualized through concrete ones, i.e. the source domain A is understood in terms of the target domain B. In addition, it is necessary to distinguish conceptual metaphor from metaphorical linguistic expression as Kövecses (2002: 4) suggests. To paraphrase, metaphorical linguistic expressions are manifestations of underlying conceptual metaphors. Additionally, conventional metaphors can be categorized according to conventionality, function, nature, and level of generality of metaphor (Kövecses 2002: 29) into three categories, namely structural, ontological and orientational metaphors. Considering the nature of the paper, the concept of structural metaphors will be presented.

Structural metaphors

Structural metaphors allow us to use highly structured concept to structure another one (Lakoff, 1992: 61). Similarly, Kövecses (2002: 33) indicates that the source domain provides a relatively rich knowledge for the target domain. Like their ontological and orientational counterparts, structural metaphors are grounded in our experience. For example, we metaphorically view time as money based upon correlation with people's everyday busy lives where they struggle to earn money, leaving them with no time for their families. Being a universal bodily experience, we use metaphors automatically, which makes them universal as well. However, next to universality, metaphors might also be culture-related.

Cultural variation in metaphor

As Kövecses (2002: 183) suggests, there are two types of cultural variation: intercultural and intracultural. Considering the nature of this paper, both intercultural and intracultural variations, where possible, will be studied. Kövecses (2005: 231) goes on to identify two large categories of causes for cultural variation: differential experience and differential cognitive preferences and styles.

Differential experience

As Kövecses (2005: 232) suggests, there are several causes influencing differential experience, namely physical and social environment (which, due to length restrictions, will not be elaborated on) and cultural context.

Cultural context includes a broader context that a culture provides for an understanding of its concepts. A well-known example of a correlation between language and culture is the Eskimo language. Due to inevitable need, Eskimos have more than a dozen expressions for snow. By comparison, Slavic languages have only one term for snow due to inexistence, hence lack of need. The same phenomenon applies to metaphors. Frank Boers and Murielle Demecheleer (in Kövecses, 2005: 236) elaborate on concepts of *hat* and *ship* being more metaphorically productive in English and concepts of *sleeve* and *food* in French because they are more salient to the respective languages.

Different cognitive preferences and styles

Cognitive processes such as elaboration, conceptualization, specificity and transparency can be found in all languages and cultures; however, the degree of their application varies from culture to culture (Kövecses, 2005: 246). In addition, there are some cognitive preferences.

a) Experiential issues

Cognitive linguists have always claimed that humans use a great deal of bodily experience to build metaphors. Kövecses (2005: 247) answers the question of whether bodily experience can be universally applied to metaphors or is culture-related by comparing English and Japanese anger metaphors. In English language and culture, the metaphor ANGER IS HEAT is associated with high blood pressure and increasing skin temperature, whereas in Japanese it is only associated with pressure. This indicates different metaphorical conceptualization of anger depending on the culture.

b) Viewpoint preference

Sometimes metaphors depend on a culture's viewpoint preference. For example, different cultures view time differently. In some cultures, the future is viewed as something yet to happen, i.e. events move from past to future in cases where we are dealing with ego-moving metaphors, whereas in others, events move from future to past, which are time-moving metaphors. To be more precise, as Boroditsky (2000: 6) suggests: "In the ego-moving metaphor, front is assigned to a future or later event." He continues (2000: 6) "In the time-moving metaphor, front is assigned to a past or earlier event."

Analysis and discussion

Some of Lakoff and Johnson's metaphorical linguistics expressions of the LOVE IS A JOURNEY conceptual metaphor in the English language will be presented in this chapter alongside their translated Croatian counterparts. The selected examples will be classified into subcategories on the basis of different source subdomains. Furthermore, ways of understanding and interpreting love in terms of a journey will be discussed in the major themes and mappings subchapter.

Love is a journey

Not many people would associate love with a journey, yet the two concepts share numerous similarities. However, even though two languages may share conceptual metaphors with metaphorical linguistic expressions overlapping, the cultural-ideological background in which the conceptual metaphor functions might be used to express subtle differences based on the expressions, as Kövecses (2005: 155) states.

A relationship is a vehicle

When two people decide to go on a trip to a destination they have never visited before, they may stop in order to check the map, find out where they are and how long will it take to their final destination. These mental images can be mapped onto love: when two people decide to start a romantic relationship, after a certain period of time at least one of them will want to clarify the status of the relationship: Are they just having fun, not thinking about the future, or is the relationship eventually going to develop into marriage? So, the mappings obviously serve as the grounding for the following metaphorical expression.

1) ***Where*** are we?
a) ?***Kuda*** ovo vodi?
b) ?***Kuda*** ovo ide?
c) ****Gdje*** smo?
d) ****Gdje*** se nalazimo?

In Croatian language there are three translational options for the word *where*, namely *gdje*, *kamo* and *kuda*. Despite being used interchangeably, there are subtle differences in their meanings. Firstly, the question word *gdje* is used when one wants to find out something about a place where a person/thing is located. In addition, it can be used only if alluding to the literal meaning, which is the reason why neither 1c) nor 1d) are grammatically correct, yet they are frequently used. Indeed, they do not underlie any kind of metaphorical expressing. Secondly, *kamo* is used for finding out about someone's intended destination and it perfectly underlies the conceptual metaphor in question. However, probably due to the formal sound in its usage, none of the interviewees chose it. Thirdly, *kuda* is used for the direction of someone's movement, thus conveying literal meaning. However, native Croatian speakers use it equally for both literal and figurative meaning. Moreover, it happens to be their first translational choice for the English expression in 1).

The difference between the examples 1a) and 1b) is in the verb choice. More precisely, in 1a) the verb is *to lead* and in 1b) *to go*, both of which underlie the metaphor in question. However, what differentiates both of them from the English example is the perspective. Namely, by asking the question in 1), a person wants to find out about the current relationship status, whereas by the questions in 1a) and 1b), a person is asking about the future of the relationship. Moreover, the literal translation of the example 1) would not function in Croatian language let alone convey figurative meaning.

2) This relationship ***is foundering***.
a) *Ova veza ***tone***.
b) Ovaj brod ***tone***.
c) Kola su nam krenula ***nizbrdo***.

Bearing the verb choice in mind, in example 2) the relationship is conceptualized as a boat. If the boat is filling with water getting and about to sink, and we conceptualize the relationship as the boat, there is one conclusion left – the relationship is about to end. Example 2a) is a straightforward translation, but even though it would be understood by a native Croatian speaker, it is never used. Additionally, very similar to 2a) is example 2b) where instead of the noun *relationship*, the noun *boat* is explicitly used, thus strengthening the conceptualization connection. However, since

it is mostly heard in politicians' speeches describing Croatia's unpromising future, this is an example of the LIFE IS A JOURNEY conceptual metaphor.

More interesting is the 2c) example. Even though tourism is Croatia's most productive economic branch, Croatia is not so maritime-oriented. Furthermore, in the region of Slavonia and Baranja, whose residents are mostly farmers, people used a wagon for both work and transport. Moreover, young people in the region, wanting to preserve old customs, tend to choose a wagon for their wedding car. So, possibly due to Croatia's orientation to its roots and appreciation of old customs, an expression using a wagon exists in the language. The metaphorical expression in 2c), if translated straightforwardly, would be *the wagon is moving down the hill,* underlying the same conceptual metaphor as the original.

After some time spent on an unknown road, travelers might realize that they have diverged from the right road. Similarly, after some time in a relationship/marriage, lovers may realize they have involved themselves in irrelevant things just to keep their minds off the important issues. This may seem easier at first, but it is not a permanent solution, so eventually they will have to remind themselves about their priorities.

3) We've gotten ***off the track***.
a) Iskočili smo iz ***tračnica***.
b) Ispali smo iz ***tračnica***.

Both examples 3a) and 3b) correspond to the English version in terms of conceptual metaphor and conveyed meaning. However, there is a slight intralinguistic difference in the verb choice and voice perspective. Namely, the verb in 3a), if literally translated, is *to jump off* and is used in active voice, alluding to the lovers themselves being responsible, whereas in 3b) the verb is *to fall out off* and is used in passive voice, alluding to external factors that are responsible for the lovers getting off the track. Either way, the result is the same; however, in 3a) the lovers blame themselves while in 3b), they blame someone else for their problems.

A turning point in a relationship is a crossroads

A crossroads is a place where roads meet and a traveler has to decide which road to take. With this picture in mind, the metaphorical expression *to be at a crossroads* was coined. The expression refers to a stage in life where a person has to make an important decision that will affect his life either positively or negatively, like being at a crossroads; if you decide to go the wrong way, you will eventually have to return, which will affect the rest of your trip with respect to your timetable. So, everyone is especially careful at a crossroads they approach for the first time, just like a person

who does not want to make a mistake is extremely careful when making serious life decisions.

4) We're ***at a crossroads***.
a) Nalazimo se ***na raskrižju***.
b) Nalazimo se ***na raskršću***.
c) Nalazimo se ***na raskrsnici***.

All Croatian counterparts correspond to the English original. However, the Croatian versions offer three synonimical possibilities used according to frequency and usage preference. To be more precise, *raskrižje* in 4a) is neutral and recently the most used option, whereas *raskršće* in 4b) and *raskrsnica* in 4c) are options more used in Slavonia and Baranja region, i.e. precisely in areas where Croatian and Serbian language are in a closer contact. The only thing that distinguishes example 4a) *raskrižje* and examples 4b) *raskršće* and 4c) *raskrsnica* is the root word, namely *križ* and *krst*. Etymologically, *krst* derives from Praslavic and Old Slavic languages (krьstъ), which were ancestor languages of both Croatian and Serbian, hence both languages used the word k*rst*. However, as the consequence of the Croatian War of Independence, there was a linguistic tendency to eliminate all similarities with Serbian language during the 1990s, hence *krst,* being associated with Eastern Ortodoxy and the Serbian language, was to be eliminated and replaced with *križ*, which is associated with the Catholicism that most Croats claim to practice. To summarize, the option in 4a) is neutral and the preferred one, whereas the options in 4b) and 4c) might be labeled as the "Serbian" ones. Further, they are most likely to be used in areas of a close interlinguistic Croatian and Serbian contact; however, all three options can be understood by any Croatian speaker and underlie the same conceptual metaphor as the English one.

Progress in a relationship is advancement in place

Like a journey, every relationship has a beginning, a course to run, and an ending. The experiences lovers gain and the time they spend together might be conceptualized through the distance travelers cover on their journey.

5) Look ***how far we've come***.
a) Pogledaj ***kako smo daleko došli***.
b) Pogledaj ***kako smo daleko stigli***.
c) Pogledaj ***kako smo daleko dogurali***.
d) Pogledaj ***kako smo daleko dospjeli***.

All Croatian translations correspond to the English version. The four Croatian examples used different synonimical verbs, all of which are travel-related, thus perfectly underlying the conceptual metaphor.

Difficulties in a relationship are barriers on a road

As George Lakoff (1992: 208) states, two travelers travel towards a common destination. During their journey, they may encounter some barriers and get stuck. Furthermore, when constructing a road, one has to be aware of geographical obstacles and overcome them. Sometimes, however, due to natural processes, deterioration and poor maintenance, bumps inevitably occur, and a driver has to be very careful when passing them in order not to damage his vehicle or injure himself. If he pays attention, he can overcome obstacles and continue with his journey. These images can be mapped onto love. During a relationship, due to different personalities, priorities and wishes, lovers encounter problems. If they believe in their love, they can work it out and continue enjoying their love. Building on the aforementioned mappings, the metaphorical expression is as follows.

6) It's been ***a long, bumpy road***.
a) ?Bila je to ***duga, neravna cesta***.
b) Bio je to ***dug, neravan put***.

In Croatian, two synonyms can be used for the English word *road,* namely *cesta* and *put*. Despite being used interchangeably, there is a slight difference between them. Precisely, *cesta* refers to a public, asphalt surface, whereas *put* usually refers to a dirt road and is more frequently used in metaphorical linguistic expression than the former option. Furthermore, the adjective *bumpy* defines something that is not smooth and presumably has some obstacles. By comparison, in the Croatian examples the adjective *neravan,* which translationally corresponds to the adjective *bumpy*, has two meanings; on the one hand, it may refer to a bumpy surface, whereas on the other, it might refer to a surface that has no turns, i.e. a surface that extends in a linear manner and might have no bumps at all.

When travelers get lost on a dead-end street, they can either end their journey or return to where they came from. In other words, there is no possibility for them to advance the journey, which can be mapped onto the love relationship. When lovers come to a point where neither of them wants to make a compromise, the relationship cannot be advanced.

7) This relationship is ***a dead-end street***.
a) Ova je veza ***naišla na zid***.

The only usable option is the one in 7a); however, the word's literal meaning is not the same. The expression does not refer to any kind of street, but rather refers to a relationship hitting a wall. Hence the two examples carry the same figurative meaning. To clarify, if someone/something hits a wall, he/it cannot advance in the same direction, so retreating to a certain point is the next step, like entering a dead-end street. Further, a dead-end street has one way in and out and on the other end a house or a wall blocking it, so the wall might be a part of the visual dead-end street image; hence the expression underlies the same metaphor.

Spliting up is taking different roads

When two travelers cannot agree on which road to take, they might decide to take different roads. The same thing happens with two lovers; if they do not see eye to eye anymore or have different goals in life, they may decide to end a relationship, i.e. each lover will continue pursuing his own goals.

8) We'll just have to ***go our separate ways***.
a) Morat ćemo ***ići svatko svojim putem***.
b) ?Morat ćemo ***ići svatko svojim putom***.

Both Croatian translations underlie the same metaphor as the English one; however, a closer look reveals subtle differences between them. Croatian noun *put* can take two inflections; either *-om* (putom) or *–em* (putem) but not randomly. If referring to a particular way/road, one should use the inflection *–om* as in 8b). If, on the other hand, one refers to a metaphorical road, like in example 8), one should use the *–em* inflection as in 8a). Since the expression indicates the metaphorical nature, Croatian speakers should not translate expression 8) with the 8b) option because it employs literal meaning. However, since *putem* and *putom* are incorrectly interchangeably used, both 8a) and 8b) options are equally frequently used, possibly alluding to tight connection between the literal and figurative meaning of a road.

Major themes and mappings

Lakoff (1992: 6) claims that a metaphor is not a matter of a language itself, but a matter of thought and reason. The mapping is primary and language secondary. In addition, the mapping is conventional, i.e. it is one of our conventional ways of conceptualizing something; in this case love relationships. Furthermore, what constitutes love as a journey is ontological mapping from the source domain of journeys to the target domain of love. Based on the examples above, it can be summarized as follows: lovers are travelers on a joint journey with their common life goals seen as destinations yet to be reached. Each traveler needs a vehicle to reach

his destination, conceptualizing a love relationship that is promising as long as it allows lovers to make progress towards their goal. However, occasionally travelers arrive at crossroads where they have to decide which road to take, like lovers who must decide whether they still share the same goals. In addition to crossroads, travelers may have to deal with different barriers they encounter along their way. In comparison, lovers may have to face life problems and choose from among several options. They might choose one that will keep them together or they might choose not to solve the problem and go in different directions, thus indicating the end of their relationship – like travelers who choose the latter option, ending their journey.

The mappings associating the source domain JOURNEY and the target domain LOVE are summarized as follows:

SOURCE JOURNEY	TARGET LOVE
a) travelers	lovers
b) vehicle	relationship
c) journey destination	life goal
d) crossroad	turning point in a relationship
e) advancement in place	progress in a relationship
f) impediments	problems in a relationship
g) taking different road	splitting up
h) ending of a journey	ending of a relationship

Conclusion

This paper deals with similarities and differences of some Lakoff and Johnson's metaphorical expressions of the LOVE IS A JOURNEY conceptual metaphor in English and their Croatian counterparts. The research has proven that there is a great similarity of metaphorical linguistic expressions in English and Croatian. However, it has indicated numerous subtle interlinguistic differences. To be more precise, it has shown that, in order to maintain the same effect, sometimes different tenses or voice perspectives must be used. Further, it has proved that single word choice in Croatian alludes to either literal or figurative meaning. Equally importantly, it has been shown that the same metaphorical expression exists in the respective languages, yet used within different conceptual metaphor. Simultaneously, to maintain the same effect, different linguistic expressions may sometimes be used. Additionally, Croatian language has been shown to be able to express either literal or figurative meaning through choice of inflexion, while the English language cannot. However, the research has shown not only interliguistic but also intralinguistic differences, i.e. synonimical options that the Croatian language has due to a close geographical, historical, cultural and linguistic contact with the Serbian language. To summarize,

even though two languages might share the same conceptual metaphor, the actual linguistic metaphorical expressions underlying the conceptual metaphor may be influenced and coined on the basis of cultural-ideological differences. Therefore, in addition to being cognitively motivated, metaphorical expression is also culturally motivated, thus referring to metaphors being both cognitive as well as cultural entities.

References

Boroditsky, L (2000) *Metaphoric structuring: understanding time through spatial metaphors. Cognition, No. 75, pp. 1-28*. Elsevier

Jakobson, R. & Halle, M (1956) *Fundamentals of Language*. Mouton & Co. S-Gravenhage

Kövecses, Z. (2002) *Metaphor: a practical introduction*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Kövecses, Z. (2005) *Metaphor in Culture. Universality and Variation*. Cambridge and New York: Cambridge University Press.

Lakoff, G. (1992) The Contemporary Theory of Metaphor. In Ortony, A. (1992) *Metaphorand Thought.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Lakoff, G & Johnson, M. (2003) *Metaphors We Live By*. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press.

Conceptual Blending in Children's Games as a Model for Double-Scope Creativity and New Learning Opportunities

Gabriela Tucan
West University
Timisoara, Romania

Abstract: *Fauconnier and Turner (2002, pp. 389-396) provide an overview of how blending affects the course of a human life, and more specifically, how young children are engaged in building complex blends in very early stages of their lives. Their detailed analysis shows that only after the young child is able to master culturally recognized blends will s/he be effectively 'living in the blend' and prove capable of further achieving other blends with more flexibility.*

During early childhood, it appears that learning and mental development are intrinsically linked to our human ability to blend and deblend. Besides engaging in direct cultural blends, the young child can operate on conceptual blends that are not physically (biologically) given. For instance, this may happen when their imaginative processes are at work in a wide variety of games or fun activities, starting with Lego construction sets to fictive interactions with imaginary companions. In such games and activities, children manifest an extraordinary capacity for double-scope blending. Therefore, by playing games or getting involved in free activities, young children will bring to mastery mental integrations that are essential for their lives as adults.

In this light, the paper examines a set of children-designed games and activities that can all account for cases of fictive or potential reality. That is, the mental spaces created do not refer directly to entities in the outside world. I argue that an analysis of such fantasy mental spaces (with the tools of the mental space theory) can shed new light on learning and human creativity. While playing and blending mental spaces with their counterfactual counterparts, the young subject has to manipulate his/her 'split self' (Lakoff & Johnson 1999) or counterfactual self. With the knowledge of early evolution of conceptual blending in children's games, I propose that educators may apply the results in diverse areas of instruction and learning in order to better deal with the cognitive side of learning, and eventually come to terms with human creativity.

Keywords: *blends, early childhood, mental development, children-designed games*

Article History:
Submitted: 16.04.2014.
Accepted: 10.11.2014.

DOI Number:
10.14706/JFLTAL15217

Introduction

In the exceptional and emotionally charged story of his autobiographical memoir, *Joseph Anton*, Salman Rushdie (2012) fights the crucial battle for writer's freedom and – at all costs – for freedom of speech. He instructs us that in an era when we are being pushed toward "ever-narrower definitions of ourselves" (p. 576), and hence toward narrower identities, literature ought to encourage a multiplicity of identities. The human self is heterogeneous rather than homogenous: "not one thing but many, multiple, fractured and contradictory" (p. 576). Writers and readers with broad identities will always find common ground with fictional characters and, most importantly, using that knowledge, they find points of identification with their fellow beings.

Rushdie's distinction between 'narrow' and 'broad' identities shows one of the most fundamental features of our inner lives: the distinction between the human Subject and our multiple selves. If the Subject makes what we uniquely are, the self is the sum total of our thoughts, experiences, and actions. In order to construct the sense of self, the human being changes social roles and becomes acquainted with multiple personal histories. The Subject or 'our essence' as the locus of human consciousness differs from the self in many different aspects. Admittedly, as Rushdie explains in his memoir, "the person you were for your parents was not the person you were with your children, your working self was other than your self as a lover, and depending on the time of day and your mood you might think of yourself as tall or skinny or unwell or a sports fan or conservative or fearful or hot" (p. 575-576). It is as if the 'home self', the 'lover self', the 'work self', or the 'moody self' were various facets of different individuals, but still they all define one unique body.

The split self

It seems that our multiple fractured selves are under the direct control of others and our constructed identity is the reflection of external realities. If this is true, we grow up learning to constantly adapt to stories created outside our self. More specifically, this is how we actually learn how to behave and act like others; which means that from the very beginning we start to experience ourselves as split identities. This is not to say, however, that infants are blank slates written on by others, since they are all born with a set of representational and perceptual capacities.
While we are generally perfectly willing to admit that parents or adults are the prime source for imitation, we have yet to address the question of imitation more pointedly in order to show that learning by imitation largely defines our understanding of the split self. With this goal in focus, my thesis is that early imitation is a foundation for the emergence of more *selves* in the subject. I contend that it is precisely in early

childhood forms of entertainment, as expressed in a host of imitation games (pretend play, make-believe, fantasy or imaginative play, etc.) that our sense of self begins to take a bifurcating shape. But the analysis will also go one step further in arguing that an examination of children's fantasies provides insight into the imitative mind.

Early imitation – a way to learning and communication

The recent interest of theorists in the theme of imitation from across disciplines has given rise to diverse lines of inquiry (see the edited collections by Nehaniv & Dautenhahn, 2007; Meltzoff & Prinz, 2002). In this study, the term 'imitation' is broadly used to refer to types of imitation used in pretend games in which young children reproduce behaviours that they have witnessed prior to the instance of reproduction.

Very early evidence of imitation can be found in infants. In a series of studies, Meltzoff and Moore (1994, 1998) demonstrate that imitation allows infants to determine the identity of others by replaying an imitative game they had played before with the same person. In time, this predominantly nonverbal communication realized in infant imitation develops into more mature and more abstract manifestations that will retain a sense of others. By imitating adults, infants of different ages may start to recognize what they share with other people and later this realization can open the door into the social world.

The interpersonal or social relationships with parents and household members from birth force us to continually evaluate our actions in the light of how others evaluate what we do and how others choose to perform the same actions. It is this interplay between personal experience and external influence that will shape our self as adults.

As the human brain develops, so does the mind– but this can only happen in the presence of others. Young children depend on others to such a great extent that their early experience of self mirrors a cluster of influences that have touched their lives until that moment. Therefore, juveniles are able to evolve through different social interactions and only through continually receiving socially relevant information. By imitating the social models around us, young children continually shape and reshape their selves in order to adjust to new changing contexts and novel roles.

However, compelling scientific evidence proves that the brain is primarily responsible for who we are. Any dysfunctions of the brain caused by accidents, drugs, or aging processes may temporarily or definitely alter our perceptions of the self. The individual radically becomes a different person. But yet brains do not live in isolation – rather "each brain exists in an ocean of other brains that affect how it works" (Hood 2012, p.17). This ultimately indicates that the self is not only modelled

by our brains but is equally influenced by the external world that assaults us at all times and sends signals that are to be interpreted and internalized by our brains. Most importantly, the development of our socially created self is a long modelling process that takes place throughout our lives and occupies the largest part of early childhood.

These last points highlight imitation as a social tool serving multiple purposes. At various levels, imitation can be used to initiate and maintain social interaction; it can be a mode of inter-personal communication. My paper also works on the same assumption that early imitation has a significant social function.

The split self engages in pretend play

In this section I propose that young children not only imitate to engage socially with others and to create their social selves, but imitation is seen as a cognitive ability to project oneself onto another or other entity in a hypothetical situation. Being able to simultaneously hold more than one identity in different mental spaces develops the concept of separate conceptual selves. I argue that pretend play or fantasy games can account for the cognitive function of imitation.
Why do children construct online fictions? How do minds construct and share such imaginative mental constructs? In addressing these questions, I will rely on G. Fauconnier's mental space theory (1994, 1997) that convincingly advances the view that humans are able to integrate two or more mental spaces as they speak, listen to a string of speech, or read texts. Mental spaces are partial mental constructs set up as the conceptualizer perceives, understands, remembers, or imagines a particular scenario. In short, mental space theory is a useful tool for analysing how individuals interpret sequences of spoken and written language.

In this light, the paper examines instances of mental space mapping in children's fantasy plays. In most pretend games, children share a communicative situation as the starting point and then project themselves onto another imaginary entity trying to imitate its behaviour and actions. As such, play companions inhabit the body of fictive participants in an imaginary scenario that may not correspond to the one in the real situation of communication. Importantly, the playfellows are physically present but the verbal interaction takes place strictly in the fantasy world. It is interesting to examine how such imaginary verbal interaction is represented in the minds of the participants. More specifically, how they can make mental contact with potential realities that would otherwise have a non-interactional relationship. The type of face-to-face communication carried out during a fantasy play bears resemblance with what Pascual (2002, 2008) and Brandt (2008) call "fictive interaction". Such interactional structure does not mirror the observable communicative situation and

"constitutes an invisible – although equally present and critical – channel of communication between fictive participants, who may or may not correspond to those in the actual situation of communication" (Pascual 2008, p. 81).

The examples selected for detailed analysis come from V. Gussin Paley's *A Child's Work: The Importance of Fantasy Play*. While playing, pre-school children are able to create with spontaneity highly imaginative stories and carry the plot and characters to places they have never visited. Let us look at the case of a child who engages in a fantasy play:

> Pretend I'm your baby dinosaur and I'm lost, and then you call me but I don't come because I have a different name now and then you hear a noise and you think it's a wolf but you can't call me because you don't know my name now. (p. 16)

As revealed in the example above, in this fascinating pretend game, the child is split into two individuals in the GAME space and the FANTASY mental space. It involves simultaneously the split of the self into two parts. The same individual in actuality is referred to both as a playmate in reality and as a 'baby dinosaur' in the fictional scenario. The child in the REALITY space is safe from any worries and dangers and begins to stage an exciting story with a real play companion. They seem to know each other well and both enjoy the suspense of the pretend play. On the other hand, his counterpart in fiction takes a new identity ('the baby dinosaur') and a new name, gets lost and is unable to help his friend. He speaks as if he were the metamorphosed baby dinosaur. In the scenario of the pretend game, there is no direct reference to the other playfellow, but one may assume he is also in an altered condition. In their fictitious setting, the wolf impersonating the danger cannot be stopped because the fictional counterparts, bearing small resemblance to the playfellows in reality, do not know each other by name. All these fictional elements in the pretend play do not directly mirror the world. The wolf and the increasing tension are only present in the game and the two playmates with their counterparts in fiction contradict what they experience in actuality. In brief, the world defined by the children's fantasy game not only splits the referents into two dissimilar parts but it also provides insight into the playmates' cognitive capacities for representing such imaginary worlds.

It seems, then, that fantasy play entails imagining a fictive identity and engaging in fictive interaction. In their imagined interaction, there are two metamorphosed interactants (the baby dinosaur and perhaps another animal) who engage in imaginary topics of conversation, but the speech and the bodies correspond to the actual playmates. True, the fictive communication of the represented entities does not necessarily relate to the experiential domain but undeniably it has a physical grounding (the playing ground, the playmates, etc.). The child departs from the

REALITY space or the BASE space to construct a potential or a hypothetical space, set up by the space builder *pretend*. The playfellows no longer talk about what they do in their actual world but what they *pretend* they share in their imaginary world. With respect to the previous factual space, the second mental space sets up a counterfactual scenario in an alternative situation, with characters behaving *as if* they were something else. In this hypothetical space, the fictional counterpart of the second companion hears a noise and interprets it as danger. He *thinks* it is a wolf, which partitions the discourse into a further BELIEVE space, *but* he can't call his fictional companion because he doesn't know his name. The conjunction *but* clearly shows the contrast between the need for help and the impossibility to ask for it.

For further analysis, let us look at another example of a pretend game:

> "Pretend I'm the good mother."
> "Is there a mean one?"
> "The step one? No, only one mother, the nice one."
> "Let's both be baby sisters and our nice mother isn't lost yet."
> "Was she lost or are we lost?"
> "Not yet. No one is lost. This is the part where we're still happy." (p.19)

As in the other fantasy game, the space builder 'pretend' represents an overt indicator that opens up a new virtual mental space. The dialogue script shifts focus to a space in which the fellow companions become 'baby sisters' watched by their 'nice mother' who has not been lost yet. The final scenario is set up gradually after the participants hesitantly evaluate the other options: who could be the 'good mother' and whether there is 'a step mother'. In this fictive address, the interactants also evaluate their new roles and, in this way, they can learn what they think of the individuals talked about in real situations of communication. This means that the underlying configuration of their fictive interaction bears the mark of the participants' social experience and of their exposure to similar situated exchanges. The *pretend* space builder not only requires the conceptualization of a hypothetical mental space but it also requires the integration of incompatible structure. Even though 'the baby sisters' know that they and their 'good mother' may be lost in the real story, they set up potential realities in which nobody is lost and time is halted to a never-ending happiness.

It is interesting to look at the following engaging fantasy play in which children rewrite the story of *The Little Red Riding Hood*:

> "You be the mother," she tells Cora. "You have to come with me in case there's a wolf."
> "First we see the hunter," Cora decides. "He already banged at the wolf."
> "But you didn't tell me don't talk to the wolf!"
> "No, see, this is the first real way it goes. The wolf sees the mother and so he runs away." (21)

Clearly, children enjoy such fantasy games for their entertainment value. But more significantly, nevertheless, they do not simply participate in the game with the purpose of enjoying the imagined stories as such: they play out concepts and beliefs from experience, animate entities, and present imaginary scenarios affectionately. The alternative framework of the story allows for complementary improvement of the original storyline: the bad wolf sees the mother and runs away. Interestingly, in their fictive interaction the fictional mother and girl incorporate conversational cues from the original story: 'But you didn't tell me don't talk to the wolf!'The speaker seems to suggest that they need to repeat exactly the lessons learned experientially or taken directly from the original story. In other words, the desire to imitate the behaviours and beliefs of the original scenario takes them back to the BASE space of actuality. However, the other communicative participant presents her suggestion to keep the virtual space because it seems safe and 'the first real way' for a turn of the story.

Blending and double-scope creativity in (pretend) games

The various case studies presented in the previous section give evidence of the fact that, when involved in fantasy games, participants set up mental spaces as imaginary scenarios, interconnect them, and modify them as discourse unfolds. On the other hand, this is not the whole story of the imitative mind. For instance, the sentence "pretend I'm your baby dinosaur and I'm lost..." requires not only the conceptualization of a hypothetical mental space, but it also requires the mapping of incompatible mental spaces. Even though in the BASE space the playmates are real individuals who feel safe from any trouble, they can still imagine themselves as non-human figures facing danger and risking their lives. The discovery that individuals are able to imagine such a situation contrary to facts with essential consequences for thinking led cognitive scientists G. Fauconnier and M. Turner (2002, 2006) (see also Turner 1996) to advance the theory of conceptual blending.
This pretend game is a double-scope network (Fauconnier and Turner 2002, p. 131-139) that has input spaces with clashing structures. There is disanalogy between the safe playmate in the BASE space and the lost baby dinosaur in the second input.

Further, in the space of reality both companions know each other well whereas in the counterfactual space there is no communication. If the first input is free of danger, the presence of the wolf in the second input emphasises the clashing differences. But the inputs are not simply juxtaposed. The imagined situation in which the second playmate cannot call for help and thus may be caught by the wolf is understood as the blended space.

Evidence of blending or conceptual integration can be found in other similarly engaging children's activity. For instance, when a two-year-old picks up a banana and talks into it as if it were a mobile phone, s/he proves to have collected important pieces of cultural information to be later used for making other useful connections. With the highly imaginative Lego construction sets, the child can play, build and rebuild. The player constructs towers, castle, cars, or other miniature objects replicating physical objects from the surrounding reality. When the building is finished, players may want to change pieces, move one tower to another place, or make the castle taller; all these additions are only limited by the physical characteristics of the building blocks that cannot be divided or changed into a different size or shape. Gravity may sometimes spoil the fun. Otherwise, no one really instructs children on such physical constraints but they will know quite precisely what rules satisfy their constructions.

Endowed with the capacity for integration, the child will take that information from the surrounding cultural stimuli and use that knowledge in their play. The fact that they may have already experienced boat trips and bridge crossings, they may have seen pictures of towered castles, or they may have witnessed different actions and behaviour gives them enough stimuli to reproduce them out of Lego sets. Such construction games are much more than simply imaginative imitation games: they are useful applications of early forms of human imagination. Building and rebuilding construction sets creatively and resourcefully reflects the making and unmaking of conceptual integration networks.

Concluding remarks

In this paper I have argued that early imitation constitutes a form of social engagement that also helps infants develop the concepts of self and others. Analysis suggested that through multiple forms of imitation, the self is largely shaped by people around us. It is through imitation that we experience ourselves as split. I further proposed that every sort of fantasy game that children play can express a sense of others and reveal the split in the self. The manifestations of imitation in fantasy or pretend games may be concerned with the social function of imitation, but most importantly, with how the self and the other are coded in the minds. More

generally, children engage in fantasy games for their immensely entertaining value but, at the same time, they begin to act out theatrically on the stage of their creative minds. By projecting themselves onto someone else or something else, the self of the young individual takes a bifurcating shape that allows them to develop broad identities. Such a fundamental cognitive activity involving the dramatization of the self helps us later understand such puzzling language: "If I were you, I'd hate me too" (Johnson & Lakoff 1999, p. 281). If fantasy games seem to impact upon the individual's identity, they can be used as valuable teaching tools.

References

Brandt, L. (2008). A semiotic approach to *fictive interaction* as a representational strategy in communicative meaning construction. In Oakley, T. & Hougaard, A. (Eds.). *Mental spaces in discourse and interaction* (109-148).Amsterdam/Philadelphia, PA: John Benjamins.

Fauconnier, G. (1994).*Mental spaces: Aspects of meaning construction in natural language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Fauconnier, G. (1997). *Mappings in thought and language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Fauconnier, G., & Turner, M. (2002). *The way we think: Conceptual blending and the mind's hidden complexities.* New York: Basic Books.

Fauconnier, G., & Turner, M. (2006). Mental spaces: Conceptual integration networks. In Geeraerts, D. (Ed.). *Cognitive linguistics. Basic* readings (303-371). Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter.

Gussin Paley, V. (2004). *A child's work: The importance of fantasy play*. Chicago and London: The University of Chicago Press.

Hood, B. (2012). *The self illusion*. London: Constable.

Lakoff, G., & Johnson, M. (1999). *Philosophy in the flesh: The embodied mind and its challenge to western thought***.** New York: Basic Books.

Meltzoff, A. N. & Moore, M. K.(1994). Imitation, memory, and the representation of persons. *Infant Behavior and Development, 17*, 83–99.

Meltzoff, A. N., & Moore, M. K. (1998). Object representation, identity, and the paradox of early permanence: Steps toward a new framework. *Infant Behavior and Development, 21,201–235*.

Meltzoff, A. N., & Prinz, W. (2002). (Eds.) *The imitative mind: Development, evolution, and brain bases*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Nehaniv, L. C., & Dautenhahn, K. (Eds.) (2007). *Imitation and social learning in robots, humans and animals . Behavioural, social and communicativedimensions*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Pascual, E. (2002). *Imaginary trialogues: Conceptual blending and fictive interaction in criminal courts*. Utrecht: LOT.

Pascual, E. (2008). Fictive interaction blends in everyday life and courtroom settings. In Oakley, T. & Hougaard, A. (Eds.). *Mental spaces in discourse and interaction* (79-108).Amsterdam/Philadelphia, PA: John Benjamins.

Rushdie, S. (2012). *Joseph Anton. A memoir*. New York: Random House.

Turner, M. (1996). Conceptual blending and counterfactual argument in the social and behavioral sciences. In Tetclock, T. &Belkin, A. (Eds.). *Counterfactual thought experiments in world politics: Logical, methodological, and psychological perspectives* (291-295). Princeton NJ: Princeton University Press.

Issues in acquisition of non-temporal meanings of tenses in English by native speakers of Croatian

Ines Skelac & Ružica Stanić
University of Rijeka, Croatia

Abstract: *Native speakers of Croatian often have problems with appropriate usage of English tenses that do not exist in Croatian, frequently associating past forms in English with perfective meanings in Croatian and non-past forms with imperfective meanings (because Croatian has verb aspect). They also encounter difficulties with non-temporal uses of English tenses.*

Apart from the central meaning of tense as temporal reference, there are four non-temporal meanings of English tenses (Tyler, 2000): (1) emotional distance or intimacy; (2) the relative salience or status of the information being conveyed; (3) negative epistemic stance towards a particular scenario; (4) to express requests, commands and invitations.

Although some non-temporal meanings are very similar to those in English, there are also significant differences that cause difficulties to native speakers of Croatian in learning English as L2. Some of the differences are caused by metaphorical and metonymical shifts in meaning between the source domain (time distance) and the target domain (distance between wish and reality, simulating of distance in order to avoid direct appeal, distance of the deictic centre, counterfactual possible situation, etc.). In order to examine those assumptions, 102 students – English learners – were tested. Differences mainly occurred in cases when the past tense is used in English to signal (1) a negative epistemic stance towards a particular scenario and (2) tense as an expression of attenuation: invitations, requests and suggestions, because Croatian speakers tended to use the present tense in some cases.

We argue that a consistent description of non-temporal uses of tenses in Croatian and English, with analysis of differences, can facilitate the learning of these frequently occurring non-temporal uses of English tenses.

Keywords: *Croatian, English, meaning, second language acquisition, tenses*

Article History:
Submitted: 15.04.2014.
Accepted: 16.11.2014.

DOI Number:
10.14706/JFLTAL15218

Introduction

Native Croatian speakers often have problems with appropriate usage of English tenses that do not exist in Croatian, frequently associating past forms in English with perfective meanings in Croatian and non-past forms with imperfective meanings (because Croatian has verb aspect); they also encounter difficulties with non-temporal uses of English tenses.

In order to investigate how differences in non-temporal uses of tenses in English and Croatian cause difficulties to native Croatian speakers in learning English as L2, four groups of non-temporal uses in English (as presented in Tyler & Evans, 2000) will be analysed and compared with non-temporal uses in Croatian. The data obtained by the research carried out with 102 students will be processed. The conclusions may be used in further investigations with the purpose of facilitating the learning and teaching of those frequently occurring non-temporal uses of English tense in the case of native speakers of Croatian and related languages.

Theoretical background

Tenses are primary used to determine whether an event takes place in the past, present or future; moreover, to express modality or some kind of distance (emotional, the change of reference point, unreality, etc.). Some authors, like Peter Ludlow (1999), argue that grammatical phenomenon called *tense* is a mixture of other phenomena, including modality and evidentiality, therefore *tense* is a compounded category developed by combining those categories.

As people have problems in comprehending time, especially its flow and direction, they often map features of space relations to time relations. Many scientists concluded that tense is a deictic phenomenon which refers to time with respect to a deictic centre (a reference point in relation to which a deictic expression is to be interpreted).

There is a strong connection between temporal concept 'now' and locational concept 'here'; we cannot perceive the present moment differently than in frames of our physical environment and sensory experience. Therefore, it is not surprising that time and space are conceptually strongly connected, which can be shown by conceptual metaphors such as TIME IS A MOVING OBJECT (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980, p. 42).

In accordance with that metaphor, the future is considered as moving towards us, for example:

(1) *The time has come to stand for all we believe in.*
(2) *I look forward to your arrival.*
(3) *Time flies.*

By virtue of TIME IS A MOVING OBJECT metaphor, time receives a front-back orientation facing in the direction of motion, as any moving object. These metaphors facilitate conceptualizing time by reducing it to something more familiar and concrete.

Non-temporal use of tenses entails the use of tenses not in order to talk about time, but some other phenomena. As the past tense is by default used to express that an event took place in the past, if the same tense is used when talking about the present, it obviously means something else than past reference. Hence, time distance is mapped onto some other type of distance, for example, distance between wish and reality, simulating distance in order to avoid direct appeal, distance of the deictic centre (in the case of reported speech), distance of a possible world that contradicts the real world, etc.

Tyler and Evans (2000) argue that temporal use of tenses precedes the non-temporal one, but they emphasize the importance and appropriate treatment of non-temporal use, which is not arbitrary and peripheral phenomenon.

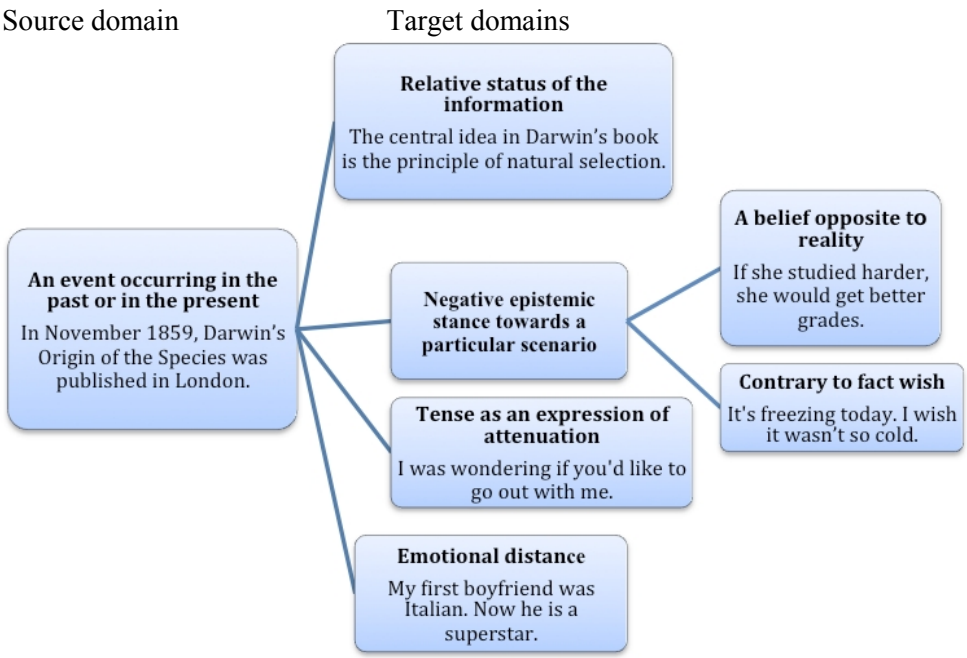
There are four main groups of non-temporal uses of tenses in English:

1. Emotional distance or lack of intimacy: *My first husband **was** Italian. Now he **is** a super star.*
2. Relative status of the information (i.e. the past tense signals background information, while the present tense signals foreground status: *In November 1859, Darwin's Origin of the Species **was published** in London. The central idea in this book **is** the principle of natural selection.*
3. Negative epistemic stance towards a particular scenario (contrary to fact wish or a belief opposite to reality): *If she s**tudied** harder, she **would get** better grades; I wish I **knew** what he'll say next.*
4. Tense as an expression of attenuation: invitations, requests and suggestions: *Excuse me, I **was wondering** if this **was** the train for York.*

There are some differences between non-temporal uses in English and Croatian. In Croatian, non-temporal uses are not necessary regarding epistemic stance, because sentences like *I wish I knew what he'll say next* can be translated in two ways, using the present tense or conditional mood and appropriate connective ('da' plus present or 'kad' plus conditional): *Da barem **znam** što će sljedeće reći; Kad **bih** barem **znao** što*

će sljedeće reći. Furthermore, in some cases of expressing attenuation, when there is past tense in English, the present tense is used in Croatian: Oprostite, **zanima** me je li ovo vlak za York. If the past tense were used in that sentence, it would have temporal meaning.

Non-temporal uses of English tenses are presented in the following schema:



The target domain is always temporal, i.e. talking about past or present events, while the source domains include metaphorical and metonymical shifts.

Analysis of the data

In order to examine the issues native Croatian speakers encounter in the acquisition of non-temporal meanings of English tenses, 102 students at the University of Zagreb and at the University of Rijeka were examined. The average age of students was 23, there were no students of English language and literature and they had studied English for approximately 9 years in primary and secondary school.
The questionnaire contained ten statements and four translations for each of the statements. Eight of the statements were in Croatian with English translations and two were in English with Croatian translations. The students were instructed to choose one or more translations for the statement in question. They were also given

an option of providing a different translation. There was no time limit for completing the questionnaire.

Emotional distance and lack of intimacy

(1) a. Moj je prvi dečko bio Talijan. Sad je velika zvijezda.
The correct translation of these sentences is
(1) b. My first boyfriend was Italian. Now he is a superstar.
The vast majority of the students (85%) selected the correct answer. However, some respondents chose incorrect translations:
(1) c. My first boyfriend is Italian. Now he is a superstar.
(1) d. My first boyfriend has been Italian. Now he is a superstar.
A possible explanation for these mistakes could lie in the second sentence: the first boyfriend is still alive (*Now* he is a superstar) and he hasn't change nationality, therefore, he hasn't stopped being Italian. In example (1) a. the use of *was* does not code time, as the first boyfriend is still Italian. Since the sentence describes a romantic involvement, some degree of intimacy is implied. The degree of intimacy is distal because the adjective *first* suggests that there were other boyfriends. The use of past simple implicates a relationship which is no longer intimate.

Tense is employed in reported speech also to express distance, but between the reference point and the speaker in direct and indirect speech act: the hearer in the direct speech act becomes the speaker in the indirect speech. In English, the change of the reference point and the distance regarding transfer of someone else's words result in the change of tense, while in Croatian the tense remains unchanged. The respondents chose the correct translation predominately (71%), as it was expected, because they have learned how to convert direct speech into indirect speech.

Relative status of the information

Tense is employed to express saliency and to signal the relative status of the information. Even if an event took place in the past, if it is still relevant, it can be expressed using the present tense.
(3) a. U studenom 1859. godine u Londonu je objavljena Darwinova knjiga Podrijetlo vrsta. Središnja je ideja te knjige princip prirodne selekcije.
The predicate in the first sentence in (3) a. is in the past tense and the predicate in the second sentence is in the present tense. Though there is a correspondence between tenses in English and Croatian, almost one-third (32%) of the students didn't choose the appropriate translation:
(3) b. In November 1859, Darwin’s Origin of the Species was published in London. The central idea in this book is the principle of natural selection.

The publication date is not the central idea of the paragraph. *Was* in (3) b. establishes background information (Origin of the Species' publication date) for the important information, which is in the second sentence – the principle of natural selection.

The appropriate epistemic stance towards a particular scenario

A fact or belief opposite to reality

In counterfactual conditionals and similar constructions containing if-clauses, hypothesizing a situation that seems highly unlikely to occur, for example *Imagine if you were the president of the USA. What would you do to make the world a better place?*, the past tense in the if-clause does not signify a past event, but the fact that the content expressed by the if-clause is not true or even does not have the real possibility to become realized. In Croatian, if-clauses in those constructions can contain both the past and the present tense.

In both examples used in the questionnaire students needed to select the correct translation of a Croatian sentence containing present tense in the if-clause. The majority of them chose the right translation in both cases, but 32% chose translations with the present tense in the if-clause in the case of counterfactual conditional. This result may be explained by the occurrence of present tense in the Croatian original.

Contrary to fact wish

As in the previous examples, English past tense is used to express a contrast between the speaker's wish and the state of affairs. In Croatian the same information is expressed by present tense and the connective 'da' or conditional mood and the connective 'kad', which are used in if-clauses of counterfactual conditionals.

Therefore, English sentence
(6) a. It's freezing today. I wish it wasn't so cold.
has two correct translations:
(6) b. Danas je mrzlo. Da barem nije tako hladno.
(6) c. Danas je mrzlo. Kad barem ne bi bilo tako hladno.
Almost all of the students (99%) chose one or both of the right answers.
Surprisingly, a similar conclusion cannot be drawn regarding example (7) a., which seems similar to (6) a.:
(7) a. I wish I knew what he'll say next.
Only 64% of the students selected the right answer:
(7) b. Da barem znam što će sljedeće reći.
One student offered an alternative, also correct answer:

(7) c. Kad bih barem znao što će sljedeće reći.
A significant number of respondents (35%) picked one of the wrong answers, which included the past tense in the if-clause. In Croatian, the past tense cannot appear in those sentences because it would change the meaning, i.e. the sentences would refer to an event occurring in the past, not in the present.

Tense as an expression of attenuation: invitations, requests and commands

Attenuated invitations

The English past tense is sometimes used where the present tense could be expected, its intention being to avoid directness of the question and decrease the amount of imposition on the hearer. The Croatian past tense is sometimes used for the same reason, but as far as requests are considered, it is not as important to attenuate them by tense, therefore the present tense is used.

In (8) a. the past tense is used to avoid directness of the question because the situation is probably unpleasant for both the speaker and the hearer.
(8) a. Ona: O čemu razmišljaš? On: Pitao sam se bi li izašla sa mnom.
The correct translation also has the past tense, so the majority of respondents selected translations containing the past tense. 72% chose the accurate translation (8) b. and 6% chose translation (8) c., containing the past simple, instead of past continuous, while 22% thought that the present simple or present continuous was the correct tense.
(8) b. I was wondering if you'd like to go out with me.
(8) c. I wondered if you'd like to go out with me.

Attenuated requests

It was different in a Croatian sentence with the present tense:
(9) a. Oprostite, zanima me je li ovo vlak za York.
Only 44% of the students chose the correct translation:
(9) b. Excuse me, I was wondering if this was the train for York.
Others assumed that the present simple or present continuous should be employed. English expression "I was wondering" is considered more polite than "I am wondering..." In this particular case, it's not possible to employ past tense in Croatian with the same intention, because it would mean that you were interested whether the train was for York sometime in the past.

Attenuated commands

Finally, past tense is used to attenuate commands, making them more polite by mitigating the amount of opposition on the hearer. For that purpose the past tense is used in the English subordinate clause, contrary to the present tense in Croatian.

(10) a. Krajnje je vrijeme da odemo.
Only 26% of the respondents chose sentence (10) b. as the translation of the given sentence:
(10) b. It's high time we left.
A high number of students (70%) selected the sentence that contained present tense:
(10) c. It's high time we leave.
This mistake occurred because of the difference in tense in Croatian and English iterations of the same statement: sentence (10) b. contains only present tense. A small number of students (3%) recognized the difference in tenses, yet chose the incorrect translation:
(10) d. It was high time we left.

Conclusion

This paper has given an account of the issues native Croatian speakers encounter when acquiring non-temporal meanings of English tenses. Our research has shown that native Croatian speakers are often misled by the tense used in their native language, except in the cases when they had learned the rules for e.g. counterfactuals and reported speech. Due to the fact that the past tense is employed in both English and Croatian, no significant deviation was found between expected and obtained responses in examining an example expressing emotional distance and the lack of intimacy. Croatian indirect speech uses the same tense as direct speech; consequently, native speakers sometimes have problems with converting direct

speech into indirect speech in English. The research has shown that Croatian speakers have some difficulties understanding the use of English past tense when it expresses actuality, especially when the past tense appears in the if-clause of a conditional sentence. The past tense cannot be employed in Croatian to attenuate invitations, requests and suggestions in all of the same situations as in English, because in Croatian it sometimes has temporal meaning. For that reason, Croatian speakers displayed difficulties concerning the non-temporal use of past continuous to attenuate requests and invitations and past tense to attenuate commands.

In conclusion, if native speakers were referred to the differences between non-temporal use of tenses in Croatian and English, especially if the approach were focused on presenting non-temporal use as a systematically organised and structured appearance in language, it is conceivable that learners would show better comprehension and therefore better use of those non-temporal meanings, as in the cases of reported speech and counterfactual conditionals.

References

Lakoff, G., & Johnson, M. (1980). *Metaphors we live By*. London: University of Chicago Press.

Ludlow, P. (1999). *Semantics, tense and time: an essay in the metaphysics of natural language*. Cambridge, Mass.; London: MIT Press.

Tyler, A. (2008). Applying cognitive linguistics to second language teaching: the English modals. In N. Ellis & P. Robinson (Eds.), *The handbook of cognitive linguistics and second language acquisition* (pp. 456–488). New York and London: Routledge.

Tyler, A. & Evans, V. (2000). My first husband was Italian (and he still is): examining "exceptional" uses of English tense and pedagogical grammar. Essen: LAUD.

Hesitations in Speech Production in the Media

Irena Zovko Dinković
University of Zagreb,
Department of English, Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences

Maja Banić
University of Zagreb,
English and Spanish languages and literatures

Abstract: *Nowadays we are witnessing a substantial growth in the number of radio stations, as well as a simultaneous decline in the quality of the hosts' speech, particularly its fluency. Whereas people may be quite tolerant of various hesitations in everyday conversations, listeners often find dysfluencies in the speech of radio hosts distracting and irritating, expecting the hosts to be skilled in controlling their output.This research paper therefore offers a contrastive analysis of hesitations in the speech production of English and Croatian radio hosts, with the aim of determining whether the frequency of hesitation markers can be related to the formal training of hosts. If so, we can suppose that greater fluency of speech may be achieved through practice.To this purpose we have analyzed eight minutes (480 seconds) of speech of 32 radio hosts, 16 American and 16 Croatian, with an equal number of males and females in each group. Also, half of the hosts work at public radio stations, and the other half at commercial ones. In order to obtain the most objective results possible, the analyzed samples were taken from different episodes of talk shows on various subjects, as well as from different parts of the episodes (beginning, middle and ending). The results indicate that there is no correlation between gender and fluency since there was no relevant difference in the frequency of hesitations produced by male and female hosts, in spite of the generally accepted popular view that women are more fluent and verbal than men. More importantly, the results indicate that fluency is an aspect of speech that can be improved through practice and formal training. A surprisingly similar number of hesitations in the speech of American and Croatian hosts confirms the fact that speech fluency is a cognitiveaspect of language, independent of language specific features.*

Keywords: *Keywords: Speech, media, radio, cognition, language*

Article History:
Submitted: 15.04.2014.
Accepted: 16.11.2014.

DOI Number:
10.14706/JFLTAL152226

Introduction

Although speech is often associated with images that suggest continuity in sound production[1], it does not fill time continuously, especially when it is spontaneous. Thoughts are often unstructured and need to be organized into a linear stream of speech. However, one idea may shift to another without any obvious connection. Some ideas are spoken out of turn, and some need to be corrected or elaboratedupon (Fox Tree & Schrock, 1999). Therefore, it is not surprising that human speech is highly dysfluent (Clark & Fox Tree, 2002; Kendall, 2009; Rose, 1998). This characteristic separates spontaneous speech from prepared discourse.

We are witnesses today of a substantial growth in the number of radio stations, with an increased demand for hosts, which inevitably leads to a simultaneous decline in the quality of their speech, particularly its fluency. Whereas we as listeners can be quite tolerant of dysfluencies in everyday communication, we are less so when it comes to spontaneous speech in the media.The focus is this paper is therefore on the fluency of the speech of radio hosts. Given the fact that some hosts hesitate more than others, the aim of this paper is to see whethercertain aspects of speech, such as its fluency, can be influenced, and whether the frequency of hesitation markers can be related to the formal education of the host. If so, we can suppose that greater fluency of speech might be achieved through practice.

This paper thus offers an analysis of hesitations in English and Croatian speech production on the radio, based on a research conducted on the speech of 32 American and Croatian radio hosts from private and commercial radio stations.

Theoretical background

Spontaneous speech requires planning. More precisely, a speaker is continuously required to make three kinds of decisions while producing speech: a content decision, decisions of a syntactic nature and the selection of words (Goldman-Eisler, 1968). A content decision falls into the area of conceptualization and involves determining what to say. A speaker conceives an intention and selects relevant information either from memory or environment (Harley, 2001). The area of formulation comprises decisions about at least the broad outline of a syntactic structure, as well as the process of lexicalization. It also includes detailed phonetic and articulatory planning along with phonological encoding. Conceptualization and formulation are followed by articulation (Harley, 2001).

Harley (2001) points out that a number of authors, such as Henderson, Goldman-Eisler & Skarbek (1966), stress the role of cognitive cycles in the planning of speech.

According to them, phases of highly hesitant speech alternate with phases of more fluent speech. It is thought that most of the planning takes part in the hesitant phase, whereas in the fluent phase speakers merely say what they have just planned in the preceding hesitant phase. Field (2003) agrees with this assertion:

> 'Research has suggested that speech proceeds in phases: a hesitant phase of about nine clauses is followed by a fluent one of about nine clauses. (…) If this is the case, it suggests that speech planning may take place on two levels. There may be short term planning, marked by relatively regular planning pauses and longer-term planning marked by a period of hesitant speech'. (p. 37)

Hesitations are therefore put into direct relationship with planning (Clark & Wasow, 1998; Goldman-Eisler, 1968; Rose 1998) and theiranalysis is concerned with the distribution of a variety of dysfluent features in spontaneous speech (Harley, 2001).In this research we follow Rose's (1998) classification of hesitations into repairs (which include repeats, restarts and self-corrections), false starts, lengthenings and pauses.

Repairs usually consist of stopping the current flow of speech, inserting a pause or an editing expression, and providing new or modified information (Fox Tree & Schrock, 1999). It is important to mention that repairs often occur even when there is nothing wrong to start with. We should also keep in mind that many repairs are not correct themselves, so they might lead to the appearance of additional repairs (Levelt, 1983). When a speaker iterates a lexical item in mid-sentence, it is called a repeat. Usually, just one word is repeated (Rose, 1998). According to Clark & Wasow (1998), repeated words are among the most common dysfluencies in spontaneous speech. Furthermore, in the English language function words[2] are repeated far more often than content words (Clark & Wasow, 1998). If a speaker utters a few words and then suddenly returns to the beginning of the clause to iterate the same words, we are dealing with a restart (Rose, 1998). In order to make a self-correction, the speaker must notice that there is something wrong with the uttered word. The word is then followed by a replacement that is understood to constitute a retraction of that word (Rose, 1998). In other words, the speaker interrupts his own flow of speech and creates a new utterance (Levelt, 1983).

Sometimes speakers discard the first attempt at lexicalization. They make a false start by uttering a few words and then stopping in mid-sentence, which may be followed either by a revised attempt to lexicalize the same idea or by silence in order to release the conversational turn (Rose, 1998). Lengthenings, on the other hand, refer to a prolongation of syllables beyond their normal or expected length (Clark & Fox Tree, 2002).

Given the fact that there are various types of pauses, it is substantial to define them precisely and to determine which types of pauses will be taken into consideration for the purposes of this research. To begin with, we will distinguish four types of pauses: articulatory, respiratory, juncture and hesitation pauses.

Articulatory pauses are associated with the articulatory closure of stop consonants and range, according to Rose (1998), from 50 to 250 milliseconds. At this point it should be mentioned that the duration of pauses considered to pertain to this group depends on researcher's judgment. For example, Kendall (2009) argues that articulatory pauses are in fact shorter than 60 milliseconds. Whatever the case, articulatory pauses are short enough to pass unnoticed and not be counted as hesitations.

The second type of pauses is associated with respiration. At least to a certain degree, speakers coordinate their breathing with language planning processes (Kendall, 2009). According to Goldman-Eisler (1968), breathing appears to be "a passive process fitting into given breaks in speech irrespective of whether or not these occur at grammatical junctures" (p. 98). These pauses are therefore not relevant for this research, either.

Juncture pauses also do not imply hesitation. They are semantically determined and well integrated into the grammatical structure. These pauses occur at grammatical junctures, such as "natural" punctuation points (e.g. the end of a sentence, before a conjunction or relative and interrogative pronouns, when a question is indirect or implied, before all adverbial clauses of time, manner and place, and when complete parenthetical references are made (Goldman-Eisler, 1968). Pauses whose position cannot be explained by these rules are therefore non-grammatical and considered to be hesitations in speech. Such pauses are the object of our research.

Hesitation pauses

Goldman-Eisler(1968) argues that the decisive factor in breaking up the linguistic groupings at non-grammatical places is hesitation. Such hesitation pauses may be silent (unfilled) or filled (voiced).Mead (2000) claims that silent pauses are not necessarily dysfluencies, while filled pauses can almost certainly be regarded as such, according to his opinion, in the context of professional public speaking. However, Mead's definition of silent pauses includes stops for breath and deliberate pauses for emphasis. We have already excluded these as respiratory and semantically determined pauses respectively. Therefore, non-grammatical silent pauses will be considered hesitations in this research.

Harley (2001) defines an unfilled pause as a moment of silence, emphasizing that its duration shows a wide range of variance. Kendall (2009) says the minimal cut-off point for silent pauses, according to Kowal & O'Connell (1980), is 270 milliseconds, whereas Goldman-Eisler (1968) adopts various low threshold values from 100 to 250 milliseconds, depending on the experiment.

Although speakers may use filled or voiced pauses in order to sound more fluent, they "generally serve as stalling acts to give speakers more time to prepare a near-future word or phrase" (Rose, 1998, p. 54). They can be unlexicalized or lexicalized. Unlexicalized pauses may be filled with any of the following phonetic combinations: /a/, /am/, /u/, /um/, /e/, /em/, /m/. By far the most common unlexicalized filled pause, according to Rose's research, was the short form of *er,* followed by the short form of *erm* (Rose, 1998).

Filled (voiced) pauses may be lexicalized with expressions such as *so*, *okay*, *let's see*, *like*, *well*, *you know* and *I mean*. The terminology differs when it comes to this kind of pauses. Harley (2001) calls them *parenthetical remarks*, whereas Fox Tree & Schrock (1999) categorize them as *discourse markers*. They may also be called *editing expressions* (Clark & Wasow, 1998). Clark & Fox Tree (2002) refer to them as part of *performance additions*. Their presence is one of the ways spontaneous speech differs from planned speech. Unlike spontaneous speech, prepared speech allows advance planning and extensive revision time, so the speaker does not need additional time or help in organizing and expressing ideas (Fox Tree & Schrock, 1999), which is the general purpose of filled pauses.

The speech of radio hosts

Although dysfluencies frequently appear in spontaneous speech and sometimes even go unnoticed, radio hosts are expected to show no hesitation on the air. Despite the fact that hesitations do not necessarily imply poor communication skills[3], listeners often find them distracting and irritating (Rose, 1998). Goffman (1981) notices that "faults we would have to be trained linguistically to hear in ordinary talk can be glaringly evident to the untrained ear when encountered in broadcast talk" (p. 240).Furthermore, he argues that the skill of radio hosts is to control output; moments of doubt or distraction are expected to stay hidden from the listeners. By using fillers, professional speakersdo exactly the opposite –they indirectly announce that they are having preparedness problems. This can seriously undermine their authority, given the fact that professional speakers are expected to be knowledgeable and competent. In Goffman's (1981) opinion, an accomplished public speaker should not exceed "acceptable limits for pauses, restarts, repetitions, redirections (…)" (p. 172), and Mead (2000) explicitly emphasizes the importance of fluency as a determinant of interpretation quality.

A research into hesitations in speech production

This paper focuses on the frequency of hesitations in the speech of Croatian and American radio hosts. It is easy to notice that the frequency of hesitations varies substantially from host to host, especially in the past decade or so, due to a rapid growth of the number of radio stations, followed by a simultaneous decline in the quality of hosts' speech and in particular its fluency. Our main assumption is that the frequency of hesitation markers can be related to the formal education of the host, which would lead us to the conclusion that this aspect of speech can be influenced by increasing one's awareness of the dysfluencies, and by practice.

Throughout this research we rely on the differences between public and commercial stations, starting from the fact that the latter tend to hire less skilled persons with little or no professional training. The main fact about these two types of stations are shown in Chart 1:[4]

	Public radio	Commercial radio
Station ownership	Independent local stations that are members of a national organization.	Private/corporate owned stations and affiliated stations.
Tax Status	Non-profit.	For profit.
Revenue	Revenue from individual members, corporations, foundations, and government sources.	Revenue from advertising.
Programs	Programmed at the local level, with national program offerings as well as local news and other programs.	Varies; some local autonomy but show tendency for centralized programming.

*Table 1.*An overview of radio station status

One of the main areas, thus, in which radio stations differ significantly is the politics of the employment of radio hosts. Alongside the higher criteria that their future hosts have to meet, public radio stations provide formal education for their employees.

Croatian Radio-Television (HRT) is a Croatian public broadcasting company that comprises both Croatian Television and Croatian Radio. In 1991, the Department for Language and Speech was founded at this broadcasting company, consisting of highly professional proofreaders and phoneticians who train HRT's hosts and journalists. The employees are obligated to cooperate with the Department on a regular basis. The professionals employed at the Department arehighly qualified and

experienced announcers witha college degree in the relevant field. Novice hosts are always mentored for several months by professionals at the Department, whereupon they assist in the program until their supervisors decide they can start working on their own. Given the fact that the job in question is highly demanding, the hosts' skills are checked on a daily basis.

The situation in the US is somewhat different, but the importance of formal education can also be noted. Although radio hosts are not required to have any formal education beyond a high school diploma in order to get a job at a public radio station, they should have a bachelor's degree in a related field to be competitive for entry-level positions. Short-term on-the-job training is required upon being hired, according to the Bureau of Labor Statistics[5]. The Bureau defines it as "additional training needed (postemployment) to attain competency in the skills needed in this occupation". Moreover, hosts are often required to complete long-term on-the-job training: trainees usually must have several years of experience in the industry before receiving an opportunity to work on the air.

When it comes to commercial radio stations, the situation is radically different. These stations are more inclined to hire beginners, andnew, inexperienced employees are immediately given host positions, so they face difficulties in hosting a show without any prior training. These systems are not as developed as public ones, so the advancement within the same station is unlikely. It usually takes place when a host relocates to a larger, public station. Furthermore, if unskilled employees continue hosting without becoming aware of their deficiencies, their progress over the years may become questionable.

Therefore, the hosts included in this research were chosen on the basis of their workplace; hosts working at public radio stations comprise one group, as opposed to those who host shows at commercial radio stations. In this way, we have divided hosts into two groups: those who have some formal training, and those who do not.

Method

Given the fact that we listen to radio hosts without being able to see them, it is sometimes difficult to determine whether their speech is spontaneous or whether they read some previously prepared material. To make sure that the analyzed speech is indeed spontaneous, the material included in this research consists of dialogues (interviews). Unlike monologues, dialogues cannot be prepared in advance. A host may have (and usually does have) some questions prepared for their interlocutor prior to the interview. However, in live conversations linguistic decisions are made on the spot.

We have therefore analyzed eight minutes (480 seconds) of each host's speech. In order to obtain objective results, the analyzed samples were taken from two to five episodes, in case there were some external factors momentarily influencing spontaneous speech[6], as well as from different parts of episodes (beginning, middle and ending), given the fact that the level of concentration and stage fright changes during the show. We analyzed the speech of 32 radio hosts, both at public and commercial radio stations, 16 of them American and 16 Croatian. To be as objective as possible, half in each group were female, and half were male.Moreover, 16 hosts (50 % of the total number) work at public radio stations, whereas sixteen of them work at commercial radio stations.

Each recorded sample was analyzed and the dysfluencies were categorized according to Rose's (1998) classification as different types of repairs or as hesitation pauses (see sections 2 and 2.1). The results were then statistically analyzed. The overall detailed results are presented in Table 2.

Radio stations/networks and radio shows included in the research

The American public radio stations/networks whose official websites were used in this research in order to find podcasts of American radio talk shows are WNYC, American Public Media and NPR. They produce and distribute public radio programming. WNYC 93.9 FM and AM 820 are "New York's flagship public radio stations, broadcasting the finest programs from NPR, American Public Media, Public Radio International and the BBC World Service, as well as a wide range of award-winning local programming"[7]. American Public Media is "the largest owner and operator of public radio stations and a premier producer and distributor of public radio programming in the nation"[8], whereas NPR is described on its official website as "a thriving media organization at the forefront of digital innovation", which creates and distributes award-winning news, information and music programming to a network of 975 independent stations[9].

As for the Croatian stations/networks, Croatian Radio (HR), as part of the national broadcasting corporation, runs three national, one international and eight regional stations[10]. We have included in this research two national (HR 1 and HR 2) and three regional stations (Radio Sljeme, Radio Rijeka and Radio Osijek). Given the fact that HRT's official website contains podcasts of many talk shows that are broadcast on the previously mentioned stations, we have used them as the main source for this category of radio stations. We have also recorded some of the episodes via live streaming prior to the analysis.

For the purposes of this research we have used podcasts from two American commercial radio networks: TogiNet and BlogTalkRadio. TogiNet is an Internet talk radio network that streams live web radio programming and provides podcasts that can be downloaded[11], whereas BlogTalkRadio is described on its official website as "the world's largest and most influential social radio network with thousands of talented experts hosting shows on every kind of topic", attracting "a very significant audience of more than 21 million unique visitors per month"[12].

The program of a great number of Croatian commercial radio stations is also available via live stream. Eight talk shows broadcast on eight commercial radio stations from different parts of Croatia were recorded and analyzed. The stations included in the research were Petrinjski radio, Radio Jaska, Radio Martin, Radio Ritam, Radio Eurostar, Radio Šibenik, Free For Radio Hvar and Pomorski Radio Bakar.

The radio shows analyzed in the research are characterized by a wide range of topics. They cover sports, religion, economics and business, art, ecology, entertainment and music, as well as politics and society.

Results and discussion

	HOST	SHOW	RADIO STATION/ RADIO NETWORK			Overall duration of the analyzed samples	HESITATION ANALYSIS (number of occurrences in the analyzed sample)							Overall number of hesitations
			Croatian/ American	Public/ Commercial	Name		False starts	Repeats	Repairs		Self -corrections	Lengthenings	Pauses			
									Restarts				Silent (unfilled)	Voiced (filled) pauses		
														unlexicalized	lexicalized	
1	Jeff Greenfield	Money Talking	American	Public	WNYC	480 sec	1	15	0		1	0	12	9	3	41
2	Leonard Lopate	Please Explain	American	Public	WNYC	480 sec	7	4	1		2	7	2	43	12	78
3	Krista Tippett	On Being	American	Public	American Public Media	480 sec	9	23	4		0	0	5	18	6	65
4	Neal Conan	Talk of the Nation	American	Public	NPR	480 sec	1	21	3		2	0	1	52	0	80
5	Tom Ashbrook	On Point	American	Public	NPR	480 sec	5	16	7		1	8	6	20	4	67
6	Terry Gross	Fresh Air	American	Public	NPR	480 sec	8	11	4		1	3	7	20	15	69
7	Michel Martin	Tell Me More	American	Public	NPR	480 sec	5	13	4		1	3	9	11	9	55
8	Susan Page	The Diane Rehm Show: Friday News Roundup	American	Public	NPR	480 sec	6	6	4		4	2	7	19	9	57
9	Elena Čandrlić	U mreži Prvog	Croatian	Public	Hrvatski Radio 1	480 sec	2	1	0		1	8	1	41	9	63
10	Milorad Šikanjić	U mreži Prvog	Croatian	Public	Hrvatski Radio 1	480 sec	1	2	3		2	3	10	29	16	66
11	Jana Haluza	Diskografija	Croatian	Public	Hrvatski Radio 1	480 sec	1	1	2		1	12	4	27	7	55
12	Zlatko Turkalj	U pola dva, gkazbene minute	Croatian	Public	Hrvatski Radio 2	480 sec	1	5	2		2	0	9	17	7	43
13	Sonja Šarunić	Na Sljemenu sa Sonjom	Croatian	Public	Radio Sljeme	480 sec	2	0	0		2	44	1	21	1	71
14	Dorotea Brijak Šunjiko	Platforma	Croatian	Public	Radio Sljeme	480 sec	1	1	0		2	22	5	26	5	62
15	Alen Čemeljić	Caleo	Croatian	Public	Radio Rijeka	480 sec	3	8	1		1	8	2	43	3	69
16	Zvonimir Mandić	Desetica	Croatian	Public	Radio Osijek	480 sec	1	2	0		2	25	2	9	0	41
17	Jasminka Erdelj	Klub žena / Mozaik	Croatian	Commercial	Radio Jaska	480 sec	0	1	0		2	35	3	103	22	166
18	Katja Vučetić	Interviews*	Croatian	Commercial	Free For Radio Hvar	480 sec	7	16	3		3	9	1	112	2	153
19	Ivica Mokrović	Treće poluvrijeme	Croatian	Commercial	Petrinjski radio	480 sec	0	3	0		2	21	0	145	38	209
20	Rade Krstić	Šibenski kanal	Croatian	Commercial	Radio Šibenik	480 sec	4	15	5		3	59	8	45	30	169
21	Alenka Denona Mustapić	Ekološke teme i dileme	Croatian	Commercial	Pomorski radio Bakar	480 sec	0	0	0		2	55	1	56	16	130
22	Nikola Urukalo	Sridom u srdu	Croatian	Commercial	Radio Ritam	480 sec	3	7	4		2	27	7	46	13	109
23	Denis Bašić	Drobilica	Croatian	Commercial	Radio Martin	480 sec	2	10	2		1	24	10	50	15	114
24	Vedrana Kučina	Istarski prvi	Croatian	Commercial	Radio Eurostar	480 sec	0	1	0		1	56	0	81	24	163
25	Mary Cimilucca	Talksense Radio	American	Commercial	TogiNet	480 sec	9	16	3		4	6	7	53	26	124
26	Michael E. Stern	Build a Better Photograph	American	Commercial	TogiNet	480 sec	6	29	3		2	7	15	38	21	121
27	Bruce Beckman	Education2Excellence	American	Commercial	TogiNet	480 sec	22	32	9		1	4	17	52	55	192
28	Barry Farber	Breakthrough	American	Commercial	BlogTalkRadio	480 sec	9	43	13		1	0	5	39	27	137
29	Andrew Woodson	The Drew Show	American	Commercial	BlogTalkRadio	480 sec	11	57	29		1	1	0	83	10	192
30	Helen Woo	Self Ad Success Stories	American	Commercial	TogiNet	480 sec	10	17	1		1	3	9	50	35	126
31	Mary Beth Wells	The Mary Beth Wells Hour	American	Commercial	TogiNet	480 sec	13	6	3		3	12	20	59	19	135
32	Pat Sloan	American Patchwork and Quilting Radio	American	Commercial	TogiNet	480 sec	12	24	0		0	7	14	40	49	146

Table 2. Detailed results[13].

Before presenting a detailed analysis of the results of this research, two very important conclusions must be made. First, the results have confirmed that spontaneous speech is highly dysfluent; on average, one radio host made thirteen hesitations per minute.[14] Secondly, it should be noted that the number of hesitations varies substantially from host to host – they made from 41 to 209 hesitations in 480 seconds (on average, five to 26 hesitations per minute). The factors potentially influencing the frequency of hesitations are discussed in this chapter.

Our research involved an equal number of male and female radio host (16 male and 16 female, 32 in total). However, although women generally tend to be considered more fluent than men, the results indicate that there is no relevant difference in fluency, i.e. in the overall number or frequency of hesitations produced by male and female hosts (1728 and 1640 respectively).

Public vs. commercial radio stations

As expected, the number of hesitations made by radio hosts working at commercial radio stations was substantially larger than the number of hesitations made by hosts at public radio stations. These data are presented in Table 3 and Chart 1.

	Overall number of hesitations	Average number of hesitations per host in one minute
Public	982	7,67
Commercial	2386	18,64

Table3. The number of hesitations made by all hosts included in the research at public and commercial radio stations.

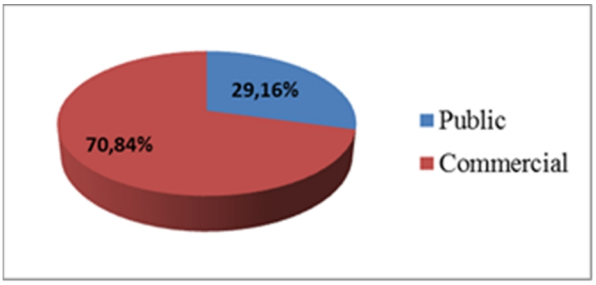


Chart 1. The ratio between the number of hesitations made by hosts working at public and commercial radio stations.

We have already explained that public radio stations provide formal education for their employees so that they become aware of dysfluencies, and then aim to eliminate

them as much as possible. Commercial radio stations mostly do not offer this opportunity, leaving their employees to improve their skills themselves. Based on the results of this research, we can conclude that the frequency of hesitations in the speech of radio hosts depends on their formal education. Fluency is, therefore, an aspect of spontaneous speech that can be influenced by formal training and practice.

When it comes to potential differences in fluency with regard to English and Croatian, the number of hesitations made by American and Croatian radio hosts was surprisingly similar – 1685 and 1683 respectively. This proves that fluency is a universal and cognitively based characteristic of human speech.

Individual types of hesitations

The total number of different types of hesitations, based on Roses's (1998) classification is given in Table4 and Chart 2.

		Public	Commercial	American	Croatian	Overall
False starts		54	108	134	28	162
Repairs	Repeats	129	277	333	73	406
	Restarts	35	75	88	22	110
	Self-corrections	25	29	25	29	54
Lengthenings		145	326	63	408	471
Silent (unfilled) pauses		83	117	136	64	200
Filled (voiced) pauses	Phonetic (unlexicalized)	405	1,052	606	851	1,457
	Lexicalized	106	402	300	208	508

Table 4. The number of hesitations in the research by type.

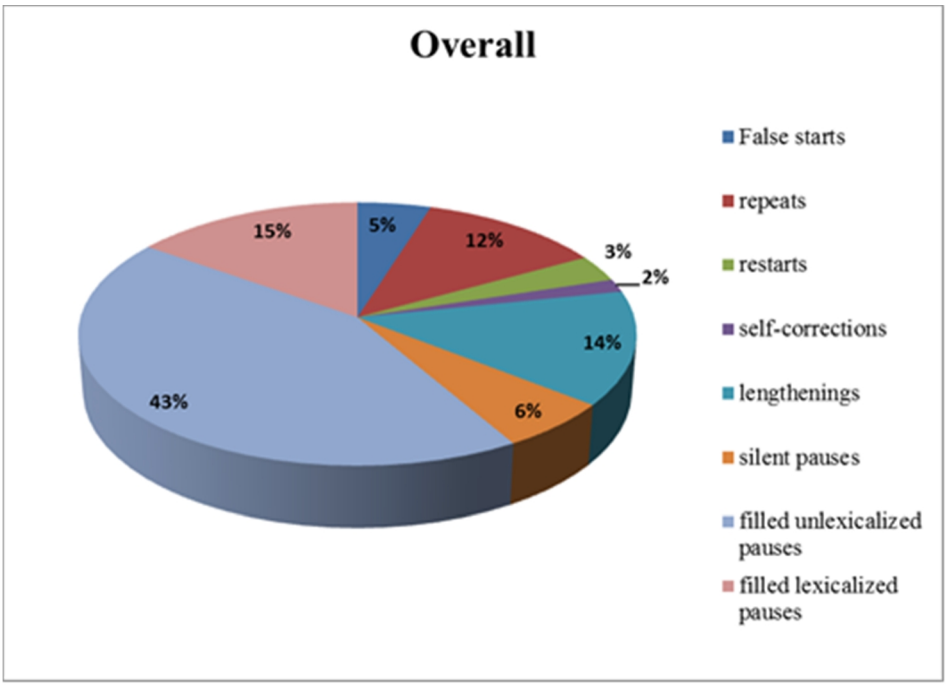


Chart 2. The ratio between the frequency of different types of hesitations.

Pauses

We can see that silent pauses comprise only 6% of all hesitations in the analyzed samples. Taking into consideration the fact that filled pauses account for a relatively high 58% of the total, it can be argued that speakers consider silence to be the most inconvenient option because it implies a complete rupture in communication. As Brennan & Williams (1995) claim, when speakers use filled pauses, they create the illusion of greater continuity: a delay containing a filler is subjectively shorter than the same delay with dead silence. However, the research showed that American hosts are more prone to silent pauses than Croatian hosts, and use them around two times more often than Croatian hosts.

As can be seen in Chart 2, filled unlexicalized pauses comprise 43% of all hesitations registered in the research. Without any doubt, we can claim that they are the most common type of hesitations. The research has confirmed the statement that the most common unlexicalized filled pause is, by far, the short form of *er* (Rose, 1998). This applies not only to the speech of American, but also of Croatian radio hosts. On the other hand, filled lexicalized pauses comprise 15% of all hesitations, occupying the second position when it comes to frequency. We can conclude that it is easier for a

speaker to fill a potentially empty space in speech with an unlexicalized pause, given the fact that it requires less planning than a lexicalized one.

The most frequent lexicalized pauses in the research among American hosts were filled by*you know* and *I mean*. *Well*, *so* and *like* also occurred often. Croatian hosts included in the research mostly used *dakle* and *evo*. Fillers that also occurred, but were not nearly as frequent, were *ovaj, ovoga, ono, onako, zapravo, znači, recimo, eto* and *pa*. Furthermore, filled lexicalized pauses were more frequent at commercial radio stations: they occupy the second position when it comes to the most frequent hesitations made by hosts at commercial radio stations (17% of all hesitations), and fourth position among hesitations made by hosts at public stations (11%). Moreover, the research showed that American hosts use filled lexicalized pauses more often than Croatian hosts. Pauses therefore comprise 64% of all hesitations made in the research and therefore occupy the highest position on the ladder of the most frequent hesitations of radio hosts.

Lengthenings

Although not nearly as frequent as filled unlexicalized pauses, lengthenings occurred very often in the research as well: they comprise 14% of all registered hesitations. Women appear to be more prone to lengthenings (they make 17% of all the hesitations female hosts committed in this research, in comparison with male 11%).Furthermore, lengthenings can be considered a prominent characteristic of the spontaneous speech of Croatian radio hosts: they comprise 24% of all hesitations, occupying the second position on the ladder of the most frequent hesitations made by Croatian hosts. On the other hand, among the hesitations of American hosts they occupy the penultimate position, comprising only 4% of all hesitations. The only type of hesitations that Americans used less were self-corrections (1%).

Repeats

As lengthenings have marked the spontaneous speech of Croatian hosts, repeats turned out to be the most prominent feature of the speech of American hosts, second to filled unlexicalized pauses, which were the most frequent type of hesitations among both American and Croatian hosts. This confirmed Clark & Wasow's (1998) assertion that repeated words, in the English language, are one of the most common dysfluencies in spontaneous speech. Repeats thus comprised 12% of all hesitations registered in the research. Men tended to repeat words more frequently than women; repeats comprised 16% of hesitations made by male radio hosts, and only 8% of hesitations committed by female hosts.

Furthermore, Clark & Wasow (1998) claim that function words in the English language are repeated far more often than content words. This research confirmed their assertion; the words that were repeated most frequently were function words such asconjunctions (*and*, *or*), prepositions (*of*, *to*, *on*), auxiliary verbs (*has*, *are*), pronouns (*I*, *it*, *that*) and articles (*the*, *a)*.Function words establish a relationship between content words; they are short and easier to pronounce, so they make a perfect candidate for repetition.Repeats comprised 20% of all hesitations made by American hosts and only four percent of hesitations made by Croatian radio hosts. The explanation for such a difference may lie in the fact that English, unlike Croatian, has the category of articles, which are extremely frequent and contribute to a much higher ratio of repeats by American hosts. As we have already concluded, function words are repeated far more often than content words, so the difference in the frequency of repeats in English and Croatian may not be as surprising as it seems at first glance.

False starts and restarts

False starts and restarts belong to hesitations that do not occur often. False starts comprised only 5% of the hesitations committed in the research. American radio hosts tended to be more prone to making false starts than their Croatian counterparts (83% as opposed to 17% respectively). Restarts, on the other hand, comprised only 3%of all hesitations. However, there is a considerable difference in their usage between male and female radio hosts; for an unknown reason, male hosts used them three times more often than their female counterparts.This difference is even more prominent when it comes to the use of restarts in English and Croatian: American radio hosts use them four times more often than Croatian hosts.

Self-corrections

Self-corrections occupy the lowest position on the ladder of frequency of hesitations, comprising only 2% of all hesitations made in the research. Such a low percentage may be understandable if we take into consideration the fact that, by using self-corrections, we admit in a very conspicuous way that we have made a mistake. As Goffman (1981) argues, moments of distraction are expected to stay hidden from the listeners. Otherwise, a speaker's authority may be seriously undermined, given the fact that professional speakers are expected to be knowledgeable and competent (Goffman, 1981).

Conclusion

This research examined the frequency of hesitation markers in the speech of American and Croatian radio hosts, starting from the assumption that fluency is an

aspect of speech that can be influenced, primarily by formal training. The results showed a surprisingly similar number of overall hesitations committed by American and Croatian hosts. As for the correlation of gender and fluency that has also been examined in this paper, the results indicate that there is no relevant difference in the frequency of hesitations produced by male and female hosts, in spite of the generally accepted view that women are more fluent than men.

The most frequent type of hesitationwith all hosts was filled unlexicalized pauses because they require least planning and effort while bridginga potential silent gap on the air. Croatian hosts were more prone to lengthenings as the second most common type of hesitation, as opposed to American hosts who had repeatsin this position. This may be related to the fact that function words are repeated far more often than content words, and the presence of articles increases significantly the frequency of function words in English, as opposed to Croatian that doesn't have this category.

One of the major differences, however, between the radio hosts involved in our research is not related to their respective languages but to their formal training. Hosts who have had substantial training by professional phoneticians and other trained experienced announcers showed fewer hesitations and improved fluency. This speaks in favor of two of our initial claims – that fluency is acognitive rather than a language-specific aspect of speech, and that it can be improved through professional training.This indicates that such training is very important for speech production in all types of audio-visual media, and it concerns not only fluency and good articulation, but other aspects as well, ranging from the choice of appropriate vocabulary and syntactic structures, to the choice of appropriate style.

[1] Goldman-Eisler (1968) mentionsthe even flow, fluency in speech, a flood of language, as well as gush, spout, stream, torrent and floodgates of speech.
[2]Function words are used largely to express the relations between elements of sentences, or to indicate their discourse functions. They comprise articles, prepositions, conjunctions, auxiliary verbs and pronouns (Clark & Wasow, 1998).
[3] Some hesitations may serve a communicative purpose, for example avoiding embarassing situations or drawing the interlocutor's attention (Rose, 1998).
[4]www.isu.edu/kisufm/differences.html
[5]www.bls.gov/ooh/media-and-communication/announcers.html
[6]For example, fatigue or illness.
[7]www.wnyc.org
[8]americanpublicmedia.publicradio.org
[9]www.npr.org
[10]radio.hrt.hr
[11]toginet.com

[12]www.blogtalkradio.com
[13]The information about the podcasts found on the official website of the radio station Free For Radio Hvar is limited due to the closure of the station in 2013. The name of the analyzed show was therefore not available.
[14]The overall number of hesitations in this research, made by 32 radio hosts, is 3,368. As mentioned in the previous chapter, the duration of each host's speech sample was eight minutes (480 seconds).

References

American Public Media: americanpublicmedia.publicradio.org (21/04/2013)

BlogTalkRadio: www.blogtalkradio.com(07/06/2013)

Brennan, S. E., & Williams, M. (1995) The feeling of another's knowing: prosody and filled pauses as cues to listeners about the metacognitive states of speakers.*Journal of Memory and Language, 34* (3), 383–398.

Bureau of Labor Statistics: www.bls.gov/ooh/media-and-communication/announcers.htm (20/07/2013)

Clark, H. & Fox Tree, J. (2002) Using uh and um in spontaneous speaking. *Cognition, 84*, 73- 111.

Clark, H. &Wasow, T. (1998) Repeating words in spontaneous speech. *Cognitive Psychology, 37* (3), 201–242.

Field, John (2003) *Psycholinguistics*. London and New York: Routledge.

Fox Tree, J. E., & Schrock, J. C. (1999) Discourse markers in spontaneous speech: oh what a difference an oh makes. *Journal of Memory and Language, 40* (2), 280–295.

Free For Radio Hvar: www.ffr.hr (19/04/2013)

Goffman, E. (1981) Radio talk. In E. Goffman (Ed.), *Forms of talk* (pp. 197–327). Philadelphia, PA: University of Pennsylvania Press.

Goldman-Eisler, F. (1968) *Psycholinguistics: experiments in spontaneous speech*. New York: Academic Press.

Harley, T. (2001) *The Psychology of Language: From Data to Theory*. Hove and New York: Psychology Press Ltd.

Henderson A., Goldman-Eisler, F. & Skarbek, A. (1966) Breath rate and the selective action of chlorpromazine on speech behavior. *Psychopharmacologia, 8* (6), 415-427.

Hrvatska radiotelevizija: radio.hrt.hr(16/05/2013)

Idaho State University: http://www.isu.edu/kisufm/differences.shtml (06/03/2013)

Kendall, T. (2009) Speech rate, pause and linguistic variation: an examination through the sociolinguistic archive and analysis project. Duke University dissertation.

Kowal, S. & O'Connell, D. (1980) Pausological research at Saint Louis University. In H. Dechert & M. Raupach (Eds.), *Temporal Variables in Speech. Studies in Honour of Frieda Goldman-Eisler*. Den Haag: Mouton.

Levelt, W. J. M. (1983) Monitoring and self-repair in speech. *Cognition, 14*, 41–104.

Mead, P. (2000) Control of pauses by trainee interpreters in their A and B languages. *The Interpreters' Newsletter, 10,* 89−102.

National Public Radio: www.npr.org (07/04/2013)

Petrinjski radio: www.petrinjskiradio.hr (27/04/2013)

Pomorski radio Bakar: www.pomorskiradio.hr (12/05/2013)

Radio Eurostar: www.radioeurostar.hr (23/04/2013)

Radio Jaska: www.radio-jaska.hr (13/05/2013)

Radio Martin: www.radio-martin.hr (10/06/2013)

Radio Ritam: www.radioritam.hr (16/04/2013)

Radio Šibenik: www.radiosibenik.hr (22/05/2013)

Rose, R. (1998) The Communicative Value of Filled Pauses in Spontaneous Speech, M.A. Diss., Univ. of Birmingham.

Slobodna Dalmacija:
arhiv.slobodnadalmacija.hr/20030213/televizija02.asp(09/05/2013)

TogiNet: toginet.com(26/05/2013)

WNYC: www.wnyc.org. (16/04/2013)

The role of verb valency in Croatian and Russian learning at B1 level

Ivana Brač & Sanja Drljača Magić
University of Zagreb, Croatia

Abstract: *Difficulties in learning a second language (L2) may arise when a first-language (L1) speaker attempts to directly transfer a syntactic pattern from L1 into L2. Since there is a very high overlap in verb valency between Croatian and Russian, the generalization of syntactic patterns often leads to systematic errors. In this paper we analyze verbs that were selected from a list of verbs required for B1-level mastery in Croatian and Russian.*

The analyzed verbs are divided into semantic groups according to Levin (1993), but the paper focuses on the verbs of social interaction, verbs of communication and psych-verbs. Each verb is associated with its syntactic pattern supported by a corpus attestation.

Within each semantic group, verbs are further divided into four groups based on the number of complements and their realization on the syntactic and morphological levels.

This paper aims to facilitate the acquisition of basic verb complements in Croatian and Russian, with emphasis on non-matching pairs between the two languages.

Keywords: *Verb valency, Croatian language, Russian language, L2 acquisition*

Article History:
Submitted: 15.04.2014.
Accepted: 02.11.2014.

DOI Number:
10.14706/JFLTAL15219

Introduction

Verb valency is the ability of a verb to determine the number of its complements, as well as their syntactic and morphological realization in a sentence. Herbst (2007) says that: "The phenomenon of valency is one part of the unpredictable, unsystematic aspects of language" (p. 15). The importance of this theory in second language acquisition was noted following the publication of Helbig and Schenkel's dictionary of German verbs in 1969. Since it is an unpredictable category, students cannot directly transfer every L1 syntactic pattern into L2.

This paper analyzes the valency of Croatian and Russian verbs needed for B1-level mastery according to CEFR, emphasizing differences in order to predict errors during the learning process.

We have focused only on matching and deviating prototypical verb complements. The verbs are divided into semantic groups, and each verb is associated with its syntactic pattern supported by a corpus attestation (Croatian Language Repository (http://riznica.ihjj.hr/index.hr.html), hrWaC (http://nlp.ffzg.hr/resources/corpora/hrwac/), Framebank.ru) that has been transformed for the sake of clarity. Within each semantic group, the verbs are further divided into four groups based on the number of complements and their realization on the syntactic and morphological levels. Verbs that have different complements in Croatian and Russian were selected.

Classification of verbs

The analyzed verbs were extracted from the corpora created for the compilation of the *Croatian Verb Valency database*, which is being developed at the Institute of Croatian Language and Linguistics (project leader: Matea Birtić). The corpora were compiled from relevant textbooks for B1-level Croatian learning. The analyzed verbs were divided into semantic groups according to Levin (1993). The verbs mostly belong to two or more semantic groups based on their polysemy. This paper only takes the basic meaning of the verbs into consideration, while other meanings have been omitted. Our study is founded on semantic analysis, based on the assumption that non-native speakers are unable to recognize essential verb complements if they are unaware of the semantic group the verb belongs to. Levin and Hovav (2005) state that "the syntactic realization of arguments – their category type and their grammatical function – is largely predictable from the meaning of their verbs" (p. 7). Verbs of social interaction, verbs of (verbal) communication, and psych-verbs were analyzed because of their role in B1-level of L2 acquisition.

Croatian is used as the source-language. Croatian verbs were associated with their aspectual pairs. The number of complements of each verb is defined, as is the type of complement and its semantic role. Each Croatian verb is then associated with its equivalent in Russian, which is further associated with its own aspectual pair and syntactic pattern. If no fully equivalent meaning exists, close equivalent meanings are mentioned in an endnote.

Syntactic patterns: complement types and semantic roles

It was assumed that syntactic patterns can be described with 10 types of complements provided in the description of syntactic verb structure in the *Croatian Verb Valency Database*. Those complements are: the nominative complement (NomC), which mostly correlates with the sentence subject and plays the semantic role of agent; the genitive complement (GenC) which mostly plays the role of the object; the dative complement (DatC); the accusative complement (AccC) with a role of direct object; the instrumental complement (InstC) as the most common complement among analyzed verbs of communication and psych-verbs; the prepositional complement (PrepC) that commonly correlates with the object; and adverbial complement (AdvC), which is further associated when nominal words or prepositional-case phrases can be substituted by an adverb. Infinitival, predicate, and clause complements are not analyzed here.

Complements are associated with semantic roles in which the morphological change of the verb causes a change in the syntactic function of participants while the semantic role remains the same. For example, reflexive verbs found among psych-verbs become transitive by losing their reflexive pronoun, which causes their complements and syntactic function to change while their semantic role remains unchanged. Unlike semantic roles, conceptual categories (animate-inanimate, human, etc.) that represent knowledge of the world, and are thus closer to both the non-native speaker and the native speaker non-linguist, do not depend on the meaning of the verb, but are inherent for the noun itself (see Herbst & Götz-Votteler, 2007, p. 40).

The syntactic patterns of verbs in Croatian and Russian

Since Croatian and Russian are genetically related languages, verbs can completely overlap at the semantic and syntactic levels. However, sometimes they do not overlap in one of their meanings, and this can cause a difference in syntactic pattern.

Within a semantic group, verbs are divided based on their number of complements (quantitative valency) and on their realization on the syntactic and morphological levels (qualitative valency).

These criteria resulted in four groups of verbs. The difference in syntactic pattern as a result of a change in meaning is not taken into account in the classification of verbs, but it is pointed out in the endnote.

Verbs with matching complements on the syntactic and morphological levels

(cro)Rastala se od muža.	*(ru)Она рассталась с мужем.*
s mužem.	
(cro)separate from (with)	*(ru)separate with*

These verbs have two complements in both languages: the nominative and the prepositional (realized as *od+genitive* or *s+instrumental* in Croatian and as *s+instrumental* in Russian).

Verbs with matching complements on the syntactic level, but different on the morphological level

*(cro)Nisam **sumnjala u** njegove namjere.*	*(ru)Не **сомневайся в** моих словах!*
*(cro)Liječnici **sumnjaju na** zarazu.*	*(ru)doubt in*
(cro)doubt in (on)	

These verbs have two complements in both languages: the nominative and the prepositional (realized as *u+accusative* or *na+accusative* in Croatian and as *v+locative* in Russian).

Verbs with different complements on the syntactic and morphological levels

(cro)Nadamo se pomoći Grada.	*(ru)Я надеюсь увидеть вас сегодня.*

These verbs have two complements: the nominative and the dative in Croatian, and the nominative, infinitival, or prepositional complements in Russian. When they appear with the prepositional complement *na+accusative*, the meaning of these verbs changes to 'rely on, expect'.

Verbs with a different number of complements

No examples of quantitative valency were found in the corpora examined.

Verbs of communication

We analyzed the verbs *pitati* (*ask*)*, odgovoriti* (*answer*)*, čestitati* (*congratulate*)*, ispričati se* (*apologize*) and *raspraviti* (*discuss*), all of which can be classified in other semantic groups. However, we decided to place them in the group of verbs of communication due to their syntactic pattern, which includes an agent, goal, and theme.

It was observed that, within the class of verbs of communication, verbs match according to their number of complements (trivalent), while the analyzed verbs do not match in their type of complements. The verbs differ in the types of complement associated with the role of a goal (*ispričavati se/извиняться* (*apologize*): Croatian – DatC, Russian – PrepC), the role of a theme (*raspravljati/обсуждать* (*discuss*): Croatian – PrepC, Russian – AccC (direct object)), and the role of a goal and a theme (*čestitati/поздравлять* (*congratulate*): Croatian – DatC (indirect object, goal) and AccC (direct object, theme), Russian – AccC (direct object, goal) and PrepC, theme).

The verb *pitati/спрашивать* (*ask*) has one nominative and two accusative complements. The difference between the two languages is that the goal can be expressed in Russian not only through the dative case, but also by the prepositional complement *u+genitive* (*at+genitive*). If the verbs appear with *s+genitive* (*with+genitive*), the meaning changes to 'make responsible/answer (for)'.

The verb *odgovarati/отвечать* (*answer*) has nominative, dative, and prepositional complements. The preposition *za* (*for*) in Croatian is followed by the accusative case, and this corresponds to three different prepositions in Russian: *za, na* and *dlya* (genitive), depending on the verb.

Verbs with matching complements on the syntactic and morphological levels

(cro)pitati/u(za)pitati : (ru)спрашивать/спросить *(eng)ask*

a) Profesorica me pitala teško pitanje.
NomC:nominative AccC:accusative AccC:accusative
Учитель спрашивал всех такие вещи.
NomC:nominative AccC:accusative AccC:accusative

b) Novinari su ga pitali o planovima za budućnost.
NomC:nominative AccC:accusative PrepC: o+locative
Журналисты спрашивали его о планах на будущее.
NomC:nominative AccC:accusative PrepC: o+locative

Difference:
Ты можешь спросить у своего друга совет?
NomC:nominative PrepC:u+genitive AccC:accusative
Если что-то будет не так, спрашивать будут с тебя.
NomC:nominative PrepC:s+genitive PrepC:o+locative

(cro)odgovarati/odgovoriti : (ru)отвечать/ответить *(eng)answer*

Ona mi nije odgovorila na pitanje.
NomC:nominative DatC:dative PrepC:na+accusative
Иван не отвечает мне на мой вопрос.
NomC:nominative DatC:dative PrepC: na+accusative

Difference:
Dječak je odgovarao matematiku za pet.
NomC:nominative AccC: accusative AdvC: za+accusative
Мальчик ответил математику на четыре.
NomC:nominative AccC:accusative AdvC:na+accusative

Verbs with different complements on the syntactic and morphological levels

(cro)čestitati : (ru)поздравлять/поздравить; *(eng)congratulate*
a) Čestitam ti rođendan.
NomC:nominative DatC:dative AccC:accusative

b) Čestitam vam na zadobivenoj časti.
NomC:nominative DatC:dative PrepC:na+locative

Поздравляю тебя с завершением работы.
NomC:nominative AccD:accusative PrepC:s+instrumental

(cro)ispričavati se/ispričati se : (ru)извиняться/извиниться; *(eng)apologize*

Ispričavam se čitateljima za konstrukciju teksta /zbog konstrukcije teksta / na konstrukciji teksta.
NomC:nominative DatC:dative PrepC:za+accusative
zbog+genitive
na+locative

Я должен извиняться перед вами за свой слова.
NomC:nominative PrepC:pered+instrumental PrepC:za+accusative
Она часто извиналась болезнью и не приходила на собрания.
NomC:nominative InstD:instrumental

(cro)raspravljati/raspraviti : (ru)обсуждать/обсудить; *(eng)discuss*

Ministarstvo raspravlja o tome sa sindikatima.
NomC:nominative PrepC:o+locative PrepC:s+instrumental

Я собираюсь обсудить ваше поведение с вашими преподавателями.
NomC:nominative AccC:accusative PrepC:s+instrumental

Verbs of social interaction

Levin (1993, p. 200) defines verbs of social interaction as verbs that describe activities always involving more than one participant. These verbs can be monovalent or divalent depending on whether the subject is singular or plural.

The verbs *vjenčati se* (*get married*), *oženiti se* (*marry*), *rastati se* (*separate*), and *razvesti se* (*divorce*) are monovalent if the subject is in plural and all participants have the same status. In this case, the complement is nominative (agent).

Oni su se vjenčali. *Они поженились.*

The verbs are divalent if the subject is singular and if they have a nominative and prepositional complement. The verbs *rastati se* (*separate*) and *razvesti se* (*divorce*) in Croatian have a prepositional complement realized as *od+genitive* (*from+genitive*), and as *s+instrumental* (*with+instrumental*) in Russian. The corpora attest *rastati se s* (*separate with*), while attestations of *razvesti se s* (*divorce with*) are negligible.

The verb *oženiti se* (*marry*) in divalent form has a nominative and instrumental complement with the attested prepositional: *s+instrumental* (*with+instrumental*), *za+accusative* (*for+accusative*) in Croatian. In Russian, the complement is only the prepositional *na+locative* (*on+locative*).

Verbs with matching complements on the syntactic level, but different on the morphological level

(cro)razvoditi se/razvesti se : (ru)разводиться/развестись; *(eng)divorce*

Razvela se od njega.
NomC:nominative PrepC:od+genitive
Он развелся с женой.
NomC:nominative PrepC: s+instrumental

(cro)rastajati se/rastati se : (ru)расставаться/расстаться; *(eng)separate*

Rastala se od muža/s mužem.
NomC:nominative PrepC:od+genitive
PrepC:s+instrumental
Она рассталась с мужем.
NomC:nominative PrepC:s+instrumental

Verbs with different complements on the syntactic level and morphological levels

(cro)ženiti se/oženiti se : (ru)жениться/пожениться; *(eng)marry*

Oženio se svojom djevojkom (iz ljubavi).
NomC:nominative InstC:instrumental (AdvC: iz+genitive)
Принц женился на бедной девушке (*по любви)*.
NomC:nominative PrepC:na+locative (AdvC:po+dative)

Psych-verbs

Some authors (Levin & Hovav, 2005, White, 2003) have distinguished minimal pairs such as *fear* and *frighten, like* and *please*, which have a complement with the semantic role of experiencer, however, in the verb *fear*, the experiencer is the subject, while in the verb *frighten,* the experiencer is the object.
In this paper, verbs were classified into two main groups:

A. Verbs that become transitive and change the roles of experiencer and stimulus when they appear without a pronoun (in Russian particle -ся) *se* (*yourself*).

1. Verbs with two complements where the experiencer is the subject (reflexive verbs) and the stimulus is a dative (A.1.1.), instrumental (A.1.2.), or prepositional (A.1.3.) complement;

2. Verbs with two complements where the stimulus is the subject and the experiencer is an accusative case object.

B. Verbs where the experiencer is the subject, but transformation is not possible: *bojati se* (*fear*), *smijati se* (*laugh*), *nadati se* (*hope*), *diviti se* (*admire*). The element *se* with these verbs stands as a particle, not as a pronoun (Silić & Pranjković, 2005, p. 40).

A.1.1.			**A. 2.**	
(cro)iznenađivati se/iznenaditi se			**iznenađivati/iznenaditi**; *(eng)surprise*	
(Ja)Iznenadila sam se daru.			*Dar me iznenadio.*	
NomC:nominative	DatC:dative		NomC:nominative	AccC:accusative
Experiencer	Stimulus		Stimulus	Experiencer
(cro)čuditi se/začuditi se			**čuditi/začuditi[2];***(eng)amaze*	
(Ja)Čudim se vremenu.			*Vrijeme me čudi.*	
NomC:nominative	DatC:dative	NomC:nominative	AccC:accusative	
Experiencer	Stimulus	Stimulus	Experiencer	
(ru)удивляться/удивиться			**удивлять/удивить**	
Я удивилась этой встрече.			*Его поступки очень удивили меня*	
NomC:nominative	DatC:dative		NomC:nominative	AccC:accusative
Experiencer	Stimulus		Stimulus	Experiencer
(cro)radovati se/obradovati se			**radovati/obradovati**; *(eng)please*	
(Ja)Radujem se daru.			*Dar me raduje.*	
NomC:nominative	DatC:dative		NomC:nominative	AccC:accusative
Experiencer	Stimulus		Stimulus	Experiencer
(cro)veseliti se/razveseliti se[1]			**veseliti/razveseliti**	
(Ja)Veselim se suncu.			*Sunce me veseli.*	
NomC:nominative	DatC:dative		NomC:nominative	AccC:accusative
Experiencer	Stimulus		Stimulus	Experiencer
(ru)радоваться/обрадоваться			**радовать/обрадовать**	
Бабушка обрадовалась приезду внучки.			*Солнце обрадовало нас.*	
NomC:nominative	DatC:dative		NomC:nominative	AccC:accusative
Experiencer	Stimulus		Stimulus	Experiencer
A.1.2.			**A.2.**	
(cro)oduševljavati se/oduševiti se			**oduševljavati/oduševiti**; *(eng)delight*	
(Ja)Oduševljujem se prirodom.			*Priroda me oduševljuje.*	
NomC:nominative	InstD:instrumental		NomC:nominative	AccC:accusative
Experiencer		Stimulus	Stimulus	Experiencer
(ru)восхищаться/<u>восхититься</u>			**восхищать /<u>восхитить</u>**	
Я восхищаюсь ее красотой.			Меня восхищает её красота.	
NomC:nominative	InstD:instrumental		NomC:nominative	AccCD:accusative
Experiencer		Stimulus	Stimulus	Experiencer

восторгаться		**восторгать**	
Она восторгалась красотой природы.		*Красота природы восторгает всех.*	
NomC:nominative	InstC:instrumental	NomC:nominative	AccC:accusative
Experiencer	Stimulus	Stimulus	Experiencer

A close-meaning verb to *восхищаться* and *восторгаться* is the verb *наслаждаться*, a reflexive verb, the meaning of which is 'be enthusiastic', and which has both nominative and instrumental complements. When the verb is nonreflexive, the meaning is 'delight, enrapture'. A close meaning word is also the verb *любоваться*, which means 'admire'.

A.1.3.		**A.2.**	
(cro)ljutiti se/naljutiti se		**ljutiti/naljutiti;***(eng)be angry*	
(Ja)Ljutim se na mamu.		*Mama me ljuti.*	
NomC:nominative	PrepC:na+Acc	NomC:nominative	AccC:accusative
Experiencer	Stimulus	Stimulus	Experiencer
(ru)злиться/разозлиться		**злить/разозлить**	
Мальчик злился на маму.		*Меня злит общий скептицизм.*	
NomC:nominative	PrepC:na+Acc	NomC:nominative	AccD:accusative
Experiencer	Stimulus	Stimulus	Experiencer
(cro)brinuti se/ zabrinuti se		**brinuti/zabrinuti;** *(eng)worry*	
(Ja)Brinem se o mami/za mamu/zbog mame.		*Mama me brine.*	
NomC:nominative	PrepC:o+ locative za+accusative zbog+genitive	NomC:nominative Stimulus Experiencer	AccC: accusative Experiencer Stimulus
(ru)волноваться/заволноваться		**волновать/заволновать**	
Мы волновались о их судьбе */за сына/из-за экзамена.*		*Судьба нас волнует.*	
NomC:nominative	PrepC:o+Loc za+Acc iz-za+Gen	NomC:nominative Stimulus	AccC:accusative Experiencer
Experiencer	Stimulus		

B. Without transformation

Verbs with matching complements on the syntactic and morphological levels

(cro)bojati se/pobojati se : (ru)бояться/побояться; *(eng)fear*

(Ja)Bojim se mraka. *za sina*		*Я не боюсь собак.* *за тебя*	
NomC:nominative	GenC:genitive PrepC: za+accusative	NomC:nominative	GenC:genitive PrepC:za+accusative

(cro)stidjeti se/zastidjeti se : (ru)стыдиться/при(за)стыдиться; *(eng)be ashamed*

(Ja)Stidim se prošlosti.	*Он никогда не стыдился нашей любви.*
NomC:nominative GenC:genitive	NomC:nominative GenC:genitive

Difference:

(Ja)Stidim se zbog svoje prošlosti.	*Он стыдился за сына.*
NomC:nominative GenC:genitive	NomC:nominative PrepC:za+accusative

Verbs with different complements on the syntactic and morphological levels

(cro)smijati se/nasmijati se : (ru)смеяться/посмеяться; *(eng)laugh*

(Ja)Smijem se bratu.	*Она смеялась над братом.*
NomC:nominative DatC:dative	NomC:nominative PrepC:nad+Inst

(cro)nadati se/ponadati se : (ru)надеяться/понадеяться; *(eng)hope*

(Mi)Nadamo se Vašoj pomoći.	*Я очень надеюсь на успех в этом деле.*
NomC:nominative DatC:dative	NomC:nominative PrepC:na+Acc

(cro)sjećati se/sjetiti se : (ru)вспоминать/вспомнить; *(eng)remeber*

(Ja)Sjećam se djeda.		*Вадим вспоминает первую встречу с Анной.*	
NomC:nominative	GenC:genitive	NomC:nominative	AccC:accusative

The verb *вспоминать/вспомнить* (remember) is not a reflexive verb, but rather a transitive verb that opens up space to an accusative complement, i.e. to an object. That verb is used as a reflexive verb in impersonal constructions (*Мне вспомнилась старинная песня.*).

Conclusion

The generalization of syntactic patterns often leads to systematic errors. Difficulties in second-language learning (L2) may arise when a first-language (L1) speaker attempts to directly transfer a syntactic pattern from L1 into L2. There are certain syntactic patterns that can be foreseen, but there are many more unforeseeable ones. This makes mastering verb valency the key problem in learning a foreign language.

Croatian and Russian are related Slavic languages, and thus there is a very high overlap in verb valency between these two languages. When it comes to some of the most frequent errors arising as a result of similarities between the two languages, we must emphasize the incorrect use of prepositions (i.e. incorrect choice of case after a preposition: *жениться с ней*). Errors can also occur quite often if a verb in L1 has

one matching and one or more non-matching meanings with a verb in L2 (*надеяться на*).

This paper aims to facilitate both the acquisition and teaching of Croatian and Russian as foreign languages. A comparative analysis can be very important for language teachers as it helps them predict learners' errors.

Endnotes:

[1] In Russian, the verb *веселиться* means 'to have a great time, have fun'. The Croatian equivalent is *radovati se.*

[2] The verb *čuditi* (to amaze) is considered normatively unacceptable. However, it is included in our study because of its frequent use and attestation in the corpora.

References

Apresyan, Yu. D. (Ed.). (2003). Novyj ob"yasnitel'nyj slovar' sinonimov russkogo jazyka. Moskva: Shkola "Yazyki slavyanskoi kul'tury".

Herbst, T., Heath, D., Roe, I.F., & Götz, D. (2004). A valency dictionary of English: a corpus-based analysis of the complementation patterns of English verbs, nouns and adjectives. Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter.

Herbst, T., & Götz-Votteler, K. (Eds.). (2007). Valency: Theoretical, Descriptive and Cognitive Issues. Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter.

Levin, B. (1993). English Verb Classes and Alternations. Chicago and London: The University of Chicago Press.

Levin, B., & Rappaport Hovav, M. (2005). Argument Realization. Research Surveys in Linguistics. New York: Cambridge Univeristy press.

Rozental', D.E. (1981). Upravlenie v russkom yazyke. Slovar'-spravochnik : dlya rabotnikov pechati. Moskva: Kniga.

Silić, J., & Pranjković, I. (2005). Gramatika hrvatskoga jezika za gimnazije i visoka učilišta. Zagreb: Školska knjiga.

White, L. (2003). Second Language Acquisition and Universal Grammar. New York: Cambridge University press.

"Teaching Translation Theory outside Europe: Historical Specificity Versus Universal Applicability"

James St. André
The University of Manchester, United Kingdom

Abstract: *While teaching first in Singapore and now in Manchester, it has come to my attention that there are certain difficulties in teaching translation theory either outside of Europe or, in Europe, to students from outside of Europe who come here to study. This paper concentrates on the role of examples in theoretical works, the problems they pose in teaching theory and the implications for universalism in translation studies. I draw on Edward Said's discussion of travelling theory, post-colonial critiques of the hegemonic role of English, and skopos theory to propose two courses of action to help overcome the problem: first, the incorporation of the translation of theoretical material both from and into European languages as part of practical postgraduate training; and second, the use of a radical substitution policy for examples, with new examples centred around the target language, rather than preservation of the original examples, which are centred around the source-language. Using the example of China, I will demonstrate how these two strategies push us to reconsider how we approach teaching theory. Firstly, the translation of Chinese theoretical texts into English will allow for a deeper appreciation of writings in Chinese and their wider dissemination. Secondly, the search for examples which involve the target language should lead to an engagement between the target culture and the theory. Translating Vinay and Darbelnet's path breaking essay on translation processes, for example, immediately raises the question of what exactly is meant by 'borrowing' in the Chinese context, and for the need to distinguish between retaining the use of the roman alphabet and transliteration using Chinese characters, a distinction that would never arise between French, English and German.*

Keywords: *translation theory, examples, Chinese*

Article History:
Submitted: 22.04.2014.
Accepted: 04.11.2014.

DOI Number:
10.14706/JFLTAL152110

Introduction

Although not a specialist in foreign language acquisition or in teaching English as a foreign language, I have long been concerned with the teaching of theoretical texts in translation studies to non-native speakers of English. These theoretical texts include translations from other languages (mainly German and French) into English, as well as translations from English into Chinese (which is my main foreign language, and the one most commonly shared by my students).

Teaching such theoretical texts raises a variety of issues, in particular the question of examples and the problem of historical specificity versus universal applicability. For over a century, we have seen the imposition of Western European theoretical 'universals' on the 'East', the 'South' or 'the Rest' (depending on which term you prefer). Tackling the challenge of development of universals today involves making models that come out of a wider range of experience across the humanities and social sciences. In translation studies in particular, there is a need to go beyond the triumvirate of English, French and German studies, and to go beyond East and West.

In a postmodern vein, I begin this paper with a story of a young American who went to Asia to teach translation and how that experience changed his perception of his chosen field of study. You should detect in this preamble a very heavy whiff of postcolonialism.

After that preamble, I discuss briefly some of the arguments for and against universalism in the humanities and social sciences in general. Then I lay out some of the more recent arguments in favour of universalism, especially in computational linguistics and their application to translation studies. The final section of the paper will be a discussion of how and why we might or might not want to continue looking for universals in translation studies, and how historical specificity might engage with it, taking into account various factors, including: the (non) translation of translation theory East-West; the importance of examples and case studies in translation theory; the importance of religion as a grounding for Universalism; and a modified view of what 'universal' means in the field today.

Anecdote

In 1999 I was hired by the department of Chinese Studies at the National University of Singapore to teach all levels of translation. Since primary and secondary education in Singapore is now in English, with ethnic Chinese students taking Mandarin Chinese as their required 'Mother Tongue' subject, there is a large bilingual English-Chinese population there. Students in the Chinese department thus generally having

fairly good skills in both languages, and Singaporean undergraduates are eminently suited for a translation programme.

For the advanced module, I assigned three essays from Venuti's *Translation Studies Reader* (2000) that I considered to be, if not easy, at least clearly written and engaged with specific strategies of translation: Jean-Paul Vinay and Jean Darbelnet, "A Methodology for Translation" (1958/2000), Katharina Reiss "Type, Kind and Individuality of Text: Decision making in translation" (1971/2000) and Hans Vermeer "Skopos and Commission in Translational Action" (1989/2000).

To my surprise, the students claimed that the essays were extremely difficult, if not incomprehensible, and my plans for in-class discussion went nowhere. When I pressed them as to what exactly they had trouble following, it turned out that the main problem was the examples that the authors used to illustrate their points.

All three essays had been translated: Vinay and Darbelnet from French, the articles by Reiss and by Vermeer from German. More importantly, all three essays contained concrete examples, which I had thought would make the theoretical model easier to understand. However, the translators of all three articles had left these examples in their original form, ie, a combination of French, German, Spanish, and English. Reiss's article was possibly the most difficult, because most of her examples were of translation between French and German, or German by itself, with no translation into English. Perhaps because I have a reading knowledge of these languages, I had not noticed the oddity of presenting an essay in English where the examples, which were supposed to illustrate the theoretical premises, were all between two foreign languages. The article by Vinay and Darbelnet was slightly better, because all the examples were English-French, so the students could at least understand one half of each example, and the article by Vermeer did not contain as many examples.
Subsequently, we worked through each section of the essays, coming up with English-Chinese examples to supplement the texts, which then resulted in the students understanding them much better, but also led to the result (surprising to me at the time) that not all of the points that the theorists had to make were relevant to Chinese-English translation. Yet all of these models were couched in the language of universal applicability.

Vinet and Darbelnet are typical in this respect, beginning their article by stating: "At first the different methods or procedures seem to be countless, but they can be condensed to just seven, each one corresponding to a higher degree of complexity." (1958/2000: 84) The remainder of the article consists of discussing each of the seven types, with examples of how these seven techniques can solve (presumably) any and all difficulties a translator might encounter. There is no indication that there might be exceptions, either in the sense of a text posing a problem that one or more of these

seven techniques cannot solve, or in the sense of there being alternative techniques which might produce different but equally valid translations. They end their paper with a table that sets out the seven techniques by 'level of difficulty", but which also enumerates how on "the three planes of expression" (ie lexis, structures, and message) these techniques are valid (1958/2000: 92). Here again the use of the definite article 'the" suggests that there are only these three planes, thereby strengthening the universalist claims of their seven techniques to solve all possible problems.

Reiss, in turn, says that text-type is a phenomenon going beyond a single linguistic or cultural context, because the following essentially different forms of written communication may be regarded as being present in *every* speech community with a culture based on the written word and also because *every* author of a text ought to decide in principle on one of the three forms before beginning to formulate his text. (1971/2000: 163, my italics)

Clearly the repetition of 'every' suggests that Reiss believes she is describing a universal phenomenon, and she goes on to list exactly three of them. Vermeer, similarly, opens his article with sentences that contain phrases such as "*any* form of translational action", "*[a]ny* action has an aim", and "[t]he aim of *any* translational action". (1989/2000: 221, my italics), all of which demonstrate his belief that skopos theory is valid for all translational activity. Furthermore, the article contains an explicit defense of its universal applicability. Having been criticized (Vermeer does not specify who the critics were), he mounts a two-pronged defense, insisting both that all actions have an aim (1989/2000: 224-5) and that all translations, even of literature, have an intention (1989/2000: 226-7). All three articles make these strong universal claims with the help of examples from just four modern European languages.
It was the difficulty I experienced teaching this material in Singapore that first aroused my interest in the relation between the particular and the universal in translation theory. Currently in Manchester, I have noticed again that the non-native speakers of English from non Western-European countries often have similar problems in a module I teach, Translation and Interpreting Studies II. As a result, I now teach a module entitled "Practicum: Translating Theory" in which we address this specific problem.

I will return to look at some passages from these texts in more detail later in this paper; in particular, I have a few suggestions as to what might be done about those translations. First, however, I need to make a detour to discuss universalism as a general phenomenon in the human sciences.

The urge to universalism

Almost all theoretical models aspire to universalism, because all theoretical models are an attempt to generalize from the specific. The more widely applicable a theory is, the more powerful it is. There are many possible examples, but to choose just one, we might examine post-colonial theory. Post-colonialism began as a movement among intellectuals living in, originally from, or studying the history of the Indian Subcontinent; an earlier term used to describe it was subaltern studies. That name derives from their attempt to theorize the development of Indian history under colonial rule, when the Indians were subalterns to the British, using Gramsci's theoretical framework as a basis of their critique (see Guha 1982a, 1982b, and Guha 1983). The term 'subaltern studies', which was fairly specific to that historical time and place, was gradually replaced by the more general term post-colonial studies. At the same time, the scope of 'post' in post-colonial was expanded (or generalized) in three ways. First, from what was originally conceived rather narrowly as countries which *had been* colonized by European powers but were now independent, the term came to refer to the entire history of colonial and post-colonial rule in such countries; in this sense 'post' meant 'after the beginning of colonialism' not 'after the end of colonialism'. (Robinson 1997: 13) Second, from the originally specific European colonialism, post-colonialism was also used to refer to, and theorize about, the colonial relation in any time period and by any country, not just European. (ibid: 13-14) Third, the term was metaphorized so that it could refer to situations where, although there was not strictly speaking a colonial situation (one country controlling another, including sending significant numbers of people to live for a period of time, if not permanently) to many types of unequal power relations (ibid: 14). So for example we can now talk about one culture having a post-colonial relation with another; we can also use the term post-colonial to refer to situations such as Russia's relation to the Eastern Block during the Cold War. Paulina Gasior's paper at a recent conference in Prague (2009), which proposes that the relationship between Eastern and Western Europe today can be characterized as post-colonial, and that therefore a post-colonial framework can be used to examine translations between Polish and English or French, illustrates how post-colonialism can be used in such a metaphorical sense. At present, then, post-colonial has developed from what was originally a very narrow historical and temporal period (trying to understand modern India in terms of the after-effects of British colonial rule) to a set of theoretical assumptions and methodological tools that aspires to be universally applicable to an extremely wide array of historical phenomena.

In effect, everyone theorist dreams of coming up with something like Newton's laws of gravity, which are seen as being universally applicable to all physical objects in the universe. Certainly we can say that, in its weaker form (ie, generalization) universalism is a necessary tendency in human thought. It is unimaginable that we

could make sense of the world if we could not group things together and say that, for all intents and purposes, these things are identical in respect to certain properties, and therefore can be treated as identical. The problem occurs when that urge to universalize erases important differences, or when a theoretical model can not in fact adequately describe dissimilar phenomena as similar.

The attack on universalism

As my reference to Newton indicates, the 'gold standard' for universalism has been the sciences since at least the nineteenth century, if not earlier. The apogee of this valuation of science as providing universal knowledge came perhaps in the first half of the twentieth century with the emergence of logical positivism, or logical empiricism, which tried to exclude all non-scientific knowledge from having any truth value (Uebel 2008). This did not, however, prevent theorists in the humanities from pursuing universal theories; rather, the link between science and truth in logical positivism inspired a decidedly scientific turn in certain fields of the humanities, including linguistics and therefore the emergent field of translation studies, and perhaps an even more ambitious desire to map out universals in those fields. Quine's work on the philosophy of language, and its influence in translation studies, is but one example.[1]
However, even as universalism in both the sciences and the humanities tried to make ever more ambitious claims, it came under attack in the twentieth century from a variety of angles.

In the sciences, twentieth-century advances in both physics and mathematics were interpreted, paradoxically, as undermining truth claims. In physics, Einstein's theory of relativity proved that Copernicus's laws of motion were only special cases under 'ordinary' conditions, and that in other situations they did not necessarily hold. The theory of relativity itself claims to be universally valid; however, it was and continues to be interpreted popularly as proving that everything is relative and that therefore there is no absolute truth. In addition, Heisenberg's uncertainty principle, which states that it is impossible to know both the position and the momentum of a particle (Hilgevoord 2008), was similarly interpreted as meaning that scientific knowledge could not be absolute and therefore could not make universal claims. Yet Hilgevoord states at the beginning of his article on the uncertainty principle that "Quantum mechanics is generally regarded as the physical theory that is our best candidate for a fundamental and universal description of the physical world." (2008)

[1] Quine 1960; see Uebel 2008 for the way in which Quine was influenced by, but critical of, the Vienna Circle and some of their tenets of logical positivism.

Thus quantum mechanics itself (for which Heisenberg's uncertainty principle is one of the foundational elements) makes strong claims to universal truth.

Turning to mathematics, it was mainly the work of Gödel and Tarski in the 1920s and 1930s that raised problems. Gödel's two incompleteness theorems and Tarski's theorem of the indefinability of truth (which builds partly on Gödel's work; see Gómez-Torrente 2008) led to a radical, if limited, undermining of the definability of truth in arithmetic (Kennedy 2008). The ways in which Gödel and Tarski's work limits truth functions and universal claims in mathematics is limited to axiomatic systems (Shalizi 2009). However, as Shalizi also points out, it has been used fallaciously to argue that there is "some profound limitation on knowledge, science, mathematics" imposed by the theorems (Shalizi 2009). Sokal and Bricmont (1999: 176-81) provide an example of such a use of Gödel's theorems in the social sciences.

Although scholars in the humanities may or may not understand quantum physics and theoretical mathematics, these theories, and the layman's interpretation of them, have been used to caution against scientific 'truth' as absolute or universal. This view of scientific truth as 'relative' has been reinforced by the work of historians, sociologists and anthropologists of science.

In the history of science, Philip Kuhn, in *The Structure of Scientific Revolutions* (1962), proposed the notion of paradigm shift. According to Kuhn, scientists shift from one paradigm to another, with different paradigms capable of explaining phenomena in different ways in varying degrees of usefulness.[2] There is thus a strong suggestion that all paradigms are approximations of reality as we observe it, not Truth with a capital 'T'. More recently, the work of Helen Longino (1990), Bruno Latour and Steven Woolgar (1986), and others have insisted upon the inescapable social element to scientific knowledge, challenging its claims to absolute, universal truth (for an overview see Longino 2008).

These developments in history and sociology of science were linked to a more general post-structural trend in the social sciences. In particular, a distrust of 'master narratives' emerged. In history, for example, Hayden White (1973) attacked the idea that the historian was an objective collector of facts that were already out there as a myth. Instead, he saw all history as story-telling, often based on archetypal stories or

[2] For example, although scientists may believe that Einstein's model of the universe is more accurate than Copernicus's, the vast majority of people, including physicists, live out their daily lives as if in a Copernican universe; moreover, a modern-day physicist sailing in a boat at night out of sight of land, using stars to navigate, is basing her decisions of how to steer on a Ptolemaic universe, wherein the stars are fixed points in the heavens and can thus be used to guide a traveler. Thanks to Douglas Allchin, personal communication, for this example.

myths. The subjectivity of the historian thus precluded any hope of reaching a description of what 'really happened', or an objective Truth.

White's work is only one example of the 'post' movement: post-modernism, post-structuralism, post-colonialism, and deconstruction. Key to post-colonialism was the resistance to hegemony and received notions of truth. Post-structuralism sought to challenge the universal theoretical assumptions of structuralism. Post-modernism argued for the disappearance of "Truth" to be replaced by 'truths'; and Derrida and others sought to dismantle the entire Western philosophical tradition, upon which claims for scientific and universal truths had been built. Finally, more recently, the New Historicism and Cultural Materialism have again insisted upon the historical situatedness of knowledge.

The essay by J. Hillis Miller, "Border Crossings, Translating Theory: Ruth" (1996) is a good example of these trends, demonstrating both the power and the problems of post-structuralist arguments, like the worm Ouroboros. Miller argues that all literary theory is grounded in the interpretation of particular texts, and that therefore literary theory is untranslatable. Miller gives the examples of Derrida's notion of dissemination as having been developed as a response to the poetry of Mallarmé, and Paul de Man's "Resistance to Theory" as being rooted in his reading of the word 'fall' in Keats's *The Fall of Hyperion* (1996: 213). For Miller, there is thus always a tension between the universal pretensions of theory and its origins in specific historical and cultural knowledge. This means that, like any linguistic utterance, a theoretical model is always liable to distortion in the process of transmission from one culture to the next; there is not some meta-language of theory, as there is of mathematics. Yet Miller's essay itself could be seen as falling prey to the same problem: he claims universal validity for his thesis that all theoretical models are inseparable from their roots. However, that thesis in turn emerges from the reading of a specific text: the story of Ruth in the Bible.

Miller's argument about the impossibility of translating theory is situated at the beginning of an article on traveling theory. While discussing the impossibility of translating theory, Miller also notes that, of course, theory continues to be translated all the time despite the problematic relation between universal and particular in theoretical discourse. This leads him to a discussion of the dangers of doing so, mainly in terms of cultural contamination or cultural colonialism. However, for Miller, there is another danger: that the theorist will lose control of his theory. I use the pronoun 'he' advisedly, because Miller is obviously talking about himself; he makes specific mention, more than once, of the fact that his own work has been translated into languages he does not read, like Chinese, and that he does not know what has happened to his theory in this process. There is, then, a contested power

relation involved between author and translator, with Miller exhibiting a deep unease at the idea that 'his' work is circulating in forms that he cannot control.

All in all, developments in mathematics, physics, history and sociology of science, and the 'post-' movement in the humanities led to universalism taking quite a beating in the second half of the twentieth century.

The emergence of a new universalism

Developing in parallel to some of the events mentioned above, there has been continued interest in universalism, in some cases coming from a new direction: quantitative methods.

The modern science of statistics and probability is a relatively young discipline, gradually evolving from several different areas between the seventeenth and early twentieth centuries. Stigler (1986) charts how at least three different impetuses (a flurry of interest in games of chance; the need to record exact measurements in the sciences, especially astronomy; the demands by emergent nation states to understand and control large populations through the collection and interpretation of census data) led to the development of sophisticated mathematical techniques for dealing with information in this new form.

Statistics depends on the ability to count large numbers of things, breaking down information into simple, discrete categories that can be quantified. A typical example, and one of the earliest broad uses of these methods as applied to human activity, is the census. In a census, people are not treated as individuals having a history; they are treated as a collection of discrete bits of information (sex, race, age, profession, marital status, number of dependents, etc). Breaking someone down into these categories and quantifying them allows for easy manipulation of information and the generation of statistical knowledge (X% of the population is male; P% are under the age of 20; Q% are married; the average number of offspring is W). Such information could be enormously useful for many reasons. In London, the beginnings of the census were the Bills of Mortality, statistics regarding deaths that were collected to predict new outbreaks of the plague. It quickly came to be used in a variety of hard sciences, and was responsible for the emergence of most of the social sciences, which developed various tools, including mean and standard deviation, the rule of least squares, and regression analysis to help evaluate probability and reliability of data, to name but a few of the most common techniques (Stigler 1986).

However, it was expensive and time-consuming to collect and then to process such data. Stigler (1986) mentions two early cases in the nineteenth century which give us an idea of the labour involved: the Incomplete Beta Function of Baye's equation can

be extremely difficult to calculate when certain variables are large numbers; he says that

> The first extensive tables of this function were not compiled until this century, when the students in Karl Pearson's laboratory were pressed into reluctant service as 'computers.' A story, possibly apocryphal, still circulates in University College London of a student who resigned in disgust after a week, telling Pearson of his plans for a different career and announcing, 'As far as I am concerned, the Table of the Incomplete Beta Function may *stay* incomplete.' (Stigler 1986: 130)

The second involves the Ordnance Survey of England for 1858: The 1858 Ordnance Survey of the British Isles required the reduction of an immense mass of data through the use of least squares. The main triangulation was cast as a system of 1554 equations involving 920 unknowns. Even though they broke the system into 21 pieces of no more than 77 unknowns each before attempting a solution, the calculations took two teams of human 'computers,' working independently and in duplicate, two and a half years to complete (Stigler 1986: 158)

Therefore it was not until the advent of computers that such techniques really came into their own, as the labour was prohibitively expensive for most researchers. Computers are ideally suited to do the 'grunt' work of statistical analysis, since of course computers are digital technology and therefore are most easily used to manipulate figures, performing in nanoseconds complex operations on huge amounts of data that might take a human being weeks.

Along with the growing importance of computing to manipulate ever-larger datasets, sophisticated means of sampling to establish representativeness were established.

Since the 1970s in linguistics, corpus studies deal with databases that contain millions of words. These corpora are then manipulated, drawing on the statistical techniques developed in the social sciences and mathematics to draw conclusions about language use. In the mid-1990s, researchers such as Mona Baker, Dorothy Kenny, and Sarah Laviosa began to apply corpus linguistics to translation studies by compiling parallel and comparable corpora. They proposed that lexical simplification, explicitation, and standardization were universals in translation. (Baker 1995; Kenny 2001; Laviosa 1998)

On a more theoretical level in linguistics, the proposal by Noam Chomsky that the ability to use language was hard-wired into our brains, and that therefore there must be a limited set of universal, deep structures that generate all the permutations of

known languages, also fueled the search for universals in both linguistics and in translation (Chomsky 1965 and 1981). This can probably most clearly be seen in the continued belief that machine translation was perfectible if linguistic structures could be properly understood and transformed into what was variously called a universal deep structure or an intermediary machine language, to and from which all human languages could be translated.[3]

Universalism in Translation Studies today?

I would now like to explore a bit more in detail how universalism and historical particularism intersect, not just in general in the humanities and sciences, but specifically in translation studies.
First, I think one quite interesting phenomenon is the relative dearth of translation of translation theory. Given that translation studies should, of all disciplines, be open to translation, this is a rather paradoxical state of affairs. To take just one example, China, very little theoretical material is being translated either to or from Chinese and French, English, or German. From English into Chinese, two alternative strategies are employed: summaries and descriptions written by Chinese scholars, or the republication of theoretical texts in China in English. In the other direction, very little has been done on any level, the exceptions being the historical presentation of debates regarding translation in Cheung (2006) and Chan (2004). A similar situation holds for Russian; Russia had and has a large field of translation studies, but almost none of it is being made available in Western European languages.[4] I am sure that this is true of other languages; to this day, Jiří Levý's work is known in Western Europe basically from one paper only (Levý 2000).[5] This means that theoretical models in the field of translation studies are being developed with very little input from one of the world's major languages and cultures outside of Europe and North America.

This in turn poses a danger in translation studies. We risk our theoretical models not being well understood, or rigorously tested against, the local situation in different parts of the globe and with different linguistic structures. How, then, can we be confident about the universal applicability of those theories?

[3] For representative statements, see Andreev 1967; Zelinsky-Wibbelt 1988; and Hutchins and Somers 1992, especially chapters 5, 6 and 13.
[4] Private communication, Sergey Tyulenev.
[5] I would like to thank Zuzana Jettmarová (2009) for drawing my attention to some of Levý's other work. See Gile (2009) on this issue in relation to Japanese.

The role of examples and case studies in translation theory

This last point brings me back to the role of examples and case studies in translation theory. I want to return now to the English translation of Katharina Reiss's article, which I mentioned was the impetus for me to start thinking about these matters. Below are two excerpts from her work:

Unintentional changes may arise from the different language structures as well as from differences in translating competence

> Ex. 1: Je suis allée à la gare (French: information about a female person; no information about the means of travel)
> Ich bin zum Bahnhof gegangen (German: no information about the person; information about the means of travel)
> = Linguistically conditioned communicative difference.
>
> Ex. 2: La France est veuve. (Pompidou at the death of de Gaulle)
> Frankreich ist Witwe — Frankreich is Witwe geworden — Frankreich is verwitwet — Frankreich is verwaist [orphaned]
> Linguistically conditioned: La France — Witwe [Widow]
> "Frankreich" is neuter in German. The image of "widow" is odd to a person ignorant of French. "Waise" [orphan] is also neuter; the image of an emotional attachment programmed differently.
>
> (pp. 160-61)

and further down:

> Written texts may have single or plural intentions. Plural intentions may be of the same rank and order. Mostly, however, one intention (and, with it, the text function) is dominant:
>
> Ex. 3: C vor o und u und a spricht man immer wie ein k; soll es wie ein c erklingen, lässt man die Cedille springen.
> (mnemo-technical rhyme:
> Intention 1 — to convey a rule
> Intention 2 — to facilitate remembering by giving the text an artistic form
> Intention 3 — to "sweeten" the learning process by giving the text a pleasing form)
>
> (p. 161-62)

Here in the first example the source language is French and the target language is German, while in the second example, the example is only in German. In neither case did the translator provide an English translation.

The vast majority of students in East Asia know neither of these languages (although a small minority will have learned some of one or the other). Moreover, the point on which the first example turns, the problem of mismatched gender of nouns in the two languages, is completely foreign to such students, who may know three or four languages, none of which feature gendered nouns, and will therefore be completely at sea. Such students, if they know English, might know mnemo-technical rhymes, such as "i before e except after c", but of course cannot make any sense of the German. Instead of helping the students to understand the points Reiss is trying to make, the examples thus serve only to frustrate the student, making the theory seem alien, incomprehensible and irrelevant because the example is opaque to her or him.

Another, perhaps more ironic example, is the article by Vermeer concerning skopos theory. Skopos theory argues that the skopos, or purpose, of the translation is vital in determining the form that the finished translation should take. The skopos may derive from a variety of factors, including the commissioner, the translator, and the audience. Depending upon the skopos, different translations of even the same text into the same language by the same translator might look radically different from each other, and possibly also depart sharply from the source text. Yet the translation into English of Vermeer's explanation of this theoretical approach to translation is itself full of examples between German, French, and Spanish, with seemingly no thought given to how the skopos of translating an article about skopos in translation might affect the examples used. In other words, if the skopos of the translation is to make Vermeer's theoretical model understood by an English reader, how does leaving the examples in the original languages with no explanation help to fulfill the skopos of the translation?

What exactly are examples used for anyway in these articles? Reiss, Vermeer, and other theorists use concrete examples for at least three different purposes. First, to demonstrate how their theoretical models function in relation to translation of actual texts. Second, to make the theory more accessible to the readers. Finally, to prove that the theoretical model is in fact valid by demonstrating that it can be applied to a real translation. However, when a student either does not know the source or the target language, then these goals are not being met.

When teaching Reiss's article in Singapore, I eventually came up with my own examples for the first example above that made sense to an audience bilingual in Chinese and English:

She went to buy eggs with her brother.

她跟她的弟弟一起去买鸡蛋。

additional information concerning respective age of siblings
less information about time and number.

请您把书放在桌子。

Please put the books on the desk.

Additional information about number (plural) and object (desk is more specific than the Chinese term, which could also refer to a table)

Less information about formality of the situation (The Chinese pronoun is the polite form, similar to the way in which French has *vous* and *tu*)

For the second example, I substituted the English mnemo-technical rhyme "i before e except after c".[6]

When explaining this article to students in class and using these as additional examples, no one had a problem with it. However, when I later suggested to students that it would make more sense to *substitute* these examples for the original ones if the article were to be translated into Chinese, I encountered strong resistance. To the students, such substitution was a betrayal of the original.

Taking examples outside of Europe

Vinay and Darbelnet list seven techniques which translators can adopt, ranging from word-for-word translation to very extreme forms of adaptation. These seven techniques are illustrated with examples of translation between English and French for obvious reasons: Vinay and Darbelnet are Canadian, and these are the two official languages of that country. These techniques, which are developed in relation to two specific languages with a long history of interaction, are presented as *the* seven techniques of translation. In other words, they are presented as a complete and universal toolkit for any translator, working with any combination of languages.

However, of the seven techniques they list, at least one is not directly applicable to Chinese. Procedure one, "direct borrowing", is presented as being a 'direct' manner of using a word from French in English, as the historic theatre (from *théâtre*) or more recent borrowings such as *déjà vu*. This technique, however, actually does not make

[6] Reiss's second example is the *kind* of rule (phonetic) she would like to see for her own work - in other words, a rule that is simple, hierarchic, and logical.

much sense in the case of English-Chinese translation because they use different writing systems. Instead, we need to distinguish between at least two different techniques.

The first technique is **Borrowing** while retaining the use of roman alphabet, which results in a string of roman letters in the middle of a sentence otherwise composed of Chinese characters: 我不要买Persil, 我要买的是Daz [I don't want to buy Persil, I want to buy Daz.] Although this technique was seldom used before the twentieth century, since at least the Republican Revolution of 1911 there have been periods when it has been widely practiced, especially by certain authors of the May Fourth Movement in the 1920s and 1930s, and writers such as Yu Dafu (Levan 2007). The technique continues to be widely used, especially among bilingual speakers, although it is not in fact simply "direct borrowing", but rather the creative re-use of English or other European languages in Chinese. Consider, for example the sentence "你 un-不understand?" [do you or do you not understand?] Here a native speaker of Chinese has used a typical Chinese grammatical pattern of using the first part of a multisyllabic verb, followed by a marker of negation, and then full verb, to ask a question. In the process, however, the English word is used in a fashion that would be incomprehensible to an English speaker.

Transliteration, on the other hand, which Vinay and Darbelnet do not mention, is the more commonly employed method of 'borrowing' a foreign loan word in Chinese, and involves finding roughly one Chinese character per syllable for a foreign word. Since the characters are chosen for their sound instead of their meaning, this results in a string of nonsense words, a bit like the famous transliteration of Mother Goose Rhymes into French by Luis d'Antin van Rooten as *Mots d'Heures: Gousses, Rames* (1980). When transliterating foreign words into Chinese, there are certain considerations to be kept in mind, especially regarding the appropriateness of the characters, either in isolation or in combination. For example, certain characters are avoided; you would not normally use the character "死" [*si*, to die], although one notable exception was an early transliteration of AIDS was "爱死病" [*ai-si bing*, love-to-death disease]. Also, certain combinations sometimes may result in unfortunate connotations, so that a company may choose a string of syllables that does not actually sound very close to the original term rather than get something such as "口渴口辣" [*kouke koula,* (makes you) thirsty and your mouth burn] for Coca Cola, which is instead rendered as "可口可乐" [*kekou kele,* tasty and pleasing].[7] both of these techniques are also used in various hybrid forms, such as the commonly used T-血. (T-shirt), where the letter "T" is actually used as the first half of the word, with a transliteration of 'shirt' with the Chinese character "血" which is

[7] : For more detailed discussions of transliteration, see Ching 1966 and Li 2007.

pronounced 'xue'. The example of AIDS given above is similar, with the first two characters, *ai-si*, used for the sound of "AIDS", and the final character, *bing*, which means disease, supplied for its meaning. One of the most famous stories of the May Fourth movement, mentioned above is entitled "阿Q正传" [The Story of Ah Q], where Chinese character Ah (阿) and the Roman letter "Q" were used together in the title and throughout the story to refer to the main character, Ah Q.
There are in fact several other hybrid forms possible involving some of the other techniques Vinay and Darbelnet discuss. Two of the most common are borrowing and coining, and transliteration and coining. Thus once we begin to consider languages other than the ones originally used to develop Vinay and Darbelnet's list, it becomes apparent that their list is neither exhaustive nor universal. The fact that English and French use the same writing system disguises a problem which emerges when we consider Chinese, Russian, Greek, or any other language that does not use the Roman alphabet. It is only when we look at how their techniques might be applied in a wide variety of cases that we can test their work's claim to universalism.

Moreover, once we have considered the Chinese case, and seen how transliteration results in words that do not actually sound exactly like the original English, we might wish to return to the examples of French and English, and ponder over why in some cases the accent marks have been preserved (déjà vu) or erased (theatre). If the accent marks are erased, is it really direct borrowing? Or what are we to make of their example of 'direct borrowing' into French of *redingote*, from the English "riding coat", where the spelling has been modified? (1958/2000: 85) Even when the spelling is identical, the pronunciation is often changed; my favourite example is Goethe Street in Chicago, which is pronounced "go-eethy" by locals.

Another possibility Vinay and Darbelnet do not mention is summary. This may perhaps be due to their adopting a fairly restricted definition of translation; however, in the world of professional language manipulation, this technique is widely practiced. Again to give a Chinese example, I mentioned that it is not common for European translation theory to be translated into Chinese; however, it is quite common for such theories to be 'rewritten', either in summary or adapted form, such as Liu Miqing's 当代翻译理论 [Contemporary Translation Theory (1993)].

Eugene Nida, although in many ways a very 'old-fashioned' theoretician, is actually much better regarding examples than many of his contemporaries, or indeed most recent theorists. His short essay "Principles of Translation as Exemplified in Bible Translating" (1959) uses many diverse examples from little-known languages, to make his case for dynamic equivalence. Moreover, since he cannot assume that his readers will be conversant with all the languages he cites, he carefully explains the linguistic context for each. In teaching Nida, I ask students to come up with examples

of the types of things he is discussing in relation to their own language combination. This often reveals that they have not understood the reading, because they either cannot come up with an example, or their example is in fact incorrect. After I have given them several examples, the ideas seem to sink in better. So working through examples can be effective way of learning theory.

Conclusion

Although universalism has come under attack from various quarters, we should not lose sight of the fact that, without generalization, we are left with atomistic facts that do not add up to anything. Newton's law of gravity is still the 'gold standard' against which most theories are measured. The attack by the 'post' movements (postmodernism, postcolonialism, poststructuralism) has been fairly effective in denying hope that we can achieve that sort of certainty in the human sciences. Instead, the emergence of computer-based number crunching has seen the emergence of statistical probability disguised as universalism.

The challenge now is to build inclusive models that take into account the great range and variety of human linguistic expression and translation practice. Indeed, it would seem to be antithetical for a theoretical model based on statistics, which depends upon the concept of representativeness, *not* to be constructed on the basis of as wide a range of sample languages as possible.

References

Andreev, N. (1967) "The intermediary language as the focal point of machine translation" in Machine Translation, edited by A. D. Booth, Amsterdam: North-Holland Publishing Company, 1-27.

Baker, Mona (1995) 'Corpora in Translation Studies: An Overview and Some Suggestions for Future Research', Target 7(2): 223-243.

Chan, Leo (2004) Twentieth-Century Chinese Translation Theory: Modes, Issues and Debates, Amsterdam and Philadelphia: John Benjamins Publishing Company.

Cheung, Martha, editor and annotator (2006) An Anthology of Chinese Discourse on Translation. Volume 1: From Earliest Times to the Buddhist Project, Manchester: St. Jerome Press.

Ching, Eugene (1966) "Transliteration or Translation: A Case of Cultural Borrowing" Chinese Culture: A Quarterly Review 7:2 : 107-116.

Chomsky, Noam (1965) Aspects of the Theory of Syntax, Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.

Chomsky, Noam (1981) Lectures on Government and Binding, Dordrecht: Foris.

Gasior, Paulina (2009) 'Translating between Eastern and Western Europe – postcolonial contexts and parallels' Paper presented at the 11th Prague International Conference in Translation and Interpreting Studies: Translating Beyond East and West. Charles University, Prague 14-16 October.

Giles, Daniel (2009) "East and West: Leveraging Stereoscopic Vision in TS" Keynote speech, the 11th Prague International Conference in Translation and Interpreting Studies: Translating Beyond East and West. Charles University, Prague 14-16 October.

Guha, Ranajit (1983) Elementary Aspects of Peasant Insurgency in Colonial India. Delhi: Oxford University Press.

Guha, Ranajit (1982a) "Preface" Subaltern Studies 1: vii-viii.

Guha, Ranajit (1982b) "On Some Aspects of the Historiography of Colonial India" Subaltern Studies 1: 1-8.

Hilgevoord, Jan, Uffink, Jos, "The Uncertainty Principle", The Stanford Encyclopedia of Philosophy (Fall 2008 Edition), Edward N. Zalta (ed.), URL = <http://plato.stanford.edu/archives/fall2008/entries/qt-uncertainty/>. Accessed 3 Feb 2010.

Hutchins, John W. and Harold L. Somers (1992) An Introduction to Machine Translation, New York and London: Hartcourt Brace Jovanovich.

Jettmarová, Zuzana (2009) "The Antinomy of the General and the Specific in Mind, Theory and Translation" Paper presented at the 11th Prague International Conference in Translation and Interpreting Studies: Translating Beyond East and West. Charles University, Prague 14-16 October.

Kennedy, Juliette, "Kurt Gödel", The Stanford Encyclopedia of Philosophy (Winter 2008 Edition), Edward N. Zalta (ed.), URL =

<http://plato.stanford.edu/archives/win2008/entries/goedel/>. Accessed 3 Feb 2010.

Kenny, Dorothy (2001) Lexis and Creativity in Translation: A Corpus-based Study, Manchester: St. Jerome.

Kuhn, Thomas S. (1962) The Structure of Scientific Revolutions, Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Latour, Bruno and Steven Woolgar (1986) Laboratory Life: The Construction of Scientific Facts. 2d ed. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.

Laviosa, Sara (1998) "The English Comparable Corpus: A Resource and a Methodology", in Lynne Bowker, Michael Cronin, Dorothy Kenny & Jennifer Pearson (eds) Unity in Diversity: Current Trends in Translation Studies, Manchester: St. Jerome Publishing, 101-112.

Levan, Valerie M. (2007) "Incorporating the Foreign: Translation in Yu Dafu's Sinking" in Collected Essays from Translation: East Asian and the West, An International Conference for Junior Scholars, Taipei: Graduate Institute of Translation and Interpretation, National Taiwan Normal University, 203-220.

Levý, Jiří (2000) "Translation as a Decision Process" in The Translation Studies Reader, ed. Lawrence Venuti, 1st. ed. London: Routledge, 148-159.

Li, Chris Wen-Chao (2007) "Foreign Names into Native Tongues: How to transfer sound between languages—transliteration, phonological translation, nativization, and implications for translation theory" Target 19.1: 45-68.

Liu, Miqing 刘宓庆 (1993) 当代翻译理论[Contemporary Translation Theory], Taipei: Bookman Books.

Longino, Helen (1990) Science as Social Knowledge: Values and Objectivity in Scientific Inquiry. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.

Longino, Helen, "The Social Dimensions of Scientific Knowledge", The Stanford Encyclopedia of Philosophy (Fall 2008 Edition), Edward N. Zalta (ed.), URL = <http://plato.stanford.edu/archives/fall2008/entries/scientific-knowledge-social/>.

Miller, J. Hillis (1996) "Border Crossings, Translating Theory: Ruth" in Sanford Budick and Wolfgang Iser, eds, The Translatability of Cultures, Stanford U. Press, 1996, 207-223.

Nida, Eugene (1959) "Principles of Translation as Exemplified in Bible Translating" in On Translation, edited by Reuben Brower, Cambridge, MA: Harvard Universiyt Press, 11-31.

Reiss, Katharina (1971/2000) "Type, Kind and Individuality of Text: Decision making in translation", translated by Susan Kitron, , in The Translation Studies Reader, edited by Lawrence Venuti, London: Routledge, 160-71.

Robinson, Douglas (1997) Translation and Empire: Postcolonial Theories Explained, Manchester: St. Jerome Press.

Rooten, Luis d'Antin van (1980) Mots d'Heures: Gousses, Rames, London : Penguin.

Shalizi, Cosma Rohilla (2009) "Gödel's Theorem" in his Notebooks http://cscs.umich.edu/~crshalizi/notebooks/godels-theorem.html. Accessed 3 Feb 2010.

Sokal, Alan and Jean Bricmont (1999) Fashionable Nonsense: Postmodern I ntellectuals' Abuse of Science, New York: Picador.

Stigler, Stephen M (1986) The History of Statistics: The Measurement of Uncertainty before 1900, Cambridge, MA, and London: Belkap Press of Harvard University Press.

Stigler, Stephen M (2000) Statistics on the Table: The History of Statistical Concepts and Methods, Cambridge, MA, and London: Harvard University Press.

Uebel, Thomas, "Vienna Circle", The Stanford Encyclopedia of Philosophy (Fall 2008 Edition), Edward N. Zalta (ed.), URL = <http://plato.stanford.edu/archives/fall2008/entries/vienna-circle/>. Accessed 3 Feb 2010.

Vermeer, Hans (1989/2000) "Skopos and Commission in Translational Action", translated by Andrew Chesterman, , in The Translation Studies Reader, edited by Lawrence Venuti, London: Routledge, 221-32.

Vinay, Jean-Paul and Jean Darbelnet (1958/2000) "A Methodology for Translation", translated by Juan C. Sager and M.-J. Hamel, in The Translation Studies Reader, edited by Lawrence Venuti, London: Routledge, 84-93.

White, Hayden (1973) Metahistory: The Historical Imagination in Nineteenth-Century Europe. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University Press.

Zelinsky-Wibbelt, Cornelia (1988) "The transfer of quantifiers in a multilingual machine translation system" in From Syntax to Semantics: Insights from Machine Translation, edited by E. H. Steiner, P. Schmidt and C. Zelinsky-Wibbelt, London: Pinter Publishers, 187-215.

Semantic and cultural analysis of the terms for *ink* in the Slavic languages

Keti Miteva-Markovic

South East European University, Tetovo, Macedonia

Abstract: *Semantic and cultural analysis of the terms for 'ink' in the Slavic languages*

This text will analyze the semantic and cultural motivation of the terms for ***ink*** *in the Slavic languages and their dialects, followed by an etymological analysis of the corresponding terms in other European languages. The VIII Lexical volume of the General Slavic Linguistic Atlas (OLA) will be taken as a foundation; it contains the terms for* ***ink*** *in the Slavic dialects, i.e. approximately 850 settlements on the entire Slavic territory. Namely, various terms are used to refer to* ***ink*** *in the different linguistic areas of the Slavic territory***,** *such as мастило, чернила, tinta, atrament, inkoust etc. This text will analyze their geographic distribution while presenting the semantic motivation of appropriate terms through etymological analysis. Taking the geographic distribution of the various terms for* ***ink*** *into consideration***,** *the compatibility of areas is evident according to both the etymology of appropriate terms and the cultural influence that encompassed the appropriate semantic motivation.*

By analyzing various terms for ***ink****, my tendency is to illustrate that lexical diversity does not depend only on lexical heritage, but on other factors as well, such as civilization and culture.*

Key words: *language and culture, semantics, etymology, linguistic analysis*

Article History:
Submitted: 16.04.2014.
Accepted: 20.11.2014.

Doi Number:
10.14706/JFLTAL152111

Geographical distribution

In terms of geographical distribution of the terms for *ink* in the Slavic languages and their dialects, an impressive compatibility of the areals is noted. Thus, on the entire Russian territory, the term *чернила* occurs (with several phonetic variants). On the Belarus linguistic territory, *чернило* and *чернила* are used, along with *атраманm* in several points of the western Belarus territory. On the Ukrainian language territory, more precisely in its eastern and central part, *чернило* and *чернила* appear, whereas in the west, in addition to the abovementioned terms, uses *атрамент, антрамент,* leaving the southwest with *минта* dominating.

On the Polish territory, the term *atrament* dominates, while northern Poland uses *tinta, inkost* and *inkast.* On the Sorbian territory, *tinta* occurs. On the Czech territory, *inkoust* dominates, while Slovakia is divided: the west uses *atrament*, while the east uses *tinta*. The same form (*tinta*) appears on the entire territory of Slovenia. However, in several points, different forms, such as *ingjustri* and *črnilo* are used. On the territory of Bosnia and Croatia, *tinta* dominates. Nevertheless, *mastilo* is used in some points of Bosnia and *crnilo* is used in some points of Croatia. The form *mastilo* is dominant on the territory of Serbia, Montenegro and Macedonia. In several points of Macedonia, *мурeќе* and *мурyќyп* are used, whereas the southern dialects use *каламар* and *мелан.* To complete the picture, some of the terms for *мастило* will be illustrated in several European languages. Namely, English uses *ink,* German: *Tinte*, French: *encre*, Italian: *inchiostro*, Spanish and Portuguese: *tinta*, while Swedish, Danish and Norwegian: *black, blæk* and *blekk*. In Latin, the term for *ink* is *atramentum,* Greek: *μελάνη* and Turkish : *mürekkep.* It is important to state that in two of the neighboring languages of the Slavic territory, there are accepted forms, such as *cerneală* in Romanian and *bojë (shkrimi)* in Albanian.

Etymological analysis

Terms such as *чернило, чернила, črnilo* and *crnilo,* derive from Proto-Slavic and Balto-Slavic adjective*сьрнь, meaning 'black color' (Skok 1971:277), from which the term *црнило* is formed as a loan-translation from the Latin *atramentum.*

The term *мастило* is of a Proto-Slavic origin. Namely, it originates from a Proto-Slavic form *mast, with reference to 'color' and , along with *maslo* (oil), derives from Proto-Slavic verbal root *maz- 'mazati' (Skok 1971:383; ЭССЯ 1993: в.18).

With the exception of these two terms (*чернило* and *мастило*), all terms for ***ink*** on the Slavic territory are of a foreign origin. Thus, the following forms: *атраманm* and *atrament,* from the Belarus, Ukrainian, Polish and Slovakian territories, derive from

the Latin term *atramentum*. *Atramentum* in Latin refers to ‘ink, black pigment’ which itself derives from *ater* ('black, dark; dark-colored'), (OLD, 1982). Certain types of terms, such as *inkost, inkast, inkoust* and *ingjustri,* which dominate on the Polish territory*,* appear in the Czech and several points of the Slovenian territory; they originate from the Latin *encaustum*, meaning ‘purple or red ink', which was used by Roman emperors to sign official documents. This term is related to the ancient Greek ἔγκαυστος ('burned-in'), from ἐν 'in' + καίω ('to burn'). This term illustrates the common etymological thread with the terms ***ink*** in English*, encre* in French and *inchiostro* in Italian. Forms such as *tinta*, occurring in the Ukrainian, Slovakian, Polish, Sorbian, Slovenian, Bosnian and Croatian territories, result from infiltration by the German *Tinte* (*ink*) and Italian *tinta* ('dye, color, paint'). The etymology of this term leads to the Latin *tinctus* 'dyeing ' deriving from the verb *tingō*, *tingere*, meaning 'color, dye'. As stated above, on the Macedonian territory, *мурекe* and *муруќун* occur in several points, whereas in the southern Macedonian dialects, the form *мелан* is used, originating from the Greek term *μελάνι*, meaning ‘ink’. The following forms: *мурекe* and *муруќун* originate from the Turkish term for *'ink,'* – *mürekkep,* and symbolize a Balkan Turkish word with Arabic origin - *murakkab* ('compound, mixed’) (Skok 1971: 485). They can be encountered in Bosnia, Kosovo, Bulgaria and Albania as well.

Semantic motivation

Considering the etymological analysis of the various terms for 'мастило' (*ink*), the compatibility of the areals can be noticed through the cultural impacts, which include a semantic motivation. Thus, the abovementioned terms for 'мастило' (*ink*) can be mentioned under several semantic threads.

In all of the semantic threads, there is a semantic motivation ‘to dye, to color’, including ‘color’ and types of color.

1. 'to dye, to color '

The primary use of ‘ink’ was not related to writing, but to the possibility of ‘dyeing, coloring’ a material – hence the relation of ‘painting’ to a subsequent use of a certain liquid substances for writing.
This semantic thread encompasses the terms, such as *мастило* (from * mazati, to paint), and *tinta*. As stated above, the first term originates from the Proto-Slavic *mazati, meaning 'to paint, dye color,' and the latter from the Latin *tingō*, *tingere*, meaning 'color, dye'. The forms *мурекe* and *муруќун*, from ‘*murakkab,* ('compound, mixed') can be included in this category.

2. 'black color'

The use of black pigment, more precisely black color for writing, is one of the semantic motivations which, although through various terms, is encountered in a vast European territory. Thus, vastly used terms in the eastern Slavic territory and, partially on the rest of its territory, are *чернило, чернила, črnilo* and *crnilo* which, as mentioned above, originate from the Proto-Slavic and Balto-Slavic adjective *сьрнь (black). The identical semantic motivation is present in the following terms: *атраманm* and *atrament,* from the Latin term *atramentum*, deriving from *ater* ('black, dark-colored'). Similarly, the form мелан, originating from the Greek term *μελάνι,* has an identical semantic motivation, deriving from *μέλας* ('black').

As mentioned, the introduction of *чернила* and *чернило* as 'ink' in the Slavic languages has been motivated according to the Latin term *atramentum.* It is worth mentioning that this semantic thread dominates in the Nordic languages (Swedish, Danish and Norwegian), where forms, such as *black, blæk* and *blekk* occur.

1. 'red color, fire'

Along with black color as a basic color for ink, the languages covered terms that derived from ‘dark red, burning red’ which was used as ink, as well.

This semantic thread covers terms, such as *inkost, inkast, inkoust* and *ingjustri,* which occur in the Slavic territory, as well as terms in other languages: *ink* in English, *encre* in French and *inchiostro* in Italian.

All of these terms originate from the Latin *encaustum*, meaning 'purple or red ink', which was used by the Roman Emperors to sign official documents. Although this type of ink was used primarily for official documents, its meaning developed through history.

Conclusion

From this histogram of geographical distribution and the analysis of semantic motivation of the terms for ‘ink’, several conclusions can be derived in the Slavic languages and dialects. Regarding the geographical distribution, the compact areals of the Slavic territory demonstrate both the linguistic and cultural history of proper ethnicities. It can be concluded that in certain Slavic languages, regarding lexicology, the linguistic heritage derives from material culture and written tradition. Thus, the following terms: *чернило, чернила, crnilo* and *mastilo*, originating from the Proto-Slavic linguistic stratum, cover a vast territory. In the remaining areals, where the

terms *атраманm, atrament, inkost, inkast, inkoust, ingjustri* and *tinta* occur, it is concluded that cultural impact has had a primary role for the infiltration of these terms in proper languages.

The analysis of the semantic motivation of the terms for 'ink' illustrates the expansibility and the richness of the semantic nucleuses, developed through the history of civilizations. Similarly, this analysis demonstrates that lexical variety does not depend only on the linguistic heritage, but on other factors as well, such as civilization and culture. Thus, for instance, although on the Polish territory, there is a foreign term *атрамент*, whereas on the Russian, Belarus and Ukrainian – *чернила* is used, the semantic thread that connects them is identical – 'black color'. These analyses of lexicological and cultural spheres can lead to further interesting discoveries for the cultural and linguistic tradition of the Slavic ethnicities.

References

Общеславянский лингвистический атлас : Серия лексико-словообразовательная : Выпуск 8 : Профессии и общественная жизнь, Warszawa 2003.

Etimologijski rječnik hrvatskoga ili srpskoga jezika, P. Skok, Zagreb, 1971

Słownik etymologyczny języka polskiego, A. Bruckner, Warszawa, 1985

Български етимологичен речник, Българска Академия на науките, София, 1971

Lexicon Palaeoslovenico-Graeco-Latinum, Franz Von Miklosich, Wien, 1865

Этимологический словарь славянских языков, Випуск 18, РАН, Москва, 1993

A Dictionary of Selected Synonyms in the Principal Indo-European Languages,

Carl Darling Buck, University of Chicago, 1949, reprinted 1988

Słownik etymologyczny języka polskiego, Wiesław Boryś, Wydawnyctwo Literacke, Kraków, 2005

Oxford Latin Dictionary, 1982 (http://www.latin-dictionary.net)

A Latin Dictionary, Charlton T. Lewis, Ph.D. and. Charles Short, LL.D., Oxford. Clarendon Press. 1879. (http://www.perseus.tufts.edu/)

Designing a Translation and Interpretation Diploma Course

Luis Armando Villalobos Nájera
Universidad Autónoma de Aguascalientes, Mexico

Abstract: *The objective of this paper is to share the experiences regarding the design and implementation of a Translation and Interpretation Diploma Course (TIDC) in a public university located in central Mexico.The main point of designing and implementing the diploma course was to produce a new generation of translators and interpreters, since a number of BA in ELT graduates from local universities,as well as many other translators from the region, wish to grow professionally in both translation and interpretation areas.Moreover, the implementation of this diploma course was necessarybecause no institutions in this region offer a course of this kind. The TIDCwas designed taking into account the demand for professional translators and interpreters derived from the industrial and commercial growth in the state of Aguascalientes, Mexico.*

The curriculum for the TIDCconsists of 14 modulescentered on thetheoretical aspects of translation and thetranslation practice of financial, scientific, technical and legal texts. Spanish writing, terminology, and CAT tools training are also part of the curriculum.The students are also introduced to Consecutive and Simultaneous Interpretation using theappropriate interpretation equipment.Allacademic staffinvited to collaborate in this program hold an MA in Translation and Interpretation. They are also certified translators and currently teach translation and interpretation in various universities. Most of them belong to translators and interpreters associations.

Key words: *translation theory, translation training, interpretation, syllabus, design, implementation.*

Article History:
Submitted: 16.04.2014.
Accepted: 12.11.2014.

DOI Number:
10.14706/JFLTAL152112

Introduction

The idea of designing theTranslation and Interpretation Diploma Course (TIDC) emerged from the increasing demand for professional translators and interpreters derived from the industrial and commercial boom in the state of Aguascalientesthat started a few decades ago. Numerous national and international companies established in Aguascalientes, mostly related to the automotive industry, demand translation and interpretation services in order to succeed in today's global economy. In addition to the business and industry sectors, academic institutions also need professional translation and interpretation services in their diverse activities. Moreover, consecutive interpreting and simultaneous interpreting have become a necessity for the different congresses, seminars, and meetings that continuously take place in the state of Aguascalientes.

The Current Situation of Translation and Interpretation Studies in Mexico

Translation and interpretation studieshave evolved along with globalization in Mexico, the fifth-largest country in the Americas. However, this evolution does not seem sufficient to cover the demand for translation and interpretation services of a country with an estimated population of 118 million. According to a research conducted by the author, a total of nine Master'sdegree programs in Translation and Interpretation are offered in only six of Mexico's 32 states, while only10 institutionsin states including Mexico Cityoffer degrees in Translation and Interpretation.Finally, only seven institutionsconcentrated in Mexico City offer diploma courses in translation and/or interpretation. As a consequence,mainly due to the lack of availability in their place of residence, a number of students interested in Translation and Interpretation studies find it difficult to enroll in translation and/or interpretationcourses. The situation is quite similarin Aguascalientes, since no academic institutions offer programsor courses related to Translation studies.

The Translation and Interpretation Diploma Course Curriculum

In this paper, the term "curriculum" refers to the academic content taught in a specific course or program that also includes learning objectives, materials and assessment methods.It is important to mention that according to Nunan (1988), all elements contained in a given curriculummust be integrated in order to avoid conflicts when making decisions at different levels of such curriculum. In this particular case, the author attempted to interconnect the elements of the curriculum for the purpose of integrating and applyingthe students' technical, professional, and ethical skills acquired throughout the development of the diploma course.

On the other hand, Li(2006) claims that there is a "gap between translation training and the real world of professional translation" (p. 615). In other words, students who graduate from translation courses are not really prepared to face the challenges of professional translation as most translation-course contents do not provide students with enough translation practiceby employing authentic materials. Moreover, sometimes translation teachers do not have enough professional experience in certain specialized areas of translation. In light of the above, the author considered it necessary to adopt amore suitable approach in order to meet students' expectations. The main idea was to develop a curriculum that provided students with translation practice in the technical, scientific, financial and legal areas, as well as to includesome Terminology management and CAT tool training. Furthermore, Beeby (2004) and Mackenzie (2004) suggest that since new technologies have revolutionized translation, it is of great importance to provide the students with translation-memory tools and terminology software in order to develop the future professional translators' competencies. Moreover, the correct use of such tools is essential to guarantee quality in translation work, as asserted by Esmaieli (2009)and Savelová (n.d.).

In view of the above, the contents of the TIDCcurriculum include authentic translation tasks and simulated interpreting activities in an effort to integrate both the process-oriented approach suggested by Gile (1995) and the practice-oriented approach proposed byWilss(1996). This combination of approaches has been suggested by Li (2006), who argued thatteachers currently focusmainlyon a product- and/or practice-oriented approach because such approaches provide students with many different types of translation tasks aimed at preparing them to face the real world of professional translation.In addition to practice in translation skills, one of theTIDC's main objectives is to develop translation competencies in students, taking into account the premise expressed by Mackenzie (2004) *"Learning by doing, knowing-how rather than knowing"* (p. 33),which refers to using translation skills in real or simulated situations as an essential part of translation training.

Translation and Interpretation Diploma courses in Mexico

However, it was necessary to make a comparison among other translation and interpretation diploma courses offered in Mexicowith respect to their curricula structure and contents in favor of obtaining more ideas for designing a practical translation and interpretation diploma course. After having conducted an Internet search, the author gathered information from six translation diploma courses and two translation and interpretation diploma courses offered by various higher education institutions in the country (see Table 1). The main purpose was to find out the types of learning objectives established, the methodologies used, and the assessment

criteria employed. It was also important to know about tuition costs, thelength of the courses and thenumber of modules.

The results showed that the translation and interpretation diploma courses offered by private institutions were not affordable tomiddle-class students due to the high cost of tuition, whereassimilar diploma courses offered by public universities were more affordable. It was also found that the criteria followed in the admission requirements varied a lot, but it was evident that prospective students needed to have a good command of English andalso had to beproficient in their mother tongue.

Another objective of this research was to find out if CAT-tool subjects and terminology subjects formed partof the Diploma Courses' curricula (see Table 2). Contrary to what the author expected, only twoprivate universities included CAT-tool training in their courses. This is probably due to the fact that CAT-tool training implies the purchase of licenses and,equally importantly,the availability of translation teachers withCAT-tool knowledge. By contrast, seven institutions include at least one Terminology subject in their course programs. This indicates that such institutions are aware of the importance that Terminology management plays in the translation process. In this respect, Palou (2012) supports the idea that the management of terminological databases helps the translator to render translations with language quality, accuracy, and consistency.

The Translation and Interpretation Diploma Course Subjects

It is important to point out that the TIDC consists of introductory subjects aimed at providing students with the basic skills and knowledge of different areas of Translation and Interpretation. The TIDC also aims to broaden students' perspectives and encourage them to become skilled translators and interpreters through their own continuing professional development.

Another aspect of the TIDC that needs to be highlighted is that the teachers were asked to apply translation theory to translation practice and to help the students integrate and transfer the skills and knowledge theygained in one subject into the subsequent subject in order to improve their translation and interpretation competencies.

TIDC DeliveryMode

The author chose the Face-to-Face delivery method for the TIDC subjects with the purpose of creating a positive classroom environment as a way to foster cooperative learning. According to the author's own teaching experience, Face-to-Face

instruction promotes a more effective interaction between the teacher and the students, which makeslearning more effective. Another advantage of having the students physically together is that they can make use of Language Department facilities such as classrooms equipped with Internet access and LCD interactive screens, the Lecture Hall for Simultaneous Interpreting practices, and the Language Lab.
Considering that most of the prospective students are translators and English teachers and in order to facilitate their attendance at the TIDC, classes will take place on weekends: Friday afternoons from 4 to 8 pm and Saturdays from 8 am to 1 pm.

TIDC Evaluation

The instruments for evaluating the TIDC are currently in the design process. The evaluation instruments will consist of questionnaires and interviews for both teachers and students. The feedback obtained will serve for further improvement of the TIDC.

Academic Staff

Anumber of studieshave shown that there is a strong relationship between teacher quality andstudent achievement. For example, Buddin and Zamarro (2009),affirm that"Teacher quality is a key element of student academic success" (p. 1). Likewise, King (2003)states that "Teacher quality matters. In fact, it is the most important school-related factor influencing student achievement"(v).Taking into account the previous considerations, the author contactedqualified teachers in translation and interpretation studies and invited themto participate in the TIDC.Five of the teachers have the following profile:

- Currently working as certified translators and interpreters.
- Hold a Master´s degree in Translation and Interpretation
- Currently teaching translation and interpretation at higher academic institutions.

The rest of the academic staff consists of a PhD in Law teacher, an MA in Education teacher, an MA in Philosophy teacher, an MA in Translation and CAT tools teacher, and a BA in Hispanic Letters teacher.

The author considered that the quality of teaching offered in the TIDC was a more effective way of attracting prospective students since quality in teaching may improve the quality-of-learning outcome.

The Approval of the Translation and Interpretation Diploma Course

The proposal for the TIDCwas submitted, in accordance with the regulations of the Autonomous University of Aguascalientes, *to the University Executive Board and wasapproved on November 13, 2013.*

Implementation

Afteritsapproval, it was really important to develop a plan of action to promote the TIDC with the purpose of attracting prospective students. The staff from the Continuous Education Department at the university designed a flyer announcing the TIDCand a number of copies were distributed in the main commercial areas of the city. Additionally, the Communication Department also designed a poster announcing the TIDCand copies were posted throughout the Central Campus. In addition, the Communication Department also invited the author to participate in a university radio program to give general information about the TIDC.TheTIDCwas also promoted ata Language Department meeting attended by approximately 100 teachers in December 2013. The poster announcing the TIDCappearedon the Language Department'sFacebook page. Finally, the author sent e-mail messages to local certified translators.

> Before the end of the second semester of 2013, the Department of Continuous Education set the dates for the Registration period. A total of 20 students, mostly English teachers and translators, signed up for the TIDC.

The staff from the Continuous Education Department was in charge ofarranging travel expenses, accommodation, and transportation for the external teachers. The Language Department also organized the assignment of classrooms and labs for the TIDCclasses.

Finally, the TIDC was inaugurated by the Humanities and Social Sciences authorities. The ceremonywas held at the Lecture Hall of the Language Department on February 7, 2014.

Conclusion

The author is aware that theTIDC will not fully satisfy the increasing demand for translation and interpretation services in the state of Aguascalientessince it differs from a Bachelor's or Master's degree in Translation and Interpretation. However, it will probably mark the beginning of a new generation of translators and interpreters in this region.Furthermore, the authorities of the Autonomous University of Aguascalientes are considering using the TIDC as a starting point for a Master's Degreeprogram in Translation and Interpretation.

References

Beeby, A. (2004). Language learning for translators. Designing a syllabus. In Malmkjaer, K. Editor (2004).Translation in Undergraduate Degree Programs. (p. 41). Amsterdam/Philadelphia. John Benjamins Publishing Company.

DIPLOMADO EN TRADUCCIÓN INGLÉS-ESPAÑOL. ORGANIZACIÓN MEXICANA DE TRADUCTORES, A.C. Retrieved from

http://www.omt.org.mx/diplomado1.htm

Diplomado en Traducción de Textos Especializados (DTTE). Universidad Autónoma de México. Retrieved from

http://cele.unam.mx/index.php?categoria=3&subcategoria=22&contenido=79

Diplomados: Traducción. Metodología. Universidad Autónoma de Ciudad Juárez Chihuahua. Retrieved from

http://www.uacj.mx/sa/asc/CELE/Paginas/Diplomados.aspx

Diplomado en Traducción de Textos Especializados. Instituto Tecnológico Autónomo de México. Retrieved from

http://desarrolloejecutivo.itam.mx/extension/files%5CTemarios%5CPrograma%2000002794%5CP_2794_TEM_953.PDF

Diplomado en Traducción e Interpretación. Universidad Iberoamericana. Retrieved from

http://www.uia.mx/diplomados/default.html

Diplomado en Traducción. Universidad Juárez Autónoma de Tabasco. Retrieved from

http://www.ujat.mx/interioradentro.aspx?NODO=123&ID=3491

Diplomado Intérprete – Traductor. Berlitz Mexico. Retrieved from

http://www.berlitz.com.mx/cursos-idiomas/Diplomado-Int-rprete-Traductor/Caracter-sticas-del-programa/146/guiseid--2/

Doherty, S. (2013) The Value of Effective Training in Translation and Localization.*Galaxy Newsletter* Q3 2013.Retrieved from

https://www.gala-global.org/node/84770

Esmaieli, S. (2009).Necessity of tech integration into translation training programs.*Translation Directory.Com*. Retrieved from

http://www.translationdirectory.com/articles/article2043.php

King, J. (2003) Teacher Quality. Understanding the Effectiveness of Teacher Attributes. *Economic Policy Institute*. Retrieved from

http://www.epi.org/publication/books_teacher_quality_execsum_intro/

Li, D. (2006) "Translators as Well as Thinkers: Teaching of Journalistic Translation in Hong Kong" *Meta : journal des traducteurs / Meta: translators' Journal*, vol. 51, nº 3, 2006, p. 611-619.

Mackenzie, R. (2004). The competencies required by the translator´s roles as a professional. InMalmkjaer, K. (Ed.)Translation in Undergraduate Degree Programs. (p. 32-33). Amsterdam/Philadelphia. John Benjamins Publishing Company.

National Research Council.(2014) *Educating Teachers of Science, Mathematics, and Technology: New Practices for the New Millennium*. Washington, DC: The National Academies Press, 2000. (p. 44)

Nord, Ch. (1991). Text Analysis in Translation.Theory, Method, and Didactic Application of a Model for TranslationOriented Text Analysis. Translated from the German by Christiane Nord and Penelope Sparrow. Amsterdam/Atlanta GA, Rodopi, 250 p. ISBN : 9051833113.

Nunan, D. (1988) *Syllabus Design*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Palou, M. (2012) Managing Terminology for Translation Using Translation Environment Tools: Towards a Definition of Best Practices. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. University of Ottowa. Retrieved fromhttp://www.ruor.uottawa.ca/en/handle/10393/22837

Appendix A

Table 1. Translation and Interpretation Diploma Courses in Mexico

Name	Institution	Modules	Hours/ Credits	Tuition	Admission Requirements	Duration (months)
Diplomado enTraducción	Berlitz Mexico City	4	576	$58,500.00 MX (4,300.00 USD)	High School 80% English	12
Diplomado Traducción e Interpretación	Universidad Autónoma de Ciudad Juárez Chihuahua, Mexico	7	280	$11.550.00 MX (850.00 USD)	500 pts. TOEFL ITP	16
Diplomado en Traducción Inglés-español	Organización Mexicana de Traductores Jalisco, Mexico	10	160	30,000.00 MX (2,200.00 USD)	Entrance Examination	12
Diplomado en Traducción de Textos Especializados	Universidad Autónoma de México CELE Mexico City	11	544/68	-	BA or BS degree (4 semesters minimum) Advanced English Level	12
Diplomado Traducción Textos Especializados	Instituto Tecnológico Autónomo de México Mexico City	6	180	$56,750.00 MX (4,200.00 USD)	Good command of English and Spanish	10
Diplomado en Traducción e Interpretación	Universidad Autónoma de Aguascalientes, Mexico	14	300/30	$16,000.00 MX (1,185.00 USD)	79 pts. TOEFL iBT or 550 pts. TOEFL ITP	10
Diplomado en Traducción Inglés-español	Universidad Intercontinental Mexico City	8	60	$27,680.00 MX (2,050.00 USD)	-	8
Diplomado en Traducción	Universidad Juárez Autónoma de Tabasco, Mexico	2	120	$6,000.00 MX (440.00 USD)	Intermediate English Level	5
Diplomado Traducción (Inglés-Español)	Universidad Iberoamericana Mexico City	10	300	$51,100.00 MX (3,785.00 USD)	Advanced English Level/Advanced Reading and Writing Skills in Spanish	5

Note. Data contained in this table was collected in 2014 and may change due to updates.

Table 2. Characteristics of Translation and Interpretation Diploma Courses in Mexico

Name	Institution	Modules/Subjects	Theoretical Subjects	Practical Subjects	Terminology Subjects	CAT Tools Subjects	Totalof Subjects
Diplomado Intérprete-Traductor	Berlitz Mexico City	4	5	11	-	-	16
Diplomado Traducción e Interpretación	Universidad Autónoma de Ciudad Juárez Chihuahua, Mexico	7	3	4	-	-	7
Diplomado en Traducción Inglés-español	Organización Mexicana de Traductores Jalisco, Mexico	10	-	-	1	-	-
Diplomado en Traducción de Textos Especializados	Universidad Autónoma de México CELE Mexico City	11	9	2	1	-	11
Diplomado Traducción Textos Especializados	Instituto Tecnológico Autónomo de México Mexico City	6	3	3	3	-	6
Diplomado en Traducción e Interpretación	Universidad Autónoma de Aguascalientes Aguascalientes, Mexico	14	5	9	1	1	14
Diplomado en Traducción Inglés-Español	Universidad Intercontinental Campus Sur Mexico City	8	3	5	1	1	8
Diplomado en Traducción	Universidad Juárez Autónoma de Tabasco Tabasco, Mexico	2	-	-	2	-	2 (T/P)
Diplomado Traducción (Inglés-Español)	Universidad Iberoamericana Mexico City	10	2	8	1	1	10

Note. Although recently created, the Translation and Interpretation Diploma Course of the Autonomous University of Aguascalientes is included in this table for comparison purposes.

Table 3. Translation and Interpretation Diploma Course Schedule 2014

	Professors	**Hours**	**Credits**	**Teaching Dates**
1. INTRODUCTION TO CONTEMPORARY TRANSLATION THEORIES	M. en T. I. Michelle Cecilia Arriola de la Mora	20	2	February 7, 8, 14 y 15
2. INTRODUCCIÓN TO TRANSLATION TECHNIQUES	M. en C. E. Karla Valdez	20	2	February 21, 22 y 28 de ; March 1
3. INTRODUCCIÓN TO CONSECUTIVE INTERPRETATION	M. en T. I. Michelle Cecilia Arriola de la Mora	30	3	March 7, 8, 14, 15, 21 and 22
4. INTRODUCTION TO ENGLISH-SPANISH CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS	M. en T. I. Annie Smyrna Hernández Zárate	20	2	March 28 and ; April 4 and 5
5. SPANISH WRITING WORKSHOP	L. en L.H. José Alberto García Ventura	20	2	April 11 and ;May 9 and 16
6. INTRODUCTION TO TERMINOLOGY	M. en T. I. Annie Smyrna Hernández Zárate	20	2	May 17, 24, 30 and 31
7. INTRODUCTION TO CAT TOOLS	M. en C. E. Laurent Slowack R.	20	2	June 6, 7, 13 and 14
8. INTRODUCTION TO TECHNICAL TRANSLATION	M. en C. E. Laurent Slowack R.	20	2	June 20, 21, 27 and 28
9. INTRODUCTION TO FINANCIAL AND ECONOMIC TRANSLATION	M. en T. I.Beatriz Elena MezaCuervo	20	2	July 4, 5, 25 and 26
10. INTRODUCTION TO LEGAL TRANSLATION	M. en T. I. Karen Bibiana Camarena Gutiérrez	20	2	August 1, 2, 8 and 9
11. INTRODUCTION TO SIMULTANEOUS INTERPRETATION	M. en T. I. Michelle Cecilia Arriola de la Mora	30	3	August 16, 22, 23, 29 and 30; September 5
12. INTRODUCTIOON TO SCIENTIFIC TRANSLATION	M. en T. I. Katina Fernández Cedi	20	2	September 6, 12, 13 and 19
13. INTRODUCTION TO TRANSLATION AND INTERPRETATION COPYRIGHT	Dr. en D. Miguel A. Marmolejo Cervantes	20	2	September 20, 26, 27; October 3
14. PROFESSIONAL ETHICS	Mtra. Ma. Teresa De Lira Bautista	20	2	October 4, 10, 11 and 17

Note. Some teaching dates are not consecutive due to holidaydates and holiday periods.

The art of mitigating disagreement: How EFL learners do it

Marija Kusevska
University "Goce Delcev," Štip, Macedonia

Abstract: *The principal motivation of this study is to investigate how Macedonian learners of English mitigate their disagreement. It is a follow-up of a much broader study in the field of cross-cultural pragmatics focusing on disagreement in Macedonian and American English (Kusevska, 2012). Our cross-cultural analysis reveals that Macedonian and American native speakers show preference for different types of disagreement, the major difference being the frequency of mitigation as well as the linguistic means used for its realisation.*

For the purpose of this study, we have accepted the definition that mitigation is the linguistic communicative strategy of softening an utterance, reducing the impact of an utterance, or limiting the face loss associated with a message (Fraser, 1980; Caffi, 1999, 2007; Martinovski, 2006; Clemen, 2010; Czerwionka, 2012). As mitigation in disagreement is closely connected with politeness, we have also relied on the model of politeness and the strategies for FTA realisation proposed by Brown & Levinson (1978/1987). We have looked at lexical and syntactic devices such as modal auxiliaries (e.g., can/could; may/might), hedges (kind of, sort of), discourse markers (well, but, look), verbs expressing uncertainty (I think, I don't think), verbs expressing vagueness (seem, assume, guess), conditionals etc., that learners use to mitigate their utterances.

Keywords*: speech acts, disagreement, politeness, mitigation, EFL learners*

Article History:
Submitted: 02.04.2014.
Accepted: 09.11.2014.

DOI Number:
10.14706/JFLTAL152113

Introduction

Our interest for disagreement was spurred by numerous cases when there was breach of communication between Macedonian and English speakers due to inappropriate launch of opposite opinions. The analysis of how Macedonian learners of English mitigate their disagreement was performed on 195 speech acts of disagreement obtained through a Discourse Completion Task (DCT). The respondents were learners of English at upper-intermediate and advanced levels. Relying on the results of our previous research on disagreement in Macedonian and American English (Kusevska, 2012), we set forth the following hypotheses:
1. Macedonian learners of English do not mitigate their disagreement as frequently as native speakers of English do;
2. They use different linguistic means to mitigate their disagreement;
3. The linguistic means are differently distributed in the speech act;
4. The motivation for mitigating their disagreement and the linguisitic means that

Macedonian learners use are at least partly influenced by their native language and culture.

Following Brown and Levinson's theory (1987), we first distinguished direct (on record) and indirect (off record) speech acts. Depending on the kind of linguistic means used in the expressions, direct speech acts were classified as direct disagreement with redressive action (softened disagreement), and direct disagreement without redressive action. However, not all speech acts fell in these two categories. Therefore, some were further classified as strong disagreement. Kakava (2002) also introduces the category of strong disagreement, proposing a continuum of different types of disagreements ranging from strong to mitigated.

Analysis of disagreement in English and Macedonian

Our previous study of disagreement in English and Macedonian was a cross-cultural study on how disagreement is expressed in the two languages. It showed that American and Macedonian native speakers view disagreement differently and show preference for different types of disagreement. The results in Table 1 demonstrate that Macedonian speakers show preference for strong disagreement, while American speakers show preference for softened disagreement.

Table 1. Types of disagreement in English and Macedonian

English		Macedonian	
Softened disagreement	Strong disagreement	Softened disagreement	Strong disagreement
264	151	105	240
48%	27.4%	20.5%	46.9%

Softened disagreement

English has developed a wide number of linguistic means available to speakers for softening their utterances. These include a number of pragmatic markers for mitigation used within the utterance (*just, sort of, kind of, I think, I don't know,* etc.), linguistic means for minimisation (*a little, a bit*, etc.), epistemic verbs expressing hesitation and uncertainty (*seem, guess, suppose, assume*), discourse markers (*well, but,* etc.), and modal verbs (*would, can, could, may, might*).
Macedonian speakers also use mitigating devices, but to a much lesser extent than American speakers. To mitigate their utterances, Macedonian speakers use expressions containing the verb *каже (tell)*, adversative imperative forms *види, гледај, чекај (see, look, wait)*, discourse markers *па, добро, да* (*well, okay, yeah*), modal verb forms, especially *може (can)*, the adverb *можеби* and its spoken variant *може (maybe)*, the modal particle *би (would),* pragmatic markers for mitigation used within the utterance like *мислам (I think), не знам (I don't know), само (just), малку (a little), малце (a little, diminutive),* the indefinite tenses, the marker for solidarity *бе*, etc. *Бе* is a marker used in oral communication and is used to introduce familiarity and solidarity. Tannen (1992) mention a similar marker in Greek (*re*), concluding that "*re* is a pervasive formulaic marker of friendly disagreement" (p.29). Table 2 below shows the occurrences of mitigation devices in English and Macedonian.

Table 2. Mitigation devices in English and Macedonian

	Hedges	**Verbs of hesitation and ...**	**Modal forms**	**well па**	**I think мислам**	**I don't know не знам**	**Name**	**бе**	**Total**
English	233	46	403	63	124	25	0	0	894
Macedonian	65	7	91	106	56	14	81	30	484

Both Macedonian and English speakers sometimes preface their disagreement with partial agreement with the previous utterance, and its frequency of occurrence is similar in the two languages: 10.7% in English vs. 7.8% in Macedonian. However, American speakers make more effort to mitigate their utterances. Also, they often push their disagreement further down in conversation, most often by asking questions, making assumptions, associations, analogies, etc.
In Macedonian, disagreement is never pushed down in conversation. It is announced in the first turn immediately after the turn that the speaker doesn't agree with. Generally, softened disagreement in Macedonian is less mitigated than in English. This happens because of the use of strong modal verbs like *мора (must)* and *не може (can't)*; multiple use of adversative discourse markers to build the frame of the speech act, sometimes as many as four or five in a sequence; the use of adversative imperative forms; intonation; etc.

Explicit / strong disagreement

Disagreement in Macedonian is preferably expressed explicitly and is followed by an explanation. This type of disagreement is shaped with a number of adversative markers and imperative forms, which intensify it. In addition, adversative markers, sometimes used in sequences of three, four or even five, enable the speakers to create direct, brief and simple turns that sound sharp, authoritative and confrontational. Such disagreement may spread over several turns in which speakers do not seem willing to put much effort in facework.

Linguistic means for mitigation found in Macedonian speakers' speech acts of disagreement

Macedonian learners of English rarely used mitigating devices. There were no occurrences of most of the hedges (*just, sort of, kind of*), no occurances of the linguistic means for minimisation (*a little, a bit*, etc.), except for one occurance of *a little*, and no occurences of epistemic verbs of hesitation and uncertainty (*seem, guess, suppose, assume*), except for one occurence of *seem* (*don't seem important*). More prominently represented were the pragmatic marker *I think* and modal verbs.

I think

In the DCT speech acts produced by Macedonian learners of English, we found 63 occurrences of *I think* and five occurrences of *I don't think*. While many authors list *I think* as a hedge in expressing politeness (Holmes, 1990; Aijmer, 1997; Kärkkäinen, 2003; Baumgarten & House, 2010), it can also convey the meaning of confidence

and persuasion, in which case it does not mitigate the illocution force of the speech act.

It is this latter use of *I think* that is pervasive in the speech acts produced by Macedonian learners of English. The three occurrences of the discourse marker *so* were all followed by *I think*, which also confirms that *I think* is mostly used to express strong opinions:

(1) I think people are entitled to a 25-day holiday;
(2) We are working very hard and we are trying to do all the work in the company completely and successfully. So I think that we deserve five days more for our holiday.

The use of *I think* seems more tentative only when used in partial agreement, but such examples are scarce. We noticed only two occurrences of partial agreement formulated with *I think* and one example when the interrogative form *don't you think* was used also in partial agreement, after the marker *but*. There was also one example when *think* was used with *maybe* and *could*:
(3) Maybe we could think about another place and another day.
In conclusion, we can stress that sentence-initial *I think* is used to intensify rather than to mitigate disagreement.

Modal verbs

In the speech acts of disagreement produced by native American speakers, we found three groups of modal verbs according to their frequency of occurrence:
1. Verbs with high frequency, including the modal verbs *would* (28%) and *can* (27%);
2. Verbs with medium frequency, among which the most widespread was *could* (12%), followed by *may* (8%), *might* (7%), *will* (7%), *need* (6%), and *should* (5%); and
3. Verbs with low frequency: *must* (1) and *shall* (0).
Our findings are similar to the frequency rates of modal verbs found in other corpus-based studies. Biber et al. (2007: 495) assign the low frequency of *must* to its high command force. For this reason it is often replaced by *should*, which has a weaker force and is therefore considered more polite in conversation.
Our analysis produced somewhat different results. *Will* (42%) stands out as the most widely used in the speech acts of disagreement produced by Macedonian learners of English. It is followed by a group of three other modal verbs of medium frequency: *should* (18%), *would* (15%), and *can* (15%). The rest of the modal verbs have a much lower frequency: *must* (4%), *need to* (2%), *could* (2%), *might* (2%), *may* (0%) and

shall (0%). To express their uncertainty and hesitations learners have also used *maybe* (16) and *probably* (1).

We were not surprised by the high frequency of *will*. First, learners identify it as a marker for expressing futurity; second, it helps them to express their opinion firmly (example 4). Nor are we surprised that *should* follows it (example 5). In Macedonian *should* is translated as *треба*, which also has high frequency in Macedonian speech acts of disagreement. It is also not surprising that *could* and *might* have a very low frequency. Their meaning is elusive for Macedonian learners and their pragmatic function is difficult to grasp.

(4) I will stand firmly by my topic and I won't consider another one.
(5) I think we should do the training as soon as possible.

We are, however, surprised by the frequency of *would*, which we would expect to be even lower. It seems that Macedonian learners understand its function as a marker for politeness and that they identify it with the Macedonian particle *би*, used for this purpose. *Would* is frequently used in the expression *I would like*, and this makes it more salient for the learners. Another reason may be that *would*, like many other language means, is not equally distributed among different speakers. Some learners favoured using *would* in shaping their disagreement. Other learners preferred a different modal verb. And many of the learners have used them rarely.

Partial agreement

Learners also used partial agreement to mitigate their disagreement (13%). They framed it with expressions like *I agree, but*; *I don't know about you, but I think*; *It's interesting, but*; etc. However, none of them used the most common way that native speakers use to frame partial agreement with *Yeah, but*.

Disagreement frames

Macedonian learners of English used the following frames for shaping their disagreement:
1. *I think* was found in 25% of the speech acts;
2. Disagreement prefaced with the verbs *disagree / don't agree* + explanation accounted for 19% of the examples;
3. Disagreement prefaced by *I'm sorry*, *but* was noted in 6% of the cases;
4. Explanation without any preface was present in 50 cases (26%);
5. Discourse markers (*well, but*) were found in 7% of the speech acts;
6. Partial agreement was noted in 14% of the speech acts;
7. Hints had the lowest frequency (3%).

The first two groups clearly belong to strong disagreement because Macedonian speakers do not use *I think* to make room for other people's disagreement, but to emphasize their own opinion. They also don't use *I'm sorry* with the aim of apologizing, but to emphasize that their opinion is different and there is no room for reconciliation. And while there was only one occurrence with *I agree with that* and one with *I don't disagree* in the native speakers' speech acts, their number of occurrences in the learners' speech acts was much higher (38). The discourse markers used here (*well, so, but, actually*) do not always soften disagreement either.

Some of the explanations without any preface represented strong disagreement (22), some indicated softened disagreement (22) and only few represented neutral disagreement (6). Softened speech acts contained weak modal verbs (*can, could, need to*, etc.), "if" clauses, and other linguistic means for mitigating disagreement.

Conclusion

The results of this study have confirmed the hypothesis we put forward at the beginning of this paper. They can be summed up as follows:
1. Macedonian learners of English shape their disagreement as strong (61%), softened (33%), neutral (3%) and as hints (3%). So when they want to disagree, they would most probably opt for strong rather than mitigated disagreement.
2. When mitigating their disagreement, learners use fewer of the linguistic means they had at their disposal than American speakers. Their use of pragmatic markers for mitigation is extremely limited and their use of hedges and verbs for hesitation and uncertainty are rendered null. Although we have seen that they use modal verbs, the most frequent one in their speech acts is *will,* which conveys firmness and decisiveness.
3. While mitigation devices are distributed throughout Americans' speech acts, Macedonian learners' speech acts are prefaced with expressions which help them state their disagreement explicitly.
4. The previous statements about learner's disagreement mirror the most common way that Macedonian native speakers shape disagreement, thus confirming our last hypothesis that in shaping their disagreement, Macedonian learners are at least partly influenced by their native language and culture.
One of the striking questions in this analysis is why Macedonian learners do not use discourse markers, which are pervasive in shaping speech acts in Macedonian. The reason may be that the meaning of these sequences is complex and it would be difficult to find one-to-one correspondences in English, as illustrated below:
Види сега вака (see now like this) – You told me what you thought of it on the basis of your knowledge, or on the basis of your beliefs. However, that is not all that there

is to it. So now I'll tell you what I have to say about it. And what I am going to say will be different.
Е па (добро) сега – (well but okay now) I don't like / I don't agree with what you are saying. You know that we have talked about this (made a choice, we have decided, we have worked a way out, etc.); *добро* intensifies the utterance.
А бе чекај сега малце (but бе hold on a second) - What you are saying can't be right. We are friends and I respect you, but you have to hear my opinion, and my opinion is different from yours.
In conclusion, it is justified to claim that this paper contributes to studies that hold that the speech act of disagreement is culturally constrained. Negotiating opposing views is a reality that learners will have to engage in on daily basis when communicating in the foreign language. Contrastive studies that compare learners' conversation with that of native speakers provide insights into the problems students may encounter when communicating in a foreign language.

References

Aijmer, K. (1997). Epistemic modality as a discourse phenomenon — a Swedish-English cross-language perspective. In V. M. U. Fries, *From Ælfric to the New York Times. Studies in English Corpus Linguistics* (pp. 215-227). Amsterdam: Rodopi.

Baumgarten, N., & House, J. (2010). I think and I don't know in English as lingua franca and native English discourse. *Journal of Pragmatics 42*, 1184–1200.

Biber, D., Johansson, S., Leech, G., Conard, S., & Finegan, E. (2007). *Longman grammar of spoken and written English.* London/New York: Pearson Education Limited.

Brown, P., & Levinson, S. (1987). *Politeness. Some universals in language usage.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Caffi, C. (1999). On mitigation. *Journal of Pragmatics 31*, 881-909.

Caffi, C. (2007). *Mitigation.* New York: ELSEVIER.

Clemen, G. (2010). The concept of hedging: Origins, approaches and definitions. In R. Markkanen, & H. Schröder, *Research in text theory. Hedging and discourse: Approaches to the analysis of a pragmatic phenomenonin academic texts* (pp. 235-256). Munchen, DEU: Walter de Gruyter.

Czerwionka, L. (2012). Mitigation: The combined effects of imposition and certitude. *Journal of Pragmatics 44* , 1163--1182.

Fraser, B. (1980). Conversational mitigation. *Journal of pragmatics 4*, 341-350.

Holmes, J. (1990). Apologies in New Zeland English. *Language in Society, Vol. 19, No. 2*, 155-199.

Kakava, C. (2002). Opposition in Modern Greek discourse: Cultural and contextual constraints. *Journal of Pragmatics 34*, 1537–1568.

Kärkkäinen, E. (2003). *Epistemic stance in English conversation. A description of its interactional functions, with a focus on I think.* Philadelphia, PA, USA: John Benjamins Publishing Company.

Martinovski, B. (2006). A framework for the analysis of mitigation in courts: Towards a theory in mitigation. *Journal of Pragmatics 38*, 2065-2085.

Tannen, D. (1992). Power and solidarity in Modern Greek conversation: Disagreeing to agree. *Journal of Modern Greek Study 10: 1*, 11-35.

Кусевска, М. (2012). *Меѓукултурна прагматика. Несогласување во усната комуникација: англиски и македонски.* Скопје: Академски печат.

Gender Differences in Political Discourse

Marijana Sivrić
University of Mostar

Dijana Jurčić
University of Mostar

Abstract: *Public speakers have always had a sense of authority and power upon them, and this area was male area for a long time. Together with different social changes such as Women's Movement, women became more emancipated, participating in public sphere to a larger extent influencing thus the area of political discourse too.*

Key question is whether gender and supposed gender characteristics and differences connected to interaction styles and public speaking affect creation of political discourse and differences in its structure between male and female politicians or they are not an important factor for political discourse. In other words, does gender affect a person's political subjectivity?

The thesis is that gender specific differences in language use and use of syntactic, semantic, pragmatic structures, lexical style and rhetorical strategies create differences in political discourse between male and female politicians. Can these differences help the hegemonic construction of female identity in political discourse? The aim of the paper is to analyze language differences in connection with supposed gender characteristics and place them into context of political discourse.

Keywords*: gender, discourse, political discourse, language, interaction, female identity*

Article History:
Submitted: 02.04.2014.
Accepted: 09.11.2014.

DOI Number:
10.14706/JFLTAL152227

Introduction

From the age of ancient civilizations up to present time, language has been and will continue to be a source of power and control. For example, Aristotle makes a very important connection between language and society by calling human beings "zoon politikon". He emphasizes cultural and social role of language, not just its communicative purpose.

Concept of politics in everyday communication is mostly presented as negative due to various social attitudes connected to politicians and their work. Politics and political discourse depend on the use of language, both for formulating their ideas and passing them onto their audience. Politicians must choose the right time and right manner in passing their ideas and beliefs onto the audience so that the process would have maximum effect. This can be done at the micro and macro level. Chilton analyses both levels: "At the micro level there are conflicts of interest, struggles for dominance and efforts at co-operation between individuals, between genders, and between social groups of various kinds" (Chilton 2004:3). This can be applied to everyday communication whereby people persuade or try to persuade other people to follow their opinions and approve their perceptions of various situations. Macro level requires specific use of language, language which will persuade masses and audience that beliefs and concepts of a certain party are right. This claim implies that there are certain strategies through which these aims are realized and they require specific use of language.

Chilton and Schaffner (1997:211-15) introduce three strategic functions, namely coercion, legitimization and delegitimization and representation and misrepresentation. Coercion includes not only linguistic acts but it is closely connected to the power of speaker and different kinds of resources connected to this power such as laws, commands, edicts or other kinds of sanctions. Legitimization and delegitimization is connected to presentation of the 'Self', the inner group and the 'Other', world outside the Self. Actions and beliefs of the inner group must be perceived as right and proper, while the actions of the 'outer' group must be delegitimized, made wrong and inappropriate. Different linguistic and semantic 'tools' are used for this purpose and shall be further discussed later.

As politics presupposes communication, it requires language use, which is also necessary to persuade the audience. This connection works both ways as language reflects conditions of the community and social changes, which again connects to the politics influencing social changes. New questions come out of these claims: what kind of language is used in politics and by politicians? What are the linguistic "tools" used? How does this specific language use operate within a wider social context?

Sunderland (2004:7) discusses this in post-structuralism discourse context, expanding the definition of discourse: "Discourses are not themselves visible. However, as a 'way of seeing the world' a given discourse may be recognizable to analysts and other language users through its manifestation in characteristic linguistic 'traces' in talk or written text, i.e. speakers' and writers' own words." Different discourses can thus be connected to various social area and phenomena, i.e. gender discourse, ideology discourse, legal discourse, political discourse etc. each having its own specific features, 'rules' and linguistic, semantic and lexical characteristics.

Apart from political discourse, gender discourse is also brought to attention as a field which has quickly become an issue of everyday communication. Study of gender is relatively new, but views and perceptions of gender, gender differences and differences in speech between men and women were pointed out and emphasized for a long time before actual scientific study of gender. We will refer here to later work on language and gender which has produced three frameworks: *deficit, dominance* and *difference*. The views of these three frameworks vary from men's language seen as a norm (Lakoff 1975), through men dominating the world and thus dominating language (Spender 1985) to men and women perceived as two different cultures (Gumperz 1982, Tannen 1991).

As for their conversational style differences, women are connected to their feminine side, acting sympathetic and listening to their interlocutor, they are supportive in conversation, accept the topic and help it with various linguistic tools. On the other hand, men are connected to their 'primal role' of showing strength and problem solving, whereas their conversational style is seen as public, which would possibly mean an advantage in public speaking. Sunderland (2004:170) claims that gender can be constructed through specific use of discourse, thus meaning intentionally constructed, not visible from certain 'characteristics' as earlier research proposes. Each person could create a wanted perception of themselves, also being able to create a gender for themselves.

Matching of political discourse to gender discourse should be observed through media created identities of politicians. Not only do the media mediate the identities of public figures to their mass audiences, they also have an active role in creating these identities, which Bucholtz and Hall (2005:588) call *emergent identities*. According to them identity is viewed as "the emergent product, rather than the pre-existing source, of linguistic and other semiotic practices, and therefore as fundamentally a social and cultural phenomenon." Identity is therefore not considered as a characteristic of an individual, it is a product which emerges gradually during discursive interaction, and can be modified at any stage of it. The creation of a political identity involves the collaboration of media and politician but the emergent identity does not necessarily correspond to the self of the politicians

when they are not in the media. The emergent identity is not simply determined by politicians, but is a joint product, as the media search for an identity they can sell to the public. As Bucholtz and Hall (2005:606) put it, identities are understood to be "in part an outcome of others' perceptions and representations."

It remains to see through the analysis of discourse samples how gender identity functions in relation to discourse and how it is constructed in the context of political discourse.

Method and Material

The method we are going to apply in the analysis of political discourse examples is Critical discourse analysis (CDA). Van Dijk (2005:1) defines it as "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." Fairclough (1995:5) states that CDA is special because it explores the tension between socially shaped language use and socially constitutive language use, rather than opting for one or the other. As CDA addresses social problems, it deals with power, dominance and inequality between social groups.

Different ideologies use different linguistic, lexical, semantic, pragmatic and other tools to explain their goals. Discourse and language used for creating discourse can be seen as a mirror image, a reflection of ideology which created it. This is the reason why discourses can be recognized, analyzed and positioned within a certain social context or social group. Political discourse can be seen as a presentation of politics behind it and thus it carries its main characteristics and agendas in it. All of these can be recognized, analyzed and explained through interpretation of discourse and it is crucial to look at power and power relations from this perspective.

For this purpose we have analyzed six speeches delivered by six politicians. There are three speeches delivered by male politicians and three speeches delivered by female politicians and they are ordered chronologically. Politicians are from Croatia and the United States of America, namely: George Bush, Hillary Clinton, Condoleezza Rice, Ivo Josipović, Jadranka Kosor and Franjo Tuđman. All of the speeches were delivered upon important occasions where some kind of action or social change was included and had to be passed onto the wider audience. Focus of this analysis will be political discourse as such, paying special attention to gender differences in political discourse, if there are any present. The goal is also to show how different language elements and strategies found in these examples help to promote politics behind the discourse, and whether the discourse differences, if they

exist, are based on gender. The speeches are analyzed through the following categories: syntactic structures (word order, topicalization); semantic structures (explicit and implicit, detail and level of description, e.g. what is said and what is actually meant, what is not said but is in the discourse); lexical style (positive and negative words, use of pronouns, use of specific vocabulary); rhetoric (understatement and overstatement, euphemisms, repetition, metaphors); pragmatics (assertion and denial; assertive and directive speech acts); ideological square (description of the 'inner' and 'outer' group) and gender (supposed gender characteristics and differences in interactional styles).

The key question is whether gender and supposed gender characteristics and differences connected to interaction styles and public speaking affect creation of political discourse and differences in its structures between male and female politicians or they are not an important factor in political discourse. This paper will try to analyze these differences in connection with supposed gender characteristics and place them into context of political discourse.

Results and Discussion

Discussion will follow categories of analysis identified in the previous chapter aiming at differences mentioned.

Syntactical level of analysis shows no differences between male and female politicians. They both equally use strategies of different word order, topicalization, different tenses, personal, possessive, relative and indefinite pronouns fitting them into aimed purposes of discourse such as emphasizing certain parts, erasing identity, positively evaluating actions of in-group etc. What is especially emphasized in this respect is the use of forms of address, i.e. the use of 'we' and 'you' to refer to the audience, soldiers or all the people together on one side against the 'enemy', e.g.:

*'My fellow citizens, on my orders, to all the men and women of the United States armed forces now in the Middle East, the peace of a troubled world and the hopes of an oppressed people now depend on **you**, **I** want Americans and all the world to know, for **your** sacrifice **you** have the gratitude and respect of the American people' (Bush)*
*"Siguran sam da će današnja presuda biti poticaj, **Naši** generali nisu krivi za zločine koji im se stavljaju na teret, **svi zajedno smo** opet ovdje; bili ste žrtve nepravedne optužbe; nosili ste teret nečijih tuđih zločina." (Josipović)*

*"Obraćam **Vam** se u ovom dramatičnom i sudbonosnom trenutku Hrvatske, Na **našu** se domovinu sručio val neprijateljske velikosrpske soldatesk; **Mi** smo željeli mir u*

slobodi i demokraciji, To smo pravo izvojevali na našim prvim demokratskim izborima…" (Tuđman)

*"**Mi** smo snaga koja jamči, nećemo posustati, obećala sam da će Hrvatska završiti pregovore do kraja lipnja 2011., **Ja** želim jak HDZ koji će biti uvijek spreman slušati glas svojeg naroda, Jer sam **ja** predsjednica Hrvatske demokratske zajednice, a HDZ ispunjava svoja obećanja." (Kosor)*

*"How could this happen in a country **we** helped liberate, in a city **we** helped save from destruction[…] and **we** will not turn our back on that, nor will **we** rest until those responsible for these attacks are found and brought to justice" (Clinton)*

*"**I** traveled last week to the region, **I** consulted widely with our many friends and allies, and **I** am pleased to have this opportunity to share with **you**, **we** want to help the Palestinians to lay the political foundations of a successful state; **we** supported the free and fair election in January 2005" (Rice)*

Semantic levels of discourse show slight differences in usage. There are more implicatures found in female political speeches which can be connected to female need for being superpolite and not using harsh vocabulary, but it could also be connected to characteristics traditionally pinned to female gender speech style. Condoleezza Rice's discourse is especially good example of this implicit meaning use as in her political speech much more is implied than said explicitly:

> *I realize that the continuing problems of security are also a great challenge for many Palestinian-Americans living in Gaza and the West Bank – and for so many others, including many of you, who travel there often, who work for greater tolerance and understanding, and who invest your time, and your knowledge, and indeed your capital in the Palestinian territories. People like you have a vital role to play in the Middle East, and I will continue to do everything in my power to support your good work."*

Hillary Clinton and Jadranka Kosor also imply a lot, especially when it would be insulting to do otherwise:

> *Neki ne mogu oprostiti što se više ne ide u Beograd po dozvolu i što novac koji mi ovdje zaradimo ne ide u Beograd.' (Kosor)*
> *But let me be clear – there is no justification for this, none. And as long as there are those who would take innocent life in the name of God, the world will never know a true and lasting peace. (Clinton)*

Male politicians also tend to use detailed descriptions, language feature not characteristic to supposed male gender speech style*:*

> *A campaign on the harsh terrain of the nation as large as California could be longer and more difficult than some predict and helping Iraqis achieve a united, stable and free country will require our sustained commitment. (Bush)*
> *Siguran sam da će današnja presuda biti poticaj da gradimo Hrvatsku koja voli svoje ljude i brine se o njima, ali da se brine i o tome da svatko nevin bude oslobođen i svatko tko je počinio zločin da ga kazne. (Josipović)*

This is especially seen is Tuđman's speech whose descriptions are at times purely poetic with usage of archaic Croatian words: *No oni nisu mogli – niti će ikada moći – ubiti našu žudnju za slobodom i potrebom da živimo u ljudskom dostojanstvu, u miru sa sobom i sa slobodnim narodima Europe. Za ovo pravo i za svetu svoju zemlju spremni smo i mrijeti.* Not to get confused, both male and female use combination of implicit and explicit meaning and detailed descriptions but some cases like Tuđman's are particularly unusual for perceived gender speech styles.

Lexical style also shows common characteristics as there are no significant differences in the use of vocabulary. Vocabulary and words are equally strong in discourse for both male and female politicians, and vocabularies are usually connected to war, peace, freedom, slavery, terrorism, family relations etc.:

> *…troubled world and the hopes of an oppressed people now depend on you, meet that threat now with our army, air force, navy, coastguard and marines, decisive force' (Bush)*
> *I can only tell you that I, too, have a personal commitment to that goal because I believe that there could be no greater legacy for America than to help to bring into being a Palestinian state for a people who have suffered too long, who have been humiliated too long, who have not reached their potential for too long… (Rice)*
> *Usprkos tomu što je demokratski svijet stao na stranu Hrvatske, agresori, ne samo da nisu obustavili svoje napade već su ih iz dana u dan, iz mjeseca u mjesec pojačavali rabeći sve bezobzirnija, razornija i neljudskija sredstva sile i uništavanja.(Tuđman)*
> *Dan kada smo dobili i sudsku potporu, da je pravda pobijedila i da naši generali nisu krivi za zločine koji im se stavljaju na teret.'(Josipović)*

What is different is greater tendency in female political discourse to make contrasting images with help of this vocabulary, especially good examples are Clinton's and Rices's speeches, full of such images. Male politicians are prone to using strong vocabulary, in Tuđman's case even poetic, but not contrasting as much as female

politicians. Kosor's lexical style is also interesting because of usage of vocabulary connected to war while delivering speech upon future elections. Her lexical style is also quite aggressive even if measured against criteria of male gender speech style:

> *Naši neprijatelji ne mogu nam oprostiti pobjednički duh. Nema što nam nisu radili kako su nas blatili kao što su radili i Franji Tuđmanu jer misle da će nas tako skršiti. E neće!'*

As far as rhetoric is concerned, use of metaphors, understatements and overstatements, and repetition are equal in discourses of both male and female politicians. These rhetorical strategies are equally present and serve similar purposes, depending on the context of speech.

> *A campaign on the harsh terrain; our nation enters this conflict; we will meet that threat'. (Bush)*
> *…the United States must be a force for peace and progress in the world, that these aspirations are worth striving and sacrificing for.'(Clinton)*

Such strategies are of great help for different presentations of in- and out-group in ideological square, this showing to be their main purpose in the six speeches. Rice's case is especially interesting as she uses these strategies for creating compassion and sympathy but actually only creating this illusion in order to make better contrasts and present in-group's actions in positive light:

> *I believe that there could be no greater legacy for America than to help to bring into being a Palestinian state for a people who have suffered too long, who have been humiliated too long, who have not reached their potential for too long, and who have so much to give to the international community and to all of us.*

There is a combination of assertive and directive speech acts in all speeches delivered. Usually many assertive speech acts precede one or two directive speech acts. This is done for creating an image of state of things which is usually chaotic and then calling in action through directive speech acts. All of the examples show equally strong directive speech acts and equally descriptive assertive speech acts, not depending on gender at all.

It follows certain pattern, respected by both male and female politicians in the discourses analyzed. Difference is in creating contrasting images and implicit and explicit meanings used to create positive and negative presentations:

The friendship between our countries, borne out of shared struggle, will not be another casualty of this attack. A free and stable Libya is still in America's interest and security, and we will not turn our back on that, nor will we rest until those responsible for these attacks are found and brought to justice. (Clinton)
In this conflict America faces an enemy that has no regard for conventions of war or rules of morality. (Bush)

Use of disclaimers is common to both male and female politicians with difference in their creation.

When it was time for parliamentary elections earlier this year, we again supported the Palestinians' right to choose their own leaders, and as you know, a plurality of voters cast their votes for Hamas. (Rice)
Mi smo željeli mir u slobodi i demokraciji, a nametnut nam je prljavi i razorni rat. (Tuđman)

Sometimes, disclaimers can be found only at the level of implicit meaning. Male politicians are prone to standard use and creation of disclaimers, while female politicians tend to 'mask' this into implicit meaning and sometimes even in the following paragraphs.

Focus on gender differences, gender talk and interactional styles showed interesting results. Male and female politicians mix these styles; there was not a politician with clear male or female gender speech style. Male politicians tended to use characteristics of female gender speech style and vice versa, at times even abandoning their 'supposed' gender speech style.

Conclusion

Discourse analysis, more precisely political discourse analysis has shown gender differences as very interesting leaving enough space to be perceived through various aspects. Thesis from the beginning has been confirmed as there are differences between male and female politicians in political discourses, differences connected to different interactional styles and different use of syntactic, rhetoric, semantic, lexical, pragmatic and ideological structures.

Bush can be seen as an aggressive speaker, he uses strong vocabulary and claims property and right to act against the enemy. He also uses a lot of metaphors, overstatements and euphemisms, rhetorical and also often literary resources, which can be connected to perceived female gender speech style. His discourse aims at problem-solving, he lectures about the events and crisis' preferable values for

American citizens which are also characteristics of male gender interactional speech style. Bush takes leader position through constant use of pronoun *I*. His style is oppositional, again perceived style connected to male gender speech style. Bush's political discourse can be described as mainly having characteristics of male gender speech style but also showing traces of female gender speech style.

Kosor' s political discourse shows some characteristics specific to male gender speech style, such as strong vocabulary, aggressive performance, emphasis of independence and open oppositional beliefs in relation to other parties. She claims her position and status freely which is obvious from her discourse. There are also some of the characteristics of female gender speech style, such as frequent aiming at sympathy and emotions in the audience making connections to glorious fatherly figure of the past - Franjo Tuđman. Her discourse shows combination of male and female gender speech style, with greater number of characteristics specific to male gender speech style.

Tuđman's political discourse shows characteristics of male gender style such as lecturing to the audience and maintaining status and authority. Discourse of his political speech is full of problem-solving, with clearly defined problem and offered solutions. There is a great deal of independence vocabulary and claiming independence, also a supposed characteristic of male gender speech style. Interesting and unusual feature of Tuđman's political discourse is use of language which is at times poetic, almost as in heroic poetry with metaphors and archaic Croatian words. There are also parts supposed to evoke emotions in the audience, emotional parts describing Croatian battle and history which could be perceived as characteristics of female gender speech style. Such political discourse can be seen as consisting of elements of male gender with a significant amount of characteristics connected to female gender speech style.

Clinton's discourse has characteristics of presidential style, claiming her status and position of a ruler from the beginning, which are supposed characteristics of male gender speech style. There are parts of discourse which could be labeled as intimate, full of sympathy and supportive, but in this case it seems as a carefully chosen strategy to provoke emotional reaction from the audience. A striking feature of this political discourse is her aggressive manner of talking about future actions and strong vocabulary while condemning actions of the out-group. Both of these are perceived as characteristics of male speech gender style, and her political discourse can be defined as having more male gender speech style characteristics than female gender speech style characteristics.

Josipović's political discourse does not show many characteristics of supposed male gender speech style. He shows sympathy and support, creating intimate and private atmosphere, and makes connections between past and present, this way also making a connection between Croatian people and liberated generals. Overall impression is quite emotional, which is done through constantly showing respect, gratitude and talking about troubled past. This emotional component is also perceived as characteristic of female gender speech style. Josipović does not try to claim his status nor is he acting in an oppositional way, characteristics connected to male gender speech style. His political discourse can be labeled as having numerous characteristics of female gender speech style outnumbering male gender characteristics, although delivered by a male president.

Rice's political discourse shows characteristics of clear male gender speech style. From the beginning to the very end of discourse she establishes her position and status, using report to talk about state of things and lecturing on changes that have to be made. She shows clear opposition to the out-group and aims at problem solving through many directive speech acts in her discourses. Only elements of supposed female gender speech style are connected to creating intimate, supportive and sympathetic image of American government, but this is done out of rhetorical purpose solely and its aim is to achieve as positive representation of in-group as possible.

What is especially interesting is that binary division cannot be made as speech styles and gender characteristics overlap in all speech samples. Some male politicians show characteristics of female gender speech style in their political discourse and vice versa. Generally, the examples of political discourse analyzed cannot be clearly labeled as either male gender speech style or female gender speech style.

It can be concluded, however, that overlapping and mixing of gender characteristics in connection with different contexts and occasions are the result of emergent identities, i.e. identities created in those particular situations or contexts and it is not clear how much they can be a result of female or male politician's style. However, it is obvious that female politicians more frequently use the discourse strategies which are typical for male politicians than vice versa. We can connect it to the idea that you are not a successful politician if you do not show strength in your speech, as well as in the actions. The factors which influence and provoke such mixing of gender characteristics in political discourse can be grounds for further research in this field.

References

Brown, G. and Yule, G. (1983). *Discourse Analysis*, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.

Bucholtz, M. & Hall, K. (2005). "Identity and Interaction: a Sociocultural Linguistic Approach" in *Discourse Studies*, vol. 7 (4-5), pp. 585-614.

Cameron, D. (1996). "The language-gender interface: challenging co-optation" in Bergvall, Bing & Freed (Eds.), *Rethinking Language and Gender Research: Theory and Practice*, Addison Wesley Longman, New York, pp. 31–53.

Chilton, P. (2004). *Analysing Political Discourse: Theory and Practice*, Routledge, London.

Chilton, P. & Schäffner, C. (1997). "Discourse and politics" in T. van Dijk (ed.) *Discourse as Social Interaction,* London, Sage, pp. 206-230.

Chomsky, N. (1975). *Reflections on Language*, Pantheon, New York.

Fairclough, N. (1995). *Media Discourse*, Redwood Books, Trowbridge.

Fetzer, A. & Lauerbach, G. E. (2007). *Political Discourse in the Media: Cross-cultural Perspectives*, John Benjamins Publishing Company, Amsterdam.

Fishman, P. (1983). "Interaction: the work women do" in *Social Problems*, 25.4, pp. 397-406.

Garfinkel, H. (1994). *Studies in Ethnomethodology.* Polity: Cambridge.

Gee, J. P. (2011).*Introduction to Discourse Analysis: Theory and Method*, Routledge, New York.

Gumperz, J. (ed.)(1982). *Language and Social Identity*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Lakoff, R. (1975). *Language and Woman's Place*, New York: Harper &Row.

Sivrić, M. & Mihaljević, Ž. (2010). *Political Discourse - Ideological Analysis of G.W.Bush's Speeches* in Hum, 6th edn, Fram Ziral, Mostar, pp. 347-368.

Spender, D. (1985). *Man Made Language*, 2nd edn. London: Routledge & Keegan Paul.

Sunderland J. (2004). *Gendered Discourses*, Palgrave Macmillan, New York.

Sunderland J. (2006). *Language and Gender,* Routledge, New York.

Talbot, M. (1998). *Language and Gender*, Polity: Cambridge.

Tannen, D. (1991). *You Just Don't Understand*, London: Virago

Van Dijk, T.A. (2003). *Ideology and Discourse*, *Discourse in Society* <www.discourses.org> (8.7.2013.)

Van Dijk, T.A. (2005). *Critical Discourse Analysis, Discourse in Society* <www.discourses.org> (8.7.2013.)

Verschueren, J. (2012). *Ideology in Language Use*, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.

http://free-zg.t-com.hr/zdeslav-milas/FT/ft-08.htm

http://www.guardian.co.uk/world/2003/mar/20/iraq.georgebush 8.7.2013.

www.jutarnji.hr/gotovina-i-markac-su-slobodni--haaski-sud---nije-bilo-udruzenog--zlocinackog-pothvata--/1066689/> 8.7.2013.

http://www.politikaplus.com/novost/43107/video-jadranka-kosor-necemo-stati-dok-borba-protiv-korupcije-ne-dode-i-do-sdp-a-hns-a-i-ids-a >8.7.2013.

http://www.weeklystandard.com/blogs/hillary-clintons-address-us-deaths-libya_652240.html> 8.7.2013

http://www.americantaskforce.org/keynote_address_secretary_state_condoleezza_rice_atfp_inaugural_gala> 8.7.2013.

The Use of Contrastive Analysis in Teaching English as a Foreign Language at Tertiary Level

Melisa Okičić & Merima Osmankadić
University of Sarajevo, Bosnia and Herzegovina

Abstract: *Teaching English as a foreign language at university level is quite a different challenge compared to teaching high school or young non-native learners. This is due to the fact that university students are expected to acquire specific grammar terminology in order to master the grammar system of the target language. At the English Department of the Faculty of Philosophy in Sarajevo, during the first three (undergraduate) years of study the students are introduced to several grammar courses, focusing on the analysis of English grammar through descriptive explanations given in English. The courses serve as a basis that is expected to improve both the grammar and translation competence of the students. This paper examines to what extent the acquired descriptive knowledge of morphosyntactic properties of English is helpful in terms of translation of those Bosnian sentences whose proper translation into English requires the knowledge of contrastive rules. The research has been designed as a combination of action research and a quasi-experimental pre-test (delayed) post-test control-treatment group. As the research findings have revealed, teaching grammar to non-native learners of English without input as to the contrastive differences between the source and the target language results in erroneous translation, which is a consequence of negative transfer from the source into the target language. On the other hand, grammar teaching supported by the presentation of relevant contrastive rules has proved to be an efficient learning technique in terms of reducing errors and improving both grammar and translation competence of non-native learners.*

Keywords: *verb phrase, erroneous translation, transfer, contrastive analysis, pre-testing, post-testing, treatment*

Article History:
Submitted: 15.04.2014.
Accepted: 07.11.2014.

DOI Number:
10.14706/JFLTAL152114

Introduction

An Introduction to Morphosyntax is a course delivered during the second year of study at the Faculty of Philosophy in Sarajevo, English Department. It is one of the six mandatory grammar courses introduced during a three-year undergraduate programme of study, listed as follows: 1st year: *Morphology* and *A Survey of English Grammar*; 2nd year: *An Introduction to Morphosyntax* and *Non-finite Constructions*; 3rd year: *Syntax of the Simple Sentence* and *Syntax of the Complex Sentence*. Each course consists of lectures and practical classes, and is designed in the form of a structural syllabus.[1] All the courses are aimed at the description of the target language grammar, which is done through form-focused instructions in English.[2] In addition, none of the course syllabi anticipate a contrastive analysis unit. However, all the courses share the same goal: to increase students' grammar competence in the target language, thus also enhancing both their communicative and translation competence. Furthermore, it is worth mentioning that translation exercises are not done within grammar courses. The translation exercises are done within a skill-based course titled *Contemporary English Language*.[3] The syllabus for this course does not anticipate any contrastive lectures/exercises since the grammar courses are expected to provide a solid basis for the purpose of translation.

An Introduction to Morphosyntax is focused on the description of morphosyntactic properties of the English phrase structure (*noun phrase, adjective phrase, adverb phrase, verb phrase and prepositional phrase*). Upon the completion of the course, the students are expected to master the English phrase structure, to recognize different kinds of phrases at both the phrasal and the clausal levels and to use the accurate structure of a certain phrase for the purpose of translation. However, taking into account that the course does not anticipate any contrastive lectures, the lecturer and the teaching assistant decided to conduct research in order to assess to what extent the acquired knowledge of the English phrase is useful in terms of translation. This research aimed at assessing the quality of translation of those Bosnian sentences whose proper translation into English requires the use of contrastive rules. The research was restricted to the translation of verb phrases appearing in Bosnian conditional/passive/Perfect Tense/Present Tense sentences.

[1] "A structural (or formal) syllabus is one in which the content of language teaching is a collection of the forms and structures, usually grammatical, of the language being taught. Examples of structures include: nouns, verbs, adjectives, statements, questions, complex sentences, subordinate clauses, past tense, and so on, although formal syllabi may include other aspects of language form such as pronounciation or morphology."(Krahnke, 1987, p. 10)

[2] The focus is on standard British English, but the students are made aware that there are other standard varieties of English.

[3] During the undergraduate study, there are six courses of this kind (two per academic year) during which the students translate selected texts from Bosnian into English and vice versa.

For the purpose of the research, the following hypothesis has been defined: *teaching English grammar to non-native learners of English without input as to the contrastive differences between the source and the target language results in erroneous translations, being a consequence of negative transfer from the source into the target language*.

The paper is organized as follows: after the *Introduction*, which is given in the first section, the second section gives a theoretical background and a short overview of the recent literature that is relevant to the main objective of the paper. The third section presents details as to the methodology of the research. The paper proceeds in the next section with the analysis of the results and the discussion thereof. In the end we give some final remarks.

Theoretical Background

Contrastive Analysis (CA) is a foreign-language teaching theory that was born in the early 1960s, which was the period when structural linguistics and behaviourist psychology enjoyed great popularity. Proponents of this theory came to advocate that foreign language learning is actually a process of acquiring different structures from the source into the target language. Such an approach gave birth to the basic concept of CA known as the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH): "... in the comparison between native and foreign language lies the key to ease or difficulty in foreign language learning (...) Those elements that are similar to (the learner's) native language will be simple for him and those elements that are different will be difficult." (Lado, 1957, pp. 1-2). In other words, contrastive analysis is a way of comparing languages in order to identify potential errors for the purpose of determining what needs to be learned and what does not need to be learned in a situation of foreign or second language learning (Gass & Selinker, 2008, p. 96). Numerous contrastive analyses that were undertaken at that time resulted in different pedagogical materials. One such set of materials was the outcome of the Yugoslav Serbo-Croatian – English Contrastive Project (YSCECP) that was carried out under the leadership of Professor Rudolf Filipović, then Director of the Linguistic Institute of Zagreb University and professor in the English Department of that University. There are several volumes of studies and separate reports that were published under the auspices of the Project, and although contrastive analysis has long been abandoned (unjustly, in our opinion), and these studies and reports neglected, we can see today how invaluable their contribution is both from the perspective of theoretical linguistics and from that of teaching English as a foreign or second language to learners whose first languages are Bosnian/Croatian/Serbian.

After the initial CAH had been defined, many CA proponents focused on a further development of the CA theory in terms of describing the hierarchy of difficulties and

the CA methodological framework. Stockwell, Bowen, and Martin (1965) analysed the difficulties of an English speaker learning Spanish and defined eight different degrees of difficulty for phonological and 16 degrees of difficulty for grammatical structures of the two languages in contrast. The hierarchy was based upon the impact of positive, negative, and zero transfer from the source into the target language.[4] A few years later, Whitman (1970) proposed the CA methodological framework comprising the following steps: *description*, *selection*, *contrast* and *prediction*. In short, during the first phase (description), the teacher describes the two language systems using standard grammar rules. In the second phase (selection), the teacher selects a set of structures to be contrasted. This phase actually "reflects the conscious and unconscious assumptions of the investigator" (Whitman, 1970, p. 193). In the third phase (contrasting) the selected structures are contrasted and accordingly described. In the end, in the fourth phase (prediction) the learning difficulties have been defined following a three-step procedure as previously explained.

Although CA seemed to be a revolutionary theory, it soon became the subject of much discussion. With reference to it, Wardhaugh (1970) severely criticized Lado's CAH, defining it as the *strong CAH version*, and additionally describing it as quite demanding and completely unrealistic: "at the very last, this version demands of linguists that they have available a set of linguistic universals formulated within a comprehensive linguistic theory which deals adequately with syntax, semantics, and phonology. ... Does the linguist have available to him an overall contrastive system within which he can relate the two languages in terms of mergers, splits, zeroes, over-differentiations, under-differentiations, reinterpretations, and so on?" (Wardhaugh, 1970, pp. 125-126). Wardhaugh proposed a new version of the CAH defined as the weak version. In Wardhaugh's words, CA should not be used *a priori* but during the process of foreign language learning where it should be primarily used for the purpose of explaining errors that have been identified during the learning process. On the other hand, some other authors claimed that both strong and weak versions should be viewed as a unique version of the CAH. Therefore, Oller and Ziahosseiny proposed the so-called *moderate version* of CAH, defined as follows: "The categorization of abstract and concrete patterns according to their perceived similarities and differences is the basis for learning; therefore wherever patterns are minimally distinct in form or meaning in one or more systems confusion may result." (Oller & Ziahosseiny, 1970, p. 186) The moderate version of the CAH was proposed on the basis of the study of spelling errors in which the authors concluded the following: English spelling proved to be more difficult for people whose native language used a Roman script (French, Spanish), than for those who used a non-

[4] Ellis argues that negative transfer occurs when the learner's first language is one of the sources of error in learner language, whereas positive transfer occurs when the learner's L1 facilitates L2 acquisition (Ellis, 1997, p. 51).

Roman script (Arabic, Japanese). This conclusion was actually quite surprising, and in opposition to the CAH strong version, which predicts more difficult acquisition of those features that are different in the two languages in contrast. On the other hand, this conclusion has also revealed some important observations as to the complexity of human learning, thus outlining that interference should not necessarily be caused by different, but also by similar features of the two languages (*interlingual* and *intralangual* errors). Such conclusions actually announced the development of the so-called *Error Analysis* approach, being quite popular mainstream in recent years. As for the current status of CA, it can be said that this theory has not achieved a huge success as initially expected. Over the period of the last fifty years, CA has been criticized for the lack of reliability of CA predictions. As a consequence of such a situation, the CA approach has been largely disregarded from a standard practice of foreign language teaching. Nevertheless, there are some recent studies that rely heavily on what was at the core of contrastive analysis. Callies, for example, in his study of the *tough*-movement in German and English, combines contrastive analysis with the Markedness Differential Hypothesis (MDH) postulated by Eckman (1977), which claims that L1 structures that are different from L2 structures and typologically more marked will not be transferred, whereas those L1 structures that are different from L2 structures and typologically less marked are more likely to be transferred (Callies, 2008, p. 37).[5] We can predict, on the basis of typological features, the order and difficulty of linguistic features in the acquisition process: less marked structures will be acquired first and without difficulty, while more marked structures will be acquired later or with greater difficulty. In other words, the MDH identifies potential difficulties in the L2 learning process not merely on the basis of similarities and differences derived from a contrastive analysis (CA) of two languages (as in traditional CA), but through a combination of the concepts of typological markedness and cross-linguistic influence (Callies, 2008, p. 37). This is in accordance with the claim that there are cognitive constraints that govern the transfer of L1 knowledge. Two of these constraints are learners' perceptions of what is transferable and learners' stage of development. Learners themselves are able to perceive some structures in their L1 as more basic (less marked or more universal) and others as more unique to their own language (more marked). They are more willing to transfer those structures that they perceive as basic than those that they perceive as unique to their L1 (Ellis, 1997, p. 53). From Callies' study we can see that contrastive analysis has been recycled after a long period of hibernation, albeit combined with the new scientific insights into the nature of foreign or second language acquisition.

[5] Eckman, F. (1977). Markedness and the contrastive analysis hypothesis. *Language Learning*, 27, 315-330, as cited in Callies.
Tough-movement is a uniform cross-linguistic phenomenon because it explicitly indicates topicalisation of the raised NP. In spite of the fact that this phenomenon is universal, the formal linguistic means with which their function is expressed vary from language to language (Callies, 2008).

There is no doubt that CA has revealed some important facts as to the complexity of language learning, therefore remaining an available technique which can be used (in whichever form appropriate) for the purpose of explaining *interference*, whenever such explanations might be required. We are of the opinion that it is university level students of English that can greatly benefit from such contrastive explanations.

Methods

Research Design

This study is defined as a combination of *action research* and a *quasi-experimental pre-test – (delayed) post-test control – treatment group* (Mackey & Gass, 2011). A mixed methodological approach has been chosen due to the following reasons. According to Mertens, *action research* is the research 'that is done by teachers for themselves. It is truly a systematic inquiry into one's own practice.' (Mertens, 2012, p. 4) Since the research of this paper was primarily initiated by the lecturer and the teaching assistant with the express purpose of reviewing our own teaching practice, our research has the characteristics of action research. However, we wanted to create an experimental and a control group in order to strengthen the methodological framework, and since action research does not usually imply the creation of such groups, nor does it imply the questioning of a hypothesis statement, the action research was additionally designed as a quasi-experimental pre-test - (delayed) post-test control-treatment group.[6] The quasi-experimental design has been selected due to inability to employ *randomly selected sampling*, which is one of the key features of a pure experiment.[7] Randomly selected sampling could not be employed, since the research took place during the regular teaching process, and therefore a *non-random method of sampling* was used. The research was done with two intact classes, one being defined as a control, another as a treatment group.[8]

[6] "In an action research project you are not trying to prove anything. You are not comparing one thing to another to determine the best possible thing. Also, there are no experimental or control groups, independent or dependent variables, or hypotheses to be supported. The goal is simply to understand. As an action researcher you are creating a series of snapshots in various forms and in various places to help us understand exactly what is going on." (Johnson, 2005, p. 25)

[7] "Randomization is usually viewed as one of the hallmarks of experimental research. Design types can range from truly experimental (with random assignment) to what is known as quasi-experimental (without random assignment)." (Mackey & Gass, 2005, p. 146)

[8] "However, there are situations when randomization of individuals may not be feasible. For example, in second
language research we often need to use intact classes for our studies, and in these cases the participants cannot be randomly assigned to one of the experimental or control groups. Intact classes are commonly and often by necessity used in research for the sake of convenience." (Mackey & Gass, 2011, p. 142)

Moreover, for the purpose of research, independent and dependent variables were also defined. A common teaching practice (teaching English grammar without contrastive input) was considered the independent variable, whereas a newly introduced teaching method (presentation of contrastive analysis input) was considered the dependent variable. Furthermore, for the purpose of strengthening the validity of the research, a special focus was also given to the analysis of extraneous variables, as will be explained in the following section.[9]

Participants

The participants in the research were all the full-time second-year students (50), a lecturer (1) and a teaching assistant (1). The students were the subject of the research while the lecturer and the teaching assistant were the facilitators of the research. In order to identify general characteristics of the students relevant for the validity of the study, prior to the pre-testing phase the following extraneous variables were analysed: age, high-school profile, enrolment status, attending school in English-speaking countries, spending more than six months in English-speaking countries, additional English language learning activities (commercial English courses/private classes) and the most common practice of studying grammar. The data were collected by means of a questionnaire, jointly created by the lecturer and the teaching assistant. The results have been summarized in the following figures:

[9] Strengthening the validity of the research is "an indication of accuracy in terms of the extent to which a research conclusion corresponds with reality." (White & McBurney, 2012, p. 143)
"Extraneous variable: Independent variables that are not related to the purpose of the study, but may affect the dependent variable are termed extraneous variables. (...) Whatever effect is noticed on dependent variable as a result of extraneous variable(s) is technically described as an 'experimental error'. A study must always be so designated that *the effect upon the dependent variable is attributed entirely to the independent variable(s), and not to some extraneous variable or variables*." (Kothari, 2004, p. 34)

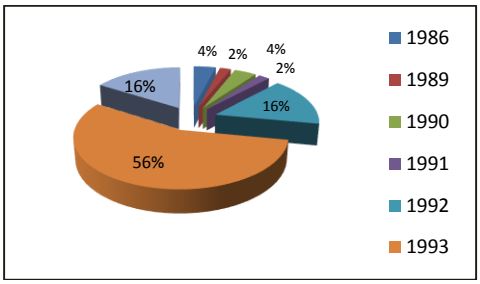


Figure 1. Age of students

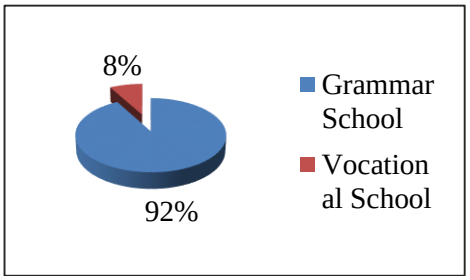


Figure 2. High School Profile

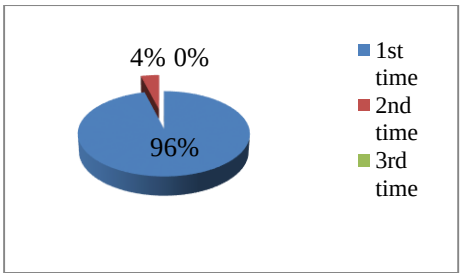


Figure 3. Enrolment Status

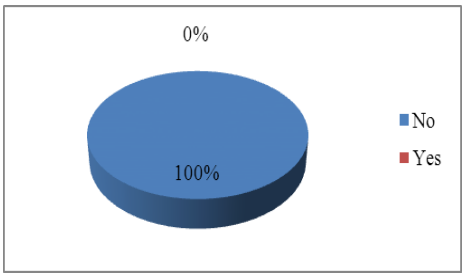


Figure 4. Additional English Language Activities (Commercial Courses)

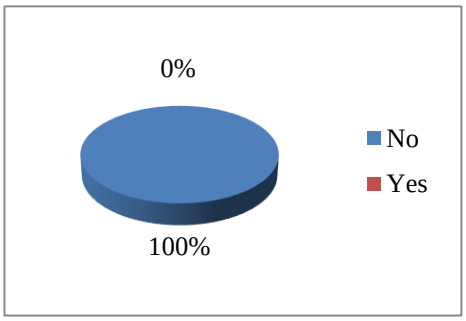


Figure 5. Additional English Language Activities (Private Classes)

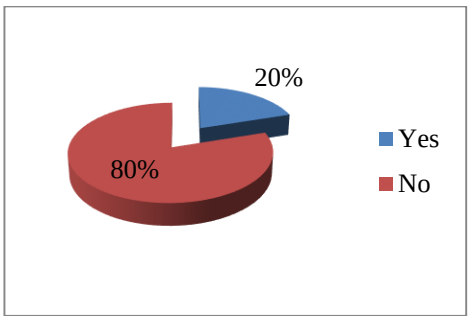
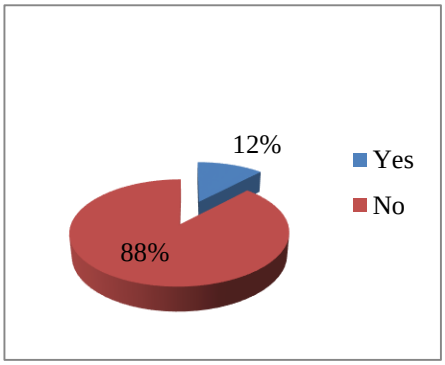


Figure 6. Consulting Senior Fellow Students in Studying Grammar



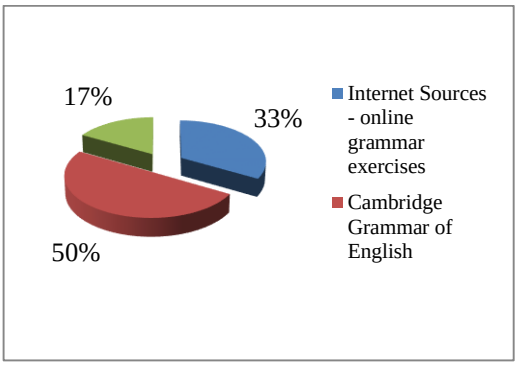


Figure 7. Use of Additional Grammar Literature

Figure 8. The most commonly used grammar sources (additional literature)

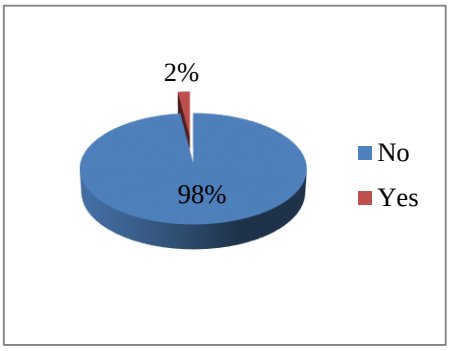


Figure 9. Spending more than 6 months in English-speaking countries

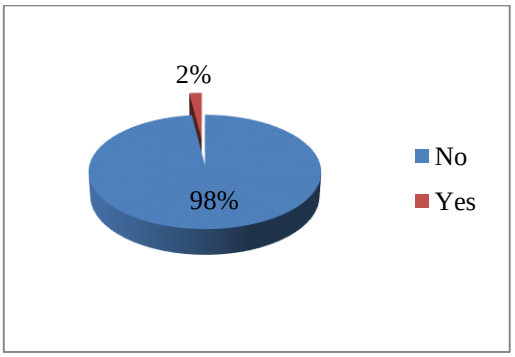


Figure 10. Attending school in English-speaking countries

Therefore, the general characteristics of the second year students can be summarized as follows: 56% of the students are at the age of 20. 92% graduated from Grammar High School. 96% enrolled in the second year of study for the first time. None of the students takes any additional learning activity in parallel with studying (commercial English courses/private classes). 20% consult senior fellow students in studying grammar. 12% use additional grammar literature, with *Cambridge Grammar of English* being the most frequently used (50%). Only 2% of the students spent more than six months in English-speaking countries (one academic year).

Materials

During the research *five* kinds of materials were used: a questionnaire (1) (already explained in Participants Section), two tests (pre-testing and post-testing phases), supporting teaching material (treatment phase) comprising the handouts summarizing contrastive rules (3) and the translation exercise handout (1). All the materials were jointly produced by the lecturer and the teaching assistant.

During the pre-testing and post-testing phases the *testing method* was employed with the *test* being a key instrument of the research. The first test (henceforth Test 1) was designed to test the background knowledge of the students in terms of assessing their translation competence (from Bosnian into English). Test 1 consisted of three sets of sentences written in Bosnian (12 sentences/total), focusing on the translation of the main verbs (verb phrases). Each set of sentences was selected following the well-known contrastive differences between Bosnian and English (Dubravčić, 1985; Mihailović, 1985; Riđanović, 2007; Riđanović, 2012). These sets of sentences were limited to the translation of verb phrases in Bosnian conditional sentences (potential and hypothetical condition) (2), the translation of verb phrases in Bosnian passive sentences (2), and the translation of verb phrases in Bosnian Perfect Tense (6)/Present Tense (2) sentences.[10] After the pre-testing data had been collected, additional teaching material (henceforth *treatment material*) as well as the second test (henceforth *Test 2*) were produced. Test 2 was distributed during the (delayed) post-testing phase.

Procedure

The overall research took place during the regular teaching process (practical grammar classes). The second year students attend practical grammar classes divided into two groups. During the first week of the 2013/2014 academic year (winter semester), the data as to the general characteristics of the students (extraneous variable analysis) were collected and analysed.

The pre-testing phase took place in the third week, before any lectures relevant for the purpose of translation were delivered. The students were not previously informed about the task, nor were they given any additional instructions during the completion of the task. The time for the pre-testing task was 45 minutes.
Following the pre-testing results, the two groups of students were classified as a *control* and a *treatment* group. The group that demonstrated weaker results was considered the *treatment group*, whereas the group that achieved better results was

[10] The figures in brackets indicate the exact number of examples in particular sets of sentences.

defined as the *control group*. After the groups had been established and the pre-testing data had been analysed, the supporting teaching material (treatment phase) and Test 2 (post-testing phase) were produced.

Taking into account that the treatment material consists of two kinds of handouts, it is important to outline the following: the treatment material was not presented during the lectures, but only during the practical classes. In addition, the handouts summarizing contrastive rules were delivered only to the treatment group of students, while the translation exercise handout was distributed to both groups (treatment/control). Moreover, the handouts presented to the treatment group were not handed in to the students for the purpose of avoiding their potential distribution (copying) among the students of the treatment and the control group. The presentation of the contrastive rules was done as follows: using the pre-testing examples, the teaching assistant would first write an example on the blackboard, at the same time explaining the contrastive differences in terms of the structure of the verb phrase in Bosnian and English. After all the examples had been presented, the students were given a translation exercise handout and were asked to translate the sentences into English. During the translation, the students were required to identify the main verb in the Bosnian sentence, briefly describe the verb phrase (structure, tense, aspect, voice) and justify their translation choice recalling the rules previously presented.

On the other hand, the control group was not exposed to the presentation of the contrastive rules. The students were given the translation exercise handout and were asked to translate the sentences immediately. In a case where the student provided a correct answer, no further discussion was initiated. If a student faced a problem in translation, the elicitation of a correct answer was done through explanations as to the use of English tenses.

A delayed post-testing was done in the first week of summer semester. Just like the pre-testing, the post-testing was not previously announced to the students, nor were additional instructions given during the task completion. The time for the post-testing task was 45 minutes. After the post-testing phase, the findings were compared to the pre-testing results and final conclusion remarks were made.
For the purpose of the pre-testing and post-testing analysis, the three categories of answers were defined: *target translation* (TT), *descriptive translation* (DT) and *erroneous translation* (ET). The target translation was considered a correct translation realized by the use of a target verb phrase structure (tense). The descriptive translation was considered a translation realized by the use of those verbal tenses that do not significantly affect the meaning of a sentence. The erroneous translation was considered an incorrect translation caused by an

inappropriate use of the verbal tense that significantly affects the meaning of a sentence.

Results and discussion

Pre-testing

Since the research was divided into four phases (*extraneous variable analysis*, *pre-testing*, *treatment* and *(delayed) post-testing*), and since the extraneous variable analysis has already been presented in this paper (see Participants Section), in the following paragraphs we will discuss the results obtained during the remaining phases of the research, focusing first on the pre-testing phase. The pre-testing findings are summarized in Table (1):

Table 1. An overview of pre-testing findings

No	Sentences (including target translation (TT))	Bosnian	GROUP 1 (25 students)						GROUP 2 (25 students)						BOTH GROUPS							
			TT		DT		ET		TT		DT		ET		TT		DT		ET		Total	
			n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
1.	Da imam novca, kupio bih novi kompjuter. (If I had money, I would buy a new computer.)	Conditional (potential)	16	64	0	0	9	**36**	18	72	0	0	7	**28**	34	**68**	0	0	16	**32**	50	100
2.	Da sam znala da dolaziš, ostala bih kod kuće. (If I had known you were	Conditional (hypothetical)	6	24	0	0	19	**76**	3	12	0	0	22	**88**	9	**18**	0	0	41	**82**	50	100

	coming, I would have stayed at home.)																					
3.	Ovaj muzej je izgrađen prije tri godine. (The museum was built three years ago.)	Bosnian *biti* - passive	13	52	0	0	12	**48**	11	44	0	0	14	**56**	24	**48**	0	0	26	**52**	50	100
4.	Ovaj muzej se gradio tri godine. (This museum was being built for three years.)	Bosnian *se*-passive	11	44	0	0	14	**56**	4	16	0	0	21	**84**	15	**30**	0	0	35	**70**	50	100
5.	Upravo je stigla u London. (She has just arrived in London.)	Perfect Tense	25	100	0	0	0	0	25	0	0	0	0	0	50	**100**	0	0	0	**0**	50	100
6.	Vozio sam motor samo jedno m. (I have driven a motor bike only	Perfect Tense	25	100	0	0	0	0	25	0	0	0	0	0	50	**100**	0	0	0	**0**	50	100

	once.)																				
7.	Već sam pročitala tu knjigu. (I have already read that book.)	Perfect Tense	25	100	0	0	0	0	25	0	0	0	0	0	50	**100**	0	0	0	**0**	50	100
8.	Živim u Sarajevu od 2010. (I have lived/ have been living in Sarajevo since 2010)	Present Tense	16	64	0	0	9	**36**	9	36	0	0	16	**64**	25	**50**	0	0	25	**50**	50	100
9.	Radim na fakultetu već 5 godina. (I have worked/have been working at the faculty for 5 years.)	Present Tense	15	60	0	0	10	**40**	12	48	0	0	13	**52**	27	**54**	0	0	23	**46**	50	100
10.	Bio sam u Americi tri puta. (I have been to America three times.)	Perfect Tense	25	100	0	0	0	0	25	0	0	0	0	0	50	**100**	0	0	0	**0**	50	100

11.	Nisam ga vidio ove sedmice. (I have not seen him this week.)	Perfect Tense	21	84	0	0	4	**16**	18	72	0	0	7	**28**	39	**78**	0	0	11	**22**	50	100
12.	Jesi li vidio mog asistenta jutros? (Have you seen my assistant this morning?)	Perfect Tense	25	100	0	0	0	0	25	0	0	0	0	0	50	**100**	0	0	0	**0**	50	100
Total			**223**	**74**	**0**	**0**	**77**	**26**	**200**	**67**	**0**	**0**	**100**	**33**	423	70,50	0	0	177	29,50	600	100

The analysis of the pre-testing findings has revealed the following: As shown in Table (1), the same examples appeared to be more or less equally problematic for both groups of students. In addition, the translation difficulty can be defined as strictly an erroneous translation since no cases of descriptive translations were confirmed. An additional in-depth analysis of the pre-testing findings has shown that, compared to Group 1, Group 2 demonstrated weaker results and was therefore defined as the treatment group. An overview of pre-testing findings per groups is given below:

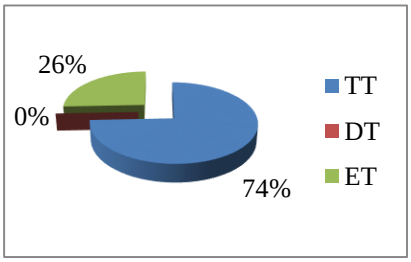


Figure 11. Pre-testing Results (TT, DT and ET Control Group)

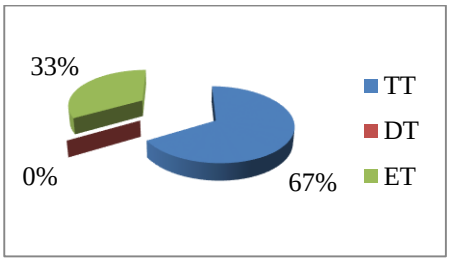


Figure 12. Pre-testing Results (TT, DT and ET Treatment Group)

The Translation of Bosnian Conditional Sentences

The translation of Bosnian conditional sentences into English turned out to be quite problematic. The errors were made in terms of an inappropriate choice of the tense form of the main verb appearing in the English subordinate *if*-clause (Bosnian *ako/da* - clauses). Therefore, 32% of students translated the example *Da imam novca, kupio bih novi kompjuter* (potential condition) by using the Present Simple form of the main verb in the subordinate clause, cf. **If I have money I would buy a new computer* (instead of *If I had money*, ...). The same error (but having a much higher percentage) was identified in the case of *Da sam znala da dolaziš, ostala bih kod kuće* (hypothetical condition). 82% of students translated the sentence by choosing the Past Tense form of the main verb in the subordinate clause, cf. **If I knew you were coming I would have stayed at home* (instead of *If I had known* ...). Taking into account that the main verbs in Bosnian subordinate clauses appear in the Present (potential condition) and the Perfect tense (hypothetical condition), it becomes clear that the errors were made due to the negative transfer from the source into the target language, cf. *imam/1.sg.present > have/1.sg.present, sam znala/1.sg.past > knew/1.sg. past*.

The Translation of Bosnian Passive Sentences

Before we proceed with the analysis of the translation of Bosnian passive sentences, it is important to outline the following: Compared to English, Bosnian has two different structures of passive verb phrases. The first one is known as *biti*-passive or *jesam*-passive[11]. This type of Bosnian passive is formed by the proper enclitic form of the present/future of the auxiliary *biti* (Eng. *be*) and the passive verbal adjective. A distinctive feature of the Bosnian *biti*-passive verb phrase is that "the present form of the auxiliary *jesam* is used to form the passive past tense", which means that this auxiliary cannot be used to form the Bosnian present tense passive verb phrase (Riđanović, 2012, p. 356). The example of *biti*-passive verb phrase in the past tense would be *Ovaj muzej je izgrađen prije tri godine*/*This museum was built three years ago*, in which the passive verb phrase is formed by the present enclitic form of the auxiliary *biti > jesam > je* + passive verbal adjective *izgrađen* (Eng. *built*). On the other hand, the Bosnian *se*-passive can take the present, past and future tense forms. The example of the *se*-passive verb phrase in the past tense would be as follows: *Ovaj muzej se izgradio za tri godine*/*This museum was built over a period of three*

[11] As it is called by some linguists, cf. Riđanović (2012). For the purpose of a brief illustration of Bosnian passive verb phrases we will use the term *biti*-passive.

years, in which the passive verb phrase is formed by the passive *se* and the imperfective past form of the main verb *izgraditi* > *izgradio* (Eng. *built*). As Riđanović points out, the key difference between *biti* and *se* passive verb phrases is as follows: "In sentences with imperfective predicate verbs, the *se* passive is generally preferred, in all tenses and moods, over the form with passive verbal adjective. (...) On the other hand, if the predicate is realized with a perfective verb, we usually employ the *jesam* passive." (Riđanović, 2012, p. 280)

The analysis of the translation of Bosnian passive sentences has revealed a high level of errors with both structures of passive verb phrases. Here it is important to outline that the students were restricted to the translation of the two Bosnian sentences containing the passive past tense verb phrase, one being realized as the *biti*-passive, another as the *se*-passive sentence. In addition, for the purpose of a precise illustration of the past time reference the adverbials *prije tri godine*/*three years ago* and *tri godine*/*for three years* were also included.

The *biti*-passive sentence *Ovaj muzej je izgrađen prije tri godine* was incorrectly translated by 52% of students as **This museum is built three years ago*, while the remaining 48% offered a proper translation *This museum was built three years ago*. The error made is a consequence of the negative transfer from the source language, i.e. the direct translation of the present enclitic form *je* by the same (but inappropriate) Present Simple Tense form of the verb *be* > *is* in English.

On the other hand, the *se*-passive sentence *Ovaj muzej se gradio tri godine* was correctly translated by 30% of students as *This museum was being built for three years*, whereas the incorrect translation was offered by 70% of students. 42 % (out of 70%) used the Present Perfect form of the passive verb phrase as in **This museum has been built for three years*, whereas the remaining 58% used the Present Simple Tense form of the passive verb phrase, as in **This museum is built for three years*. The offered translation solutions were considered an error, since the choice of the tenses does not reflect the proper time reference (past), thereby significantly affecting the original meaning of the sentence (cf. *the museum is still being built*).

The Translation of Bosnian Perfect Tense/Present Tense sentences

Before we take a look at the pre-testing findings, we will first mention a few important facts as to the selection of Bosnian sentences offered for testing the use of the English Present Perfect. First of all, it is important to outline that the English Present Perfect does not have its corresponding tense in Bosnian. Therefore it is not surprising that understanding the basic concept of this tense, as well as mastering its use for the sake of translation (in particular from Bosnian into English) is usually quite a problematic issue for Bosnian learners of English. In other words, Bosnian

sentences containing the main verb in the Perfect Tense are usually translated into English by the Past Simple Tense. Such a situation is completely justified in cases where the translation by the Past Simple Tense is the only available choice, as in *Sreo sam je juče > I met her yesterday.* However, Bosnian Perfect Tense sentences sometimes may need to be translated by the Present Perfect Tense, e.g. *Upravo je stigla u London/ She has just arrived in London*. Moreover, there are some cases in which Bosnian Present Tense sentences require the English Present Perfect, e.g. *Živim u Sarajevu od 2010/I have lived in Sarajevo since 2010*. In addition, the use of the Present Perfect Tense differs in BrE and AmE. As is widely documented in the linguistic literature, the main verbs appearing in sentences containing adverbs such as *just, ever, never, already, yet* (signalling the use of the Present Perfect Tense in BrE) are frequently realized in AmE by the Past Simple Tense (Hundt & Smith, 2009; Žetko, 2004; Žetko, 2010). This difference is explained by different cognitive processing of native (AmE and BrE) speakers, i.e. a different perception of the time of an action expressed by the main verb. As pointed out by Žetko "the difference between the two variants occurs because different conceptualizations are possible. The BrE speaker conceptualizes just as almost reaching to, and therefore locates the situation in a period that leads up to it and employs the present perfect. The AmE speaker, on the other hand, conceptualizes just as lying completely before to, and therefore locates a situation in a period that lies wholly before to and thus uses the preterit." (Žetko, 2004, p. 520)

On the other hand, in the case of some other adverbials such as *since + time expression* and *for + time expression*, the grammar books prescribe the use of the Present Perfect in AmE and BrE, cf. *I have not seen him since last week* or *I have lived in Sarajevo for 10 years*.

In order to test the use of the English Present Perfect in translation, we employed the following criteria: First of all, the examples of Bosnian Perfect/Present Tense sentences without adverbials such as *Donio sam konačnu odluku/I have made a final decision* were disregarded, since we believe that at this stage the students should first be introduced to the basic explanations as to the contrastive differences between Bosnian and English through the systematization of typical Bosnian adverbials signalling the use of the Present Perfect Tense.[12] The students were offered the

[12] By selecting Bosnian sentences containing adverbials, our aim was not to focus exclusively on teaching the Present Perfect through "adverbial-tense matching", which is the most commonly used approach in many grammar books. Taking into account that adverbials can rarely be linked to only one tense use (cf. *I have lived in Sarajevo for three years* (I still live in Sarajevo) vs. *I lived in Sarajevo for two years* (but now I live in London)), as well as the fact that Bosnian learners experience a lot of problems in terms of mastering this tense caused by the absence of a corresponding tense in Bosnian, the selection of Bosnian sentences with adverbials should be viewed as an initial phase in teaching this

sentences containing the main verbs in the Bosnian Perfect/Present Tense including adverbials, as follows:

a) *upravo* > *just*, *već* > *already* , signalling the perfect of recent past use of the Present Perfect Tense;
b) *samo jednom* > *only once*, signalling the experiential use of the Present Perfect Tense;
c) *već (for)* + *time expression* and *od (since)* + *time expression* , signalling the continuative use of the Present Perfect Tense (Huddleston and Pullum 2002: 141-146).[13]

The analysis of the pre-testing findings has revealed the following observations: First of all, the most common errors were identified in the case of the Bosnian sentences containing the main verb in the Present Tense (such as *živim/live*, *radim/work*, non-perfective, progressive aspect) and adverbials realized by preposition *od/since* + time expression (2010) and preposition *već/for* + time expression (5 godina/5 years). The sentence *Živim u Sarajevu od 2010/I have lived in Sarajevo since 2010* was incorrectly translated by 50% of students, whereas the sentence *Radim na fakultetu već 5 godina /I have worked at the faculty for 5 years* was incorrectly translated by 46% of students. The error is a consequence of the negative transfer from the source into the target language by which the Present Tense forms of the Bosnian verbs *živim/radim* (Eng. *live/work*) were translated by the same (but not appropriate) tense in English as **I live in Sarajevo since 2010*/**I work at the faculty for five years*. Bearing in mind that the presence of the adverbials *since*/*for + time expression* explicitly highlights the duration of an action rather than the general characteristics, the translation in which the Present Simple Tense was used was considered incorrect.[14] In addition, it is worth mentioning that the correct translation was mostly done by the Present Perfect Progressive Tense (instead of the Present Perfect Tense). Therefore, the sentence *Živim u Sarajevu od 2010* was correctly translated by 50% of students. 16% (out of 50%) used the Present Perfect Tense, cf. *I have lived in*

tense for the purpose of clarification the key concept of "merging" the past and the present time, being a typical feature of the English Present Perfect.

[13] Huddleston and Pullum give the following classification of the Present Perfect in English:
The continuative perfect/universal (=states)
(1) She has lived in Berlin ever since she married.
The experiential perfect/existential (= occurrences within the time span up to now)
(2) His sister has been up Mont Blanc twice.
The resultative perfect (=change of state)
(3) She has broken her leg.
The perfect of recent past (=news announcements)
(8) She has recently/just been to Paris. (Huddleston & Pullum, 2002, p. 141f).
The *resultative* use of the Present Perfect has been disregarded in this research strictly for pedagogical reasons (this use has already been illustrated by *Donio sam konačnu odluku > I have made a final decision*).

[14] Expressing general characteristics is a typical feature of the English Present Simple Tense.

Sarajevo since 2010, while the remaining 34% used the Present Perfect Progressive, cf. *I have been living in Sarajevo since 2010*. The sentence *Radim na fakultetu već pet godina* was correctly translated by 54% of students. 13% used the Present Perfect Tense, cf. *I have worked at the faculty for five years*, whereas 41% used the Present Perfect Progressive, cf. *I have been working at the faculty for five years*.
Another error (although having a much lower percentage) was identified in the case of the following example *Nisam ga vidio ove sedmice/I have not seen him this week*. 22% of students used the Past Simple form of the main verb, cf. * *I did not see him this week*. Taking into account that the phrase *this week* clearly indicates that the duration of the period is still ongoing, the use of the Past Simple Tense was ruled out. As for the nature of the error made, it seems that the students were more focused on the translation of the verb phrase, thus almost completely disregarding the meaning of the adverbial *this week* and its impact on the action expressed by the main verb/translation.

In the end, it is worth mentioning that the Bosnian sentences containing the adverbials *upravo/just*, *već/already* and *samo jednom/only once* were correctly translated by 100% of students. However, an in-depth analysis has also revealed the following: although the target tense was the Present Perfect, in some examples the students used the English Past Simple more frequently. Such translations were considered correct due to the already mentioned frequent use of the Past Simple Tense in AmE. The use of the Past Simple vs. the Present Perfect is summarized as follows. The example *Upravo je stigla u London* was translated by 66% of students as *She just arrived in London*, while 34% used the Present Perfect *She has just arrived in London*. The example *Vozio sam motor samo jednom* was translated by 78% of students as *I drove a motorbike only once*, while the remaining 22% used the Present Perfect as in *I have driven a motorbike only once*. The example *Bio sam u Americi tri puta* was translated by 44% of students as *I was in America three times*, while 46% used the Present Perfect *I have been to America three times*. Finally *Već sam pročitala tu knjigu* was translated by 32% of students as *I already read that book*, while the remaining 68% used the Present Perfect Tense, cf. *I have already read that book*.
However, since the students were not asked to explain their translation choices, it remained unclear whether or not they were aware of a different use of the Present Perfect in AmE and BrE. This observation was taken into consideration and was accordingly presented and explained during the treatment phase.

Treatment Phase

During the treatment phase the handouts summarizing the contrastive rules were orally presented only to the treatment group of students. Since the research procedure

has already been explained earlier (see Procedure Section), in this part we will briefly illustrate the content of the handouts presented to the treatment group. The handout material was produced in accordance with the results of the pre-testing findings.

Handout 1 – Translation of Bosnian Conditional Sentences (summary of contrastive rules)

Conditional dependent clause (Bosnian)	Main clause (Bosnian)	Conditional dependent clause (English)	Main Clause (English)	Condition	Time Reference	Translation into English
1) *Da* –clause containing the Present Simple Tense form of the main verb (*Da* imam dovoljno novca ...) 2) *Kad-clause* + present conditional (*Kad* bih imao dovoljno novca*)*	1) Present conditional of the main verb (*kupio bih* novo auto) 2) Present conditional of the main verb (*kupio bih* nova kola)	*If* - clause containing the Past Simple tense form of the main verb (If I *had* enough money...)	Present conditional of the main verb (*would buy* a new car)	Open - potential	Present	BOS: Da imam dovoljno novca, kupio bih novo auto. ENG: If I had enough money I would buy a new car.
Da-clause containing the Perfect Tense form of the main verb Da sam imala dovoljno novca...	Present conditional of the main verb (kupila bih novo auto)	*If* - clause containing the Past Perfect Tense form of the main verb (If I *had had* enough money...)	Past conditional of the main verb (*would have bought* a new car)	Unreal	Past	BOS: Da sam imala dovoljno novca, kupila bih novo auto. ENG: If I had had enough money I would have bought a new car.

Handout 2 – Translation of Bosnian Passive sentences (summary of contrastive rules)

Bosnian Passive	***Time reference***	***Formation***	***Example***	***Corresponding English translation***	***Formation***	***Time reference***
Biti-passive	Past	The Present form of the auxiliary	Ovaj muzej je	This museum was built three	Past form of the auxiliary	Past

		biti > *jesam* (enclitic forms) > *je*.sg/*su*/*smo*.pl + passive verbal adjective (e.g. *graditi* > *građen*)	izgrađen prije tri godine.	years ago.	verb *be* > *was/were* + passive participle of the main verb (build > built)	
Se-passive	Past	*Se*-passive + past form of the main verb	Ovaj muzej se gradio tri godine.	This museum was being built for three years.	Past continuous form of the verb *be* > *was/were being* + passive participle of the main verb (build > built)	Past

Handout 3 – Translation of Bosnian Perfect/Present Tense sentences (summary of contrastive rules)

BOSNIAN	Example	Adverbial	English Corresponding Tense	English Corresponding Adverbials	Translation
Perfect Tense > auxiliary verb *jesam* (enclitic form) + active verbal adjective	Sam stigla, sam vozio	Upravo, samo jednom, već, nedavno,	AmE: Past Simple Tense (more frequently) and Present Perfect Tense (less frequently) BrE: Present Perfect (most frequently) *resultative use*)	Upravo > just, samo jednom > only once, već > already	BOS: Upravo sam stigla u London. BrE: I have just arrived in London. AmE: I just arrived in London.
Perfect Tense	Vidio sam (ga), Nisam ga vidio	Jutros, ove sedmice, danas	Present Perfect Tense	Jutros > this morning, ove sedmice > this week, danas today	BOS: Nisam ga vidio ove sedmice. BrE/AmE: I have not seen him this week. (NOTE: *this week* is still ongoing)
Perfect Tense (Questions)	Da li si vidio	Jutros, ove sedmice, danas	Present Perfect Tense	Jutros > this morning, ove sedmice > this week, danas today	BOS: Da li si vidio mog asistenta jutros? BrE/AmE: Have you seen my assistant this morning? (it is still morning) NOTE: I did not see him this morning (it is already afternoon or evening)
Present Tense > verb infinitive base + present tense suffixes	Živim, radim	Od + time expression (eg. od 1992.), već + time	Present Perfect (continuous use)	Od + time expression > since + time expression; već + time expression > for +	BOS: Živim ovdje od 1992. godine. AmE and

(-m, -š, -i/-a/-e, -mo, -te, -ju/-u)		expression (e.g. već deset godina), do sada		time expression, do sada > so far, up to now	BrE: I have lived here from 1992.

Delayed Post-testing

The delayed post-testing phase took place in the first week of summer semester (one month after the completion of winter semester). During the practical grammar classes, the students were asked to do the translation test (Test 2). The test comprised the same number of sentences (12), but offered different examples. An overview of delayed post-testing findings is given in Table (3):

Table 2. An overview of delayed post-testing findings

No	Sentences (including target translation (TT))	Bosnian	CONTROL GROUP (25 students)						TREATMENT GROUP (25 students)						BOTH GROUPS							
			TT		DT		ET		TT		DT		ET		TT		DT		ET		Total	
			n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
1.	Da imam problem, razgovarala bih sa svojom majkom. (If I had a problem, I would talk to my mother.)	Conditional (potential)	14	56	0	0	11	44	25	100	0	0	0	0	39	78	0	0	11	22	50	100
2.	Da nisi bio tako lijen, položio bi taj ispit. (If you hadn't been	Conditional (hypothetical)	7	28	0	0	18	72	22	88	0	0	3	12	29	58	0	0	21	42	50	100

	so lazy, you would have passed the exam.)																					
3.	Taj projekat je završen prije pet godina. (That project was completed five years ago.)	Bosnian *biti* - passive	11	44	0	0	14	**56**	**21**	**84**	**0**	**0**	**4**	**16**	32	64	0	0	18	36	50	100
4.	Ta cesta se popravljala pet godina. (That road was being repaired for five years.)	Bosnian *se*-passive	12	48	0	0	13	**52**	**23**	**92**	**0**	**0**	**2**	**8**	35	70	0	0	15	30	50	100
5.	Upravo sam završila zadaću. I have just finished my home work. (BrE)/I just finished my home work. (AmE)	Perfect Tense	25	100	0	0	0	0	**25**	**100**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**	50	100	0	0	0	0	50	100
6.	Samo jednom sam bila u Engleskoj.	Perfect Tense	25	100	0	0	0	0	**25**	**100**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**	50	100	0	0	0	0	50	100

	I have been to England only once. (BrE) /I was in England only once. (AmE)																				
7.	Već sam čula tu priču. / I have already heard that story. (BrE) /I already heard that story. (AmE)	Perfect Tense	25	100	0	0	0	0	**25**	**100**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**	50	100	0	0	0	0	50	100
8.	Damir uči njemački od 2012. / Damir has studied /has been studying German since 2012.	Present Tense	12	48	0	0	13	**52**	**20**	**80**	**0**	**0**	**5**	**29**	32	64	0	0	18	36	50	100
9.	Ona spava već tri sata. / She has slept/has been sleeping for three hours.	Present Tense	16	64	0	0	9	**36**	**21**	**84**	**0**	**0**	**4**	**16**	37	74	0	0	13	26	50	100
10.	On je pobijedio sedam puta.	Perfect Tense	25	100	0	0	0	0	**25**	**100**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**	50	100	0	0	0	0	50	100

	He has won seven times. (BrE) /He won seven times (AmE)																					
11.	Nisam dobio nikakav mail od njega ove sedmice. / I have not got any email from him this week.	Perfect Tense	22	88	0	0	3	**12**	**25**	**100**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**	47	94	0	0	3	6	50	100
12.	Jesi li jutros razgovarala sa profesorom? / Have you talked to the professor this morning?/Did you talk to the professor this morning?[15]	Perfect Tense	25	100	0	0	0		**25**	**100**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**	50	100	0	0	0	0	50	100
Total			**219**	**73**	**0**	**0**	**81**	**27**	**282**	**94**	**0**	**0**	**18**	**6**	501	83,50	0	0	99	16,50	600	100

An overview of post-testing findings per groups would be as illustrated in the following figures:

[15] In the case of different time orientation.

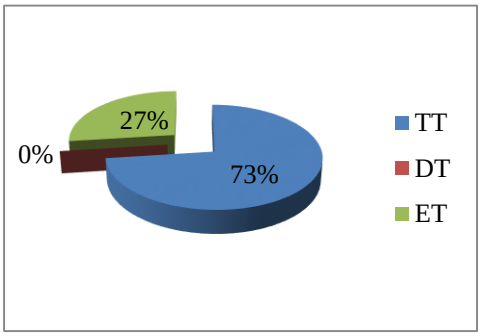


Figure 13. Post-testing results (TT, ET and DT - Control Group)

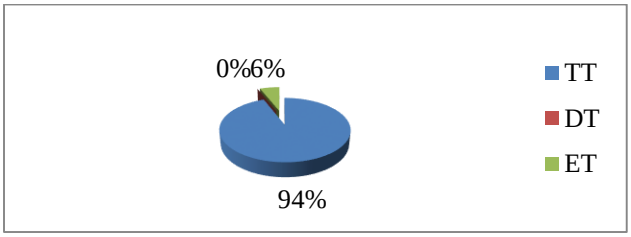


Figure 14. Post-testing results (TT, ET and DT - Treatment Group)

The findings have revealed the following: while the treatment group has demonstrated a significant improvement, the control group has shown even slightly weaker results compared to the pre-testing findings. In other words, the total of ET for the control group during the pre-testing was 26%, which has been increased by 1% in the post-testing phase. In addition, a detailed analysis of post-testing findings (control group) has revealed the following: the pre-testing example (potential condition) *Da imam novca kupio bih novi kompjuter* was incorrectly translated by 36% of students.[16] On the other hand, the post-testing example expressing the same kind of condition *Da imam problem, razgovarala bih sa svojom majkom* was incorrectly translated by 44% of students **If I have a problem, I would talk to my mother*. The pre-testing example (hypothetical condition) *Da sam znala da dolaziš kupila bih novi kompjuter* was incorrectly translated by 76% of the students, whereas the post-testing example *Da nisi bio tako lijen, položio bi taj ispit* was incorrectly translated by 72% of students, **If you were not so lazy, you would have passed the exam*. The example of the Bosnian *biti*-passive sentence (pre-testing example) *Ovaj muzej je izgrađen prije tri godine* was incorrectly translated by 48% of students. The post-testing example *Taj projekat je završen prije pet godina* was incorrectly

[16] Out of 25/100 % students - control group. See Table (1): An overview of pre-testing findings.

translated by 56% of students, **That project is finished five years ago*. The pre-testing example of the Bosnian *se*-passive *Ovaj muzej se gradio tri godine* was incorrectly translated by 56% of students, whereas the post-testing example *Ta cesta se popravljala pet godina* was incorrectly translated by 52% of the students, **That road is being built for five years*. When it comes to the translation of Bosnian sentences containing the main verb in the present tense, the results for the control group are the following: during the pre-testing phase, the example *Živim u Sarajevu od 2010* was incorrectly translated by 36% of students, while *Radim na fakultetu već pet godina* was incorrectly translated by 40%. The post-testing example *Damir uči njemački od 2012* was incorrectly translated by 52% of students as **Damir studies German since 2012*, whereas *Ona spava već tri sata* was incorrectly translated by 36%, cf. **She sleeps for three hours*. The only slight improvement has been confirmed in the translation of the Bosnian sentences containing the time expression *ove sedmice*/*this week*. Compared to the pre-testing phase in which the example *Nisam ga vidio ove sedmice* was incorrectly translated by 16% of students, the post-testing example *Nisam dobio nikakav mail od njega ove sedmice* was incorrectly translated by 12 %, cf. **I did not get any email from him this week*. As for the translation of the Bosnian sentences containing adverbials *već/already, upravo/just, samo jednom/only once, tri puta/three times, sedam puta/seven times*, 100% of students of the control group translated the sentences correctly, but with an increased use of the Past Simple Tense. A parallel in terms of an overview of the use of the Past Simple tense in pre-testing and post-testing phase is given in the following table:

Table 3. An overview of pre-testing and post-testing findings in translation of Bosnian sentences containing adverbs signalling the use of Past Tense in AmE – control group.

Example	**Testing Example**	**Past Simple Tense**	**Percentage (out of 25 students (100%)**	**Present Perfect Tense**	**Percentage (out of 25 students (100%)**
Upravo je stigla u London	Pre-testing	She just arrived in London	80%	She has just arrived in London	20%
Upravo sam završila zadaću	Post-testing	I have just finished my homework.	82%	She has just arrived in London.	18%
Vozio sam motor samo jednom	Pre-testing	I drove a motorbike only once.	72%	I have driven a motorbike only once.	28%
Samo jednom sam bila u Engleskoj.	Post-testing	I was in England only once. .	80%	I have been to England only once.	20%
Već sam pročitala tu	Pre-testing	I already read that	40%	I have already read that book.	60%

knjigu.		book.			
Već sam čula tu priču.	Post-testing	I already heard that story.	45%	I have already heard that story.	55%
Bio sam u Americi tri puta.	Pre-testing	I was in America three times.	48%	I have been to America three times.	52%
On je pobijedio sedam puta.	Post-testing	He won seven times.	50%	He has won seven times.	50%

On the other hand, the post-testing findings of the treatment group have revealed a significant improvement in translation compared to the pre-testing, summarized as follows: during the pre-testing phase the example of the Bosnian conditional sentence expressing a potential condition *Da imam novca kupio bih novi kompjuter* was incorrectly translated by 28% of students, while the post-testing example *Da imam problem, razgovarala bih sa svojom majkom* was translated correctly by 100% of students, *If I had a problem, I would talk to my mother*. The pre-testing example of the Bosnian conditional sentence expressing a hypothetical condition *Da sam znala da dolaziš, sačekala bih te kod kuće* was incorrectly translated by 88% of students, whereas the post-testing example *Da nisi bio tako lijen, položio bi taj ispit* was incorrectly translated only by 12% of students (**If you were not so lazy, you would have passed the exam*). The pre-testing example of the Bosnian *biti*-passive *Ovaj muzej je izgrađen prije tri godine* was incorrectly translated by 56% of students, whereas only 16% of students incorrectly translated the post-testing example Taj *projekat je završen prije pet godina* (**That project is finished five years ago*). The pre-testing example of the Bosnian *se*-passive O*vaj muzej se gradio tri godine* was incorrectly translated by 84% of students. The post-testing example *Ta cesta se popravljala tri godine* was incorrectly translated only by 8% of students (**That road is being built for three years*).

The translation findings of the Bosnian sentences containing the main verb in the present tense and adverbials *od*/*since + time expression* and *već*/*for + time expressions* have also revealed an immense improvement. While the pre-testing example *Živim u Sarajevu od 2010* was incorrectly translated by 64% of students, the post-testing example *Damir uči njemački od 2012* was incorrectly translated only by 20% (**Damir studies German since 2012*). In addition, the pre-testing example *Radim na fakultetu već pet godina* was incorrectly translated by 52% of students, whereas the post-testing example *Ona spava već tri sata* was incorrectly translated by 16% of students (**She sleeps for three hours*). The pre-testing example containing adverbial *ove sedmice*/*this week Nisam ga vidio ove sedmice* was incorrectly translated by 28% of students, whereas no incorrect translation was confirmed with the post-testing example. As for the examples containing adverbials *već*/*just, samo*

jednom/once, *upravo/already* and *sedam puta/seven times*, all the examples were translated correctly by 100 % of students. In addition, compared to the control group, the treatment group of students more frequently used the Present Perfect Tense in translation, which was usually accompanied by a short comment on a potential (correct) use of the Past Tense as an American variant. A summary of the translation per percentage is given in Table (4):

Table 4. An Overview of pre-testing and post-testing findings in translation of Bosnian sentences containing adverbs signalling the use of Past Tense in AmE – treatment group

Example	**Testing Example**	**Past Simple Tense**	**Percentage (out of 25 students (100%)**	**Present Perfect Tense**	**Percentage (out of 25 students (100%)**
Upravo je stigla u London	Pre-testing	She just arrived in London	52%	She has just arrived in London	48 %
Upravo sam završila zadaću	Post-testing	I just finished my homework.	2%	I have just finished my homework.	88%
Vozio sam motor samo jednom	Pre-testing	I drove a motorbike only once.	84%	I have driven a motorbike only once.	6%
Samo jednom sam bila u Engleskoj.	Post-testing	I was in England only once.	20%	I have been to England only once.	80%
Već sam pročitala tu knjigu.	Pre-testing	I already read that book.	24%	I have already read that book.	76%
Već sam čula tu priču.	Post-testing	I already heard that story.	10%	I have already heard that story.	90%
Bio sam u Americi tri puta.	Pre-testing	I was in America three times.	40%	I have been to America three times.	60%
On je pobijedio sedam puta.	Post-testing	He won seven times.	10%	He has won seven times.	90%

Conclusion

In conclusion, the research has revealed that the use of contrastive analysis in teaching English as a foreign language at university level can be viewed as a valuable technique in assisting students to significantly reduce interfering effects, thus improving their grammar and translation competence. Taking into account that the current grammar syllabi are focused on the description of the target language, the results of the research have also highlighted the importance of the revision of the existing syllabi in terms of an inclusion of a contrastive module within each undergraduate grammar course, thereby creating a solid basis for more successful transfer of structural knowledge into the actual language use.

References

Callies, M. (2008). Argument Realisation and Information Packaging in *Tough*-Movement Constructions: A Learner-Corpus-Based Investigation. In Danuta Gabrys-Barker (Ed.), *Morphosyntactic Issues in Second Language Acquisition* (pp. 29-46). Clevedon, Buffalo, Toronto: Multilingual Matters.

Filipović, Rudolf (Ed.). (1985). *Chapters in Serbo-Croatian –English Contrastive Grammar*. Zagreb: Institute of Linguistics.

Gass, Susan M., & Selinker, Larry (2008). *Second Language Acquisition – An Introductory Course.* 3rd edition. New York and London: Routledge.

Dubravčić, Maja (1985). A Contrastive Analysis of the English Present Perfect and Its Serbo- Croatian Correspondents. In Rudolf Filipović (Ed.), *Chapters in Serbo-Croatian English Contrastive Grammar* (pp. 247- 283). Zagreb: Institute of Linguistics.

Ellis, Rod (1997). *Second Language Acquisition*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Huddleston, Rodney, & Pullum, Geoffrey K. (2002). *The Cambridge Grammar of the English Language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Hundt, Marianne, & Smith, Nicholas (2009). The Present Perfect in American and British English: Has there been any change recently? *ICAME Journal*, 33, 45-63.

Johnson, A.P. (2005). *A Short Guide to Action Research.* 2nd edition. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Kothari, C.R. (2004). *Research Methodology: Methods and Techniques.* Delhi: New Age International.

Krahnke, Karl (1987). *Approaches to Syllabus Design for Foreign Language Teaching*. New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.

Lado, Robert (1957). *Linguistics across culture*. Ann Arbor: Michigan University Press.

Mackey, Alison, & Gass, Susan M. (2005). *Second Language Research Methodology and Design*. London: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Mertens, Craig A. (2012). *Action Research: Improving Schools and Empowering Educators*. London: SAGE Publications.

Mihailović, Ljiljana (1985). Passive Sentences in English and Serbo-Croatian. In Rudolf Filipović (Ed.), *Chapters in Serbo-Croatian – English Contrastive Grammar* (pp. 329 -423). Zagreb: Institute of Linguistics.

Oller, J., & Ziahosseiny, S. (1970). The contrastive analysis hypothesis and spelling errors. *Language Learning*, 20, 183-189.

Riđanović, Midhat (2007). *Praktična engleska gramatika*. Sarajevo: Šahinpašić.

Riđanović, Midhat (2012). *Bosnian for Foreigners with a Comprehensive Grammar*. Sarajevo: RABIC Publishing Company.

Stockwell, Robert, Bowen, Donald J., & Martin, John W. (1965). *The Grammatical Structures of English and Spanish*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Wardhaugh, R. (1970). The contrastive analysis hypothesis. *TESOL Quarterly*, 4, 123-30.

White, Theresa and McBurney, Donald (2012). *Research Methods*. Belmont: Wadsworth.

Whitman, Randal (1970). Contrastive analysis: Problems and procedures. *Language Learning,* 20, 29-41.

Žetko, Katarina Dea (2004). Adverbials with the Present Perfect Tense in BrE and AmE. In Diana Stolac, Nada Ivanetić, & Boris Pritchard (Eds.), *Suvremena kretanja u nastavi stranih jezika, Vol. 16* (pp. 513-527). Zagreb-Rijeka: Hrvatsko društvo za primijenjenu lingvistiku.

Žetko, Katarina Dea (2010). The Present Perfect and Preterite in British and American English. in Smiljana Komar & Uroš Mozetič (Eds.), *English Language Overseas Perspectives and Enquiries, Vol VI,* (pp. 27-46)

Data elicitation through language testing: Challenges of test design

Monika Černá
University of Pardubice, Czech Republic

Abstract: *The paper discusses the challenges of test design in the context of a research project focusing on the analysis of tertiary students' spoken production in English. One of the project aims is to create a corpus of learner-spoken English. The participants in the study are Czech first-year students in English language teacher education study programmes at three universities. In order to elicit samples of the students' oral production, a test of speaking, including a pronunciation subtest,was designed with respect to the research aims and objectives and in accordance with the current trends in the field. The challenges faced by the research team may be divided into three groups – those pertinent to the construction phase of the research instrument, the pilot phase, and the data-collection phase. The paper discusses how the team responded to the perceived challenges.The process of test designing was informed by relevant literature (e.g. Bachman, 1990, Hughes, 2003, Luoma, 2004);the team strove to achieve the highest possible level of 'test usefulness', i.e. test qualities including reliability, construct validity, authenticity, interactiveness, impact and practicality, as introduced by Bachman and Palmer (2009). Consequently, the decisions regarding the abilities that the candidates, prospective English teachers, should demonstrate, as well as the decisions about the test format (elicitation techniques, number of tasks, etc.), were made with respect to the proposed 'test usefulness'. The pilot phase confirmed the usability of the tool to elicit the required data, but also necessitated a few content- and procedure-related modifications. They reflected the results of the analysis of the performances recorded during the trial testing as well as the analysis of feedback questionnaires.Having revised the test, the researchers then implemented it in the data-collection processin three universities in the Czech Republic. The number of studentstested was 176.*

Keywords: *Diagnostic test, speaking, English, tertiary students, research*

Article History:
Submitted: 15.04.2014.
Accepted: 08.11.2014.

DOI Number:
10.14706/JFLTAL152115

Introduction

Data elicitation is inherent to any research, not excluding second language research. Depending on the aims of a study, various data elicitation techniques are used. Gass and Mackey (2011) place techniques on a continuum ranging from naturalistic data to prompted-production data and prompted-response data. Regarding the investigations of input and interaction, there has been a gradual move away from studying those aspects in natural settings (Ellis, 2008). Researchers often rely on clinical elicitation, i.e. prompted production and prompted response, through which samples of learner language are obtained. Gass and Mackey (2011) suggested specific examples of diverse elicitation techniques. Additionally, language tests may also be utilised to elicit data for a variety of research purposes such as 'research into the language ability itself, including the effects of different test taker characteristics on language test performance' (Bachman & Palmer, 2009, p. 99). This matches the focus of the research project[1] designed to investigate the influence of the Czech students' mother tongue on their communicative competence in spoken English in relation to the students' individual learning histories (Černá, 2013). The project is discussed in the paper with an emphasis on the challenges of test designing within its context.

Achieving a high level of communicative competence in the target language has been the core of the language teacher's expertise. Therefore, the project of a diagnostic nature has been targeted at Czech students' spoken production in English on the onset of university teacher education. The findings of the project will provide insights into the processes and outcomes of learning English as a foreign language in the Czech Republic, which may be found beneficial by educational institutions operating at all levels from the pre-primary to upper-secondary, namely for the purpose of curriculum design. The results will also function as feedback for Czech authors of English textbooks and as a basis for the design of new research-based teaching materials. Most importantly, the outcomes will be utilised in teacher education, research-based evidence will allow for the development of methodologies leading to a sound content knowledge base of trainee teachers. The project started in 2013; actions in the first year were centred on data-elicitation tools.

Challenges of test design

Testing or formal assessment in general is a complex and challenging matter; it is even more so with testing spoken language. Davis (2009) attributes the complexity to

[1] A three-year project, *Aspects of English Language Acquisition of Czech Students on the Onset of Teacher Education*, has been supported by the Czech Science Foundation (GA ČR 13-25982S).

the interaction of different factors and their influence on a final score. It is far beyond the scope of the paper to attempt to reiterate all the relevant factors, therefore, the major challenges perceived in the particular testing situation will be in focus.

Designing a test for research purposes

The priority of research is obvious in the testing situation explored in the paper. The team was supposed to construct a diagnostic test of spoken language that would elicit samples of learner language for the subsequent investigation of its variability. A set of structures to be included in the analysis has been identified on the basis of the following criteria(a) relevance of particular features to the grammar of spoken language, and (b) potential negative transfer from the mother tongue. Selected syntactic and discourse features comprise word order deviations (both incorrect and systemic caused by the nature of conversation), distribution of verbs typical of spoken discourse (functioning as discourse markers, main clauses or comment clauses), structures with non-finite verb complementation and the use of vagueness hedges (Ježková, 2012). Regarding pronunciation, the segmental and supra-segmental features of interest include the following: the front open vowel 'ash', the weak central mid vowel 'schwa', the voiced and voiceless dental fricatives, the labiovelar approximant /w/, the velar nasal, the pronunciation of word-final voiced consonants and non-initial primary word stress(Nádraská, under review). Apart from data elicitation the test administration is expected to impact on the students in the first year of the English major bachelor study programmes at three universities in the Czech Republic involved in the project. Being a diagnostic tool, the test should uncover the students' strengths and weaknesses in performing oral communication tasks. The diagnosis on entry to the programmes may lead to possible adjustments of syllabus objectives of relevant courses, e.g. language development courses, phonetics, phonology and syntax. Furthermore, the performance on the test is likely to influence the setting of the students' autonomous language development goals.

Considering the features of the particular testing situation, the research team aimed to achieve the highest possible level of 'test usefulness', which was proposed by Bachman and Palmer as 'a function of several different qualities, all of which contribute in unique but interrelated ways to the overall usefulness of a given test' (2009, p. 18). These include reliability, construct validity, authenticity, interactiveness, impact, and practicality; out of the listed qualities, authenticity will be at the centre of attention. Bachman and Palmer consider authenticity a critical quality of language tests (2009, p. 23) and define it 'as the degree of correspondence of the characteristics of a given language test task to the features of a TLU [target language use]task.' (ibid.). In order to achieve the highest possible level of authenticity, the team attempted to design a test that would be relevant to the target language use domain, i.e. that of teaching English as a foreign language. Reflecting

the variety of the target language-use tasks, it was desirable to design test tasks capable of eliciting samples of both monologic production and of student-student spoken interaction. Therefore, the paired format proved a necessity.

The researchers were aware of the advantages and caveats of the paired format reported in the papers on testing speaking (e.g. Galacsi, 2010). In discussing various task types O'Sullivan (2012) concluded that there were issues for less outgoing studentsin relation to interactive tasks. However, there seem to be other assets of the paired format that are worth considering. Galacsi (2010) enumerates studies that support the finding that oral paired tasks were more symmetrical in the interaction possibilities they created. Brooks (2009) reports that subjects in her study performed better in the paired format than they did in the individual format. While the latter tended to result in asymmetrical discourse, a variety of interactive features was distributed in a more balanced way in the former paired format. With the research aims in mind, those findings provided a substantial argument for involving the paired format. Nevertheless, there were other questions to answer, namely those related to the ways of pairing the test-takers. Two factors, reflecting the project aims, will be mentioned: the influence of interlocutor proficiency and learner acquaintanceship. The subjects in the study are students on entry to the tertiary education, i.e. the diagnosis is scheduled as soon as possible after the beginning of the academic year to prevent the impact of university education to contaminate the data. Before the diagnosis there is virtually no possibility for the researchers to learn either about the students' proficiency in English or about their social relationships in the newly constituted groups. Although there is some research evidence that subjects achieve higher scores when working with a friend (O'Sullivan, 2009), the acquaintanceship effect was ignored in this particular testing situation. The examinees could choose a partner, but it was based on availability rather than personal preference;however,thepotential existence of some interpersonal relationships cannot be excluded. Regarding a variety of proficiency levels, it was considered in the light of the study by Davis (2009) in which he investigates the effects of the proficiency level of an examinee's partner in a paired oral test. Davis concludes that the level of proficiency has little influence on scores, but in some cases the pairing type appears to influence language quantity or interaction characteristics (ibid.). In the context of the research project, a potential decrease of language quantity or eliciting a type of response other than expected would have detrimental impact on the obtained data. In order to prevent this, two information-exchange tasks with precisely defined roles were included together with an informal discussion. Whether the three interactive tasks provide space for each test-taker to produce the expected response should be verified in the pilot phase of the test construction process. Reflecting the research aims and with reference to relevant resources (e.g. Bachman, 1990, Hewings, 2004, Hughes, 2003, Luoma, 2004) and preliminary studies (Černá, Urbanová, &Vít, 2010,

Ježková, 2012), the team constructed a diagnostic speaking test with a pronunciation subtest. The table below presents selected test tasks' characteristics based on the framework proposed by Bachman and Palmer (2009).

		TYPE OF TASK	FORMAT	INPUT	EXPECTED RESPONSE	INPUT – RESPONSE RELATIONSHIP
SPEAKING	Introduction	Warm-up	Individual	Aural, Target language*, Language input: sentences, prompt = open-ended questions, Unspeeded*, Live*	Oral*, Target language*, Limited production response, Unspeeded*, Live*	Reciprocal, Narrow scope, Indirect
	Task 1	Sustained monologue	Individual	Aural, Language input: sentences, prompt = open-ended questions,	Extensive production response, Individual long turn	Non-reciprocal, Narrow scope, Indirect
	Task 2	Information transfer (asking/ giving detailed information about events, processes; telling what to do)	Paired	Visual, Language input: words, phrases, sentences, prompt = task sheet, Non-language input: pictures	Co-constructed, extensive production response, Transactional and interactional language	Reciprocal, Broad scope, Direct
	Task 3	Information transfer (see Task 2)	see Task 2	see Task 2	see Task 2	see Task 2

	Task 4	Informal discussion	Paired	Visual, Language input: phrases, sentences, prompt = issue to discuss, clues given	Co-constructed, extensive production response, Transactional and interactional language	Reciprocal, Narrow scope, Indirect
PRONUNCIATION	Task 5	Reading aloud: text	Individual	Visual, Language input: extended discourse, prompt = text (152 words)	Extensive production response	Non-reciprocal, Broad scope, Direct
	Task 6	Reading aloud: word list	Individual	Visual, Language input: words, prompt = wordlist (27 words)	Limited production response	Non-reciprocal, Broad scope, Direct

*The characteristics that remain the same are not repeated for each task.

Not only the test characteristics but also the topical content of a test plays an important role with respect to its authenticity. In this particular testing situation, the researchers explored a range of topics that would be appropriate to the test-takers with the following characteristics: young adults on the onset of their university teacher education, native speakers of Czech, the level of communicative competence approximately B2 according to the Common European Framework (Council of Europe, 2001). Topical knowledge was deliberately excluded not to favour certain test takers; all the information necessary to complete the tasks was prompted in the input or personal experience was called for. The topics were carefully considered to avoid those that might be perceived as sensitive by the test-takers; for example, the following topics were finally involved in the test: experience with learning English, renting a flat, student mobility, part-time jobs, the role of social networks in one's life, healthy eating, and plagiarism. Although overreaction to any of the topics was not expected, topic relevance was also examined in the pilot phase.

Trial testing

Challenges of the pilot phase were manifold. Since the respondents were recruited on a voluntary basis, the main challenge was to attain a sufficient number of cooperating students with such a set of characteristics that would be close to those of the prospective cohort. Furthermore, the implementation of the trial version of the test

was seriously constrained by the schedule of the academic year. In spite of all the problems the test was piloted with a group of first-year students. The performances were recorded and four of them were selected for a detailed analysis (fivewomen, three men). All the participants in the pilot study completed a feedback questionnaire after the performance and were invited to discuss any aspects of the performance with the researchers. The questionnaires and outcomes from the discussions were investigated too. Consistent with the objectives of this paper, only selected outcomes of the analyses will be presented, i.e. those focusing on the quantity of language produced by individual students inthe interactive tasks and topic relevance.

The analysis of the recorded performances was primarily targeted at test-takers' participation in the interactive tasks. Individual students varied in the total time spent onthetasks, and individual students alsospent a different amount of time on each of the tasks (see Chart 1 below). However, to judge the language quantity, the number of words is used as a criterion. When considered in relation to time, the difference between student 1 and student 2 (S1 – S2) in pair 1 has slightly diminished, the variation in pair 2 (S3 – S4) remained roughly the same but the differences in pairs 3 (S5 – S6) and 4 (S7 – S8) have magnified considerably (see Chart 2). Overall, the testees' personal attributes, along with thetopic and task characteristics, may account for the variation. Given that tasks 1 and 2 are in principle the same, the difference may be attributed to the topic (e.g. S8). Task 3 is of a dissimilar nature; therefore, it is uneasy to uncover the reasons for variation. Hypothetically, they may be linked to the task characteristics or topical content.

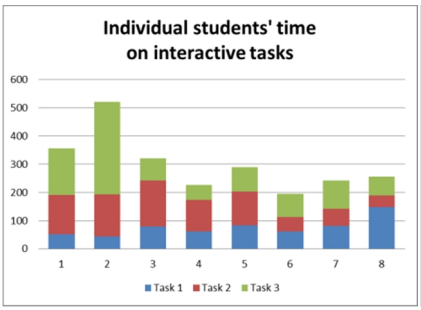


Chart 1

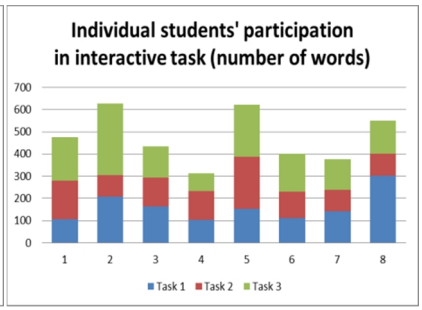


Chart 2

To find out the subjects' opinions about the topics, feedback questionnaires were analysed. Topics of individual tasks were evaluated positively; the respondents characterised them as relevant, useful and adequate to their life experience. Several topics initiated a certain level of emotional arousal; however, it concerned only positive emotions and the students appreciated it. No sensitive or inadequate topics were identified. Critical comments concerned the topic of plagiarism; interestingly, it was marked as irrelevant by pair 3. Obviously, none of the students had problems

discussing it (S5 – S6, Task 3). Observed quantitative differences in language production may be attributed to topic-related personal preferences.

Regarding the task characteristics, a few respondents pointed out that there was too much information on a task sheet. Consequently, all the sets of task sheets were revised in terms of language, informational relevance, and layout before the data-collection phase.

Test administration

Finally, the challenges experienced in the data collection phase should be mentioned. Since the research was conducted in three institutions located in diverse regions in the Czech Republic, it was demanding to prepare a schedule suitable for the participants as well as for the research team. Standardising the process of the test administrationwas another issue. It concerned not only testing conditions in the three institutions but also procedural aspects of the test. The total number of recorded students was 176. Threeacademics were involved in the data collection. As implied by the charts above, they occasionally failed to maintain internal consistency of time management. In situations when the discussion was evolving smoothly, the researchers provided discussants with unlimited time to finish the task.

Conclusion

The paper has deliberated the process of test construction in the context of a research project. While test has proved a valid technique of data elicitation, at the same time there seem to emerge certain tensions or potential conflicts. Most importantly, there exist conflicting needs of the research and those of the cooperating institutions. For example, the project required testing the students who meet the criteria to be included in the research sample; however, the test could fulfil its diagnostic function only if all the students were involved in the assessment. Thus there was an increased workload on the part of the researchers on the one hand but a positive impact on the studentson the other hand. Obviously, the research benefits the cooperating institutions, but at the same time interferes with their established procedures. Furthermore, the schedule of the research project is not necessarily in harmony with the academic-year schedule and time becomes a real issue.Lastly, there is an internal conflict of the two identities of the same person – that of a test designer and that of a researcher. The conflict is manifested in making decisions throughout the entire process of test construction. Apparently, project aims are prioritised and the decisions tend to be ‘research-friendly’.

References

Bachman, L. F. (1990).*Fundamental Considerations in Language Testing*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Bachman, L. F., & Palmer, A. S. (2009). *Language Testing in Practice*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Brooks, L. (2009). Interacting in pairs in a test of oral proficiency: Co-constructing a better performance. *Language Testing*,*26* (3), 341 – 366. doi: 10.1177/0265532209104666

Černá, M. (2013). Aspekty osvojování si anglického jazyka u českých studentů při vstupu do přípravného vzdělávání učitelů.In *Sborník příspěvků 21. výroční konference ČAPV Efektivita vzdělávání v proměnách společnosti*.Ústí nad Labem: UJEP.

Černá, M., Urbanová, Z., & Vít, M. (2010). Pronunciation awareness of students in English language study programme. In S. Válková (Ed.),*New trends in educating future teachers of English VI.* Olomouc: Palacký University.

Council of Europe (2001).*Common European Framework of Reference for Languages*.
Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Davis, L. (2009). The influence of interlocutor proficiency in a paired oral assessment. *Language Testing*,*26* (3), 367 – 396. doi: 10.1177/0265532209104667

Ellis, R. (2008). *The Study of Second Language Acquisition*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Galacsi, E. D. (2010). Paired Speaking Tests: An Approach Grounded in Theory and Practice. In J. Mader, &Z. Ürkün (Eds.), Recent Approaches to Teaching and Assessing Speaking. IATEFL TEA SIG Conference proceedings. Canterbury: UK: IATEFL Publications.

Gass, S. M., &Mackey, A. (2011). *Data Elicitation for Second and Foreign Language Research*. New York: Routledge.

Hewings, M. (2004). *Pronunciation Practice Activities*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Hughes, A. (2003).*Testing for Language Teachers*. 2nd edition. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Ježková, Š. (2012). Syntactic Deviations and Mistakes in Learners' Spoken English Language. In R. Trušník, K. Nemčoková, &G. J. Bell(Eds.), *Theories and Practices – Zlín Proceedings in Humanities, Volume 3*(pp. 223-232). Zlín: Tomáš Baťa University.

Luoma, S. (2004). *Assessing Speaking*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Nádraská, Z. (under review) A Pre-Diagnostic Stage of a Research Project: Selected Features of University Students' Pronunciation of English.

O'Sullivan, B. (2002). Learner acquaintanceship and oral proficiency test pair-task performance. *Language Testing*,*19* (3), 277 – 295. doi: 10.1191/0265532202It205oa

O'Sullivan, B. (2012). Assessing Speaking. In C.A. Coombe, P. Davidson, B. O'Sullivan, & S. Stoynoff (Eds.), *The Cambridge Guide to Second Language Assessment*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Learning foreign and indigenous languages: The case of South African universities

Paul Nkuna
University of South Africa, South Africa

Abstract: *Learning a language through another language is trivialto any type of language learning, whether it is the learning of a local or a foreign language. South Africa's language policy for higher education recommends the study of foreign languages (FLs) and indigenous languages.A decade after its adoption, the learning of a foreign or indigenous language in that foreign or that indigenous language, respectively, at universities has been overlooked. In essence, the learning of foreign languages at the country's universities dates back to the 19th century, when the first higher education institution,the South African College was established. At that College a Department of General Literature that offered Dutch, English, Latin and Ancient languages was established. English and Dutch teachers provided instruction in the English and Dutch language, respectively. The instructions involved theory, history and practice of English grammar and literature or Dutch grammar and literature. The learning of indigenous languages at the country's universities began in the 20th century under the departments of Bantu Studies. They were learnt through English, and then later through English andAfrikaans. The instructions involved theory, history and practice of English grammar and literature. The aim of this study is to gain knowledge on the different approaches that may be used to learn a foreign language and an indigenous language. The study focuses on the complex challenges facing the country's universities to adopt new, different and best models for the teaching of foreign and indigenous languages after many decades of using English and Afrikaans mediums. A case study method is used for this study. The emphasis is on the learning of foreign versus indigenous languages in South African universities (SAUs). The paper consists of an introduction, the theory of Grammar Translation Method (GTM), a case study on the learning of foreign versus South African indigenous languages (SAILs) at the SAUs, and a conclusion.*

Keywords: *foreign language, indigenous language, learning, English, Afrikaans*

Article History:
Submitted: 16.04.2014.
Accepted: 11.11.2014.

DOI Number:
10.14706/JFLTAL152116

Introduction

The Ministry of Education (2002) recommends "the development, in the medium to long-term, of South African languages as mediums of instruction in higher education, alongside English and Afrikaans"(p.15). Section 6(1) of the Constitution of South Africa, 1996 (Act 108 of 1996) confirms that "the official languages of the Republic are Sepedi, Sesotho, Setswana, siSwati, Tshivenda, Xitsonga, Afrikaans, English, isiNdebele, isiXhosa and isiZulu"(South Africa, 1996, p.14). The Ministry of Education (2002) also recommends "the study of foreign languages" (p.15).Section 6(2) of the Constitution of South Africa, 1996 (Act 108 of 1996) states, "recognising the historically diminished use and status of the indigenous languages of our people, the state must take practical and positive measures to elevate the status and advance the use of these languages"(South Africa, 1996, p. 14). By our indigenous languages, section 6(2) refers to nine of the 11 officialSouth African languages - isiNdebele, isiXhosa, isiZulu, Sepedi, Sesotho, Setswana, siSwati, Tshivenda, Xitsonga, Sepedi, Sesotho, Setswana, siSwati, Tshivenda, Xitsonga; including the Khoi, Nama and San languages; and South African sign language. Therefore, in this study I examined whether the learning of indigenous languages is different from the learning of foreign languages in the SAUs. TheGrammarTranslation Method (GTM) emerged as one of the tools used by SAU senates to relegate the learning of South African indigenous languages (SAILs) to the level of foreign language (FL) learning. The next section is the theory of GTM. This will be followed by the Case study and the conclusion.

The theory of the Grammar Translation method

Abdullah (2013) says the GTM is "one of the key methods applied for the teaching of foreign languages. It is a derivation of the classical (sometimes called traditional) method of teaching Greek and Latin" (p.124). Therefore, GTM was "based on the belief that different kinds of knowledge were located in separate sections of the brain" (Morales-Jones, 2011, p.64). Ducháčková (2006) says it is "considered to be one of the oldest methods and approaches in foreign language teaching" (p. 8). "Students learn grammatical rules and then apply those rules fortranslating sentences between the target language and their native language. Advanced students may be required totranslate whole texts word-for-word" (Abdullah, 2013, p.124). Therefore, Brown concludes that the focus on GTM is "on grammatical rules, memorisation of vocabulary and of various declensions and conjugations, translation of texts, doing written exercises" (Chang, 2011, p.15).Morales-Jones (2011) says "the main goal for learning was notfor speaking and/or communication. The driving force was to exercise the mind and at the same time to be able to read in that language" (p.64). Therefore, GTM was mainly designed to teach Latin and Ancient Greek, also known

as ‘dead’ languages, “based on the fact that people no longer speak Latin and Ancient Greek for the purpose of interactive communication”(The Grammar Translation Method, 2010, p. 1). In addition, Morales-Jones (2011) says another reason for studying those foreign languages, such as Latin or Greek was to appreciate the classics in their original language, and education was the privilege of an elite class, thus it was amarkof an educated person to be able to read the classics.

Abdullah (2013) confirms that GTM “by definition has a very limited scope. Because speaking or any kind of spontaneous creative output was missing from the curriculum, students would often fail at speaking or even letter writing in the target language”(p.125). It is surprising that GTMis “still used for the study of languages that are very much alive and require competence not only in terms of reading, writing and structure, but also speaking, listening and interactive communication” (The Grammar Translation Method, 2010, p.1).

Therefore, sources such as Morales-Jones (2011) and The Grammar Translation Method (2010) provide important points to be noted about GTM, such as its emphasis on teaching grammar and employing translation to ascertain comprehension; classes are taught in the mother tongue, with little active use of the target language; GTM does not produce speakers of the languages studied; much use of the native language is employed because the goal was not oral proficiency; teachers did not necessarily have to be fluent speakers of the target language because the focus was not on communication; it dominated public-school and university language teaching in the United States until World War II; much vocabulary is taught in the form of lists of isolated words; grammar provides the rules for putting words together, and instruction often focuses on the form and inflection of words; long elaborate explanations of the intricacies of grammar are given; often the only drills are exercises in translating disconnected sentences from the target language into the mother tongue; and little or no attention is given to pronunciation.

The Case study: learning of foreign versus indigenous languages in the SAUs

This case study comprises of five subsections: the problem, steps taken to review the problem, results, challenges and lesson learned.

The problem

The SAUs are failing to distinguish between the learning of the country’s indigenous languages and the learning of foreign languages. There is less research on what are the elements or ‘factors’ of the failure, and how they relate to one another. Therefore, it is necessary to investigate the problem. I will attempt to do so in relation to

language and race.Ashcroft (2001) says “to understand the link between language and race, we must go back long before the emergence of race as a category of physiological discrimination, to the uses of language in ‘othering’ the subjects of Europe’s colonial expansion” (p.311). Section 9(3) of the South African Constitution, 1996 (Act 108 of 1996)explains that the state may not unfairly discriminate directly or indirectly against anyone on race and language; and section 29(2) of this Constitution provides everyone the right to “receive education in the official language or languages of their choice in public educational institutions where that education is reasonably practicable” (South Africa, 1996, p. 14).A year later, the White Paper 3 disclosed the existence in the country’s higher education of an inequitable distribution of access and opportunity for students and staff along lines of race, and proposed that all institutions of higher education develop mechanisms to create a secure and safe campus environment that discourages harassment or any other hostile behaviour directed towards persons or groups on any grounds whatsoever, but particularly on grounds that include race and language(Ministry of Education, 1997a). Section 27 (2) of the Higher Education Act 101 of 1997states that “the council, with the concurrence of the senate, must determine the language policy of a public higher education institution” (Ministry of Education, 1997b, p.24). The White Paper 3 also identifies a three-fold mandate of higher education: Human resource development; high-level skills training; and production, acquisition and application of new knowledge (Ministry of Education, 1997a). The Ministry of Education (2001) cites important fields of study that could play an important role in contributing to the development of the African Renaissance that continues to be marginalised in SAUs. In this case it identifies, in particular, fields of study such as African–South African indigenous–languages and culture and African literature (not only in its English form). There are also promises to encourage the development of programmes in marginalised fields of study such as African (South African indigenous) languages as well as the more general restructuring of their curriculums to reflect an orientation towards Africa, in particular, South Africa. In addition, the Ministry of Education reveals the extension of the problem by the historically white Afrikaans-medium institutions that “are gradually moving towards the adoption of a combination of dual and parallel-medium language strategies, language continues to act as a barrier to access at some of these institutions”(Ministry of Education, 2001, p.37). Therefore, the language policy for higher education was published in 2002 with its promising recommendations for indigenous languages and foreign languages. This was followed by the Ministerial Committee (2005) report that singlesout conditions significantly conducive to the successful use of South Africa’s neglected indigenous languages, not only as mediums of instruction but also for their more enhanced use in the public domain, including the extent of literacy in the South African indigenous languages, official recognition of South African languages and use of South African languages in education.

Although the status of indigenous languages is raisedby the Constitution (supported by the Ministry of Education with White papers, National plans, Acts, policies and reports), fields of study such as South African indigenous languages are still marginalised in higher education. .

Steps undertaken to review the problem

Providing comprehensive advice on the importance of SAUs rethinking new approaches to improve the teaching of South African indigenous languages is an important part of the promotion and development ofSouth African indigenous languages. Three steps are outlinedto help the SAUs raise the status of SAIL learning.

Sensitising SAUs councils and their senates to the relationship of power and GTM

This is the first step undertaken. Activities include a review of the use of power and GTM on SAIL learning in the history of South African higher education system. The emphasis is on supplying information on the impact of power and GTM on SAIL teaching to the SAU councilsand their senatesto build evidenced-based arguments that will convince them. Power plays a role on the relegation of SAIL learning to the level of FL learning in SAUs.

Observation and analysis of the present state

Thisis the second step undertaken. Activities involvetheobservation and analysis of the present state of the South African indigenous-language teaching at SAUs. The emphasis is on supplying data on the teaching of South African indigenous languages versus foreign languages to SAU councils and their senates to build evidence-based arguments that will convince them.Power is still controlling the SAUs on the teaching of South African indigenous languages as if the target language were a foreign language.

Integration

This is the last step undertaken. Activities involve the integrating of the results from the first three steps. It involves supplying information on the link of the colonial, apartheid and present teaching of South African indigenous languages versus foreign languages to SAUcouncils and their senates.

Results

Results on power

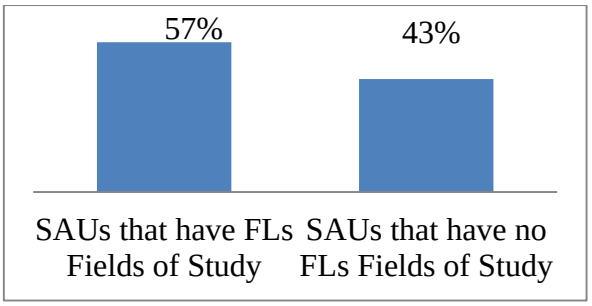
Power relegates the teaching and learning of SAILs to the level of teaching FLs through GTM. Power is one of the more contestable concepts in political theory, but it is conventional and convenient.Nye defined it as "the ability to effect the outcomes you want and, if necessary, to change the behavior of others to make this happen" (Gray, 2011, p.v).In power relations, "man has, through the ages, come to recognize the importance of being able to coerce the weak into following the strong" (Meyer, 2007, p.8).Nye (2006) identifies three basic ways to accomplish this – you can coerce them with threats, induce them with payments or attract and co-opt them.There are two types of power: hard power and soft power.Hard power is defined by Nye as the power that uses military or economic coercion to get others to change their position; he definessoft power as the national resources that allow a country to affect others through the co-optive means of framing the agenda, persuading, and eliciting positive attraction in order to obtain preferred outcomes (Trunkos, 2013). Thus, Nye (1990) confirms thatAfrica experienced hard power because the nineteenth-century great powers in Africa "carved out and ruled colonial empires with a handful of troops" (p. 162). TheAfrican Union (2006, p.3) confirms that the nineteenth-century great powers "led to the depersonalisation of part of the African peoples, falsified their history, systematically disparaged and combated African values, and tried to replace progressively and officially, their languages by that of the colonisers".The British were part of the nineteenth-century great powers. Nkuna (2010a) says the policy of the British colonies was "initially known as 'guardianship'. It was renamed 'partnership leading to independence within Commonwealth. It gave power to the English educated African elites" (Nkuna, 2010a, p.49).Louw and Kendal (1986) confirm that the British colonised South Africa in 1806. They say, "in 1813, the Governor, Cradock, announced that all future appointments would depend on the knowledge of English. From 1814 onwards, and especially after the arrival of the English settlers in 1820, English-speaking officials were appointed in increasing numbers and favoured in many ways. In 1822, English became the sole official language of the Cape" (Louw and Kendal, 1986, p.23).In the context of this study, Christie (1991) discloses that British authorities used education as "a way of spreading their language and traditions in the colony – and also as a means of social control" (p.34). "English became the primary language or language of tuition for the South African College (the first higher education institution) which was opened in 1829. Colonisation influenced the choice of languages for the College programmes" (Nkuna, 2010b, p.30). McKerron (1934) says that the College had a Department of General Literature (DGL) in which Dutch literature andEnglish, Latin and Ancient languages were taught.The teaching of indigenous languages was excluded at the

College. A classical method was used to teach Latin and Ancient languages at the DGL. Therefore, GTM was used to teach Latin and Ancient languages, and English and Dutch were the mediums of instruction in the Latin- and Ancient-language classes.

It took about 92 years from 1829 to introduce the study of SAILs in SAUs. Maseko (2011) assumes that "teaching, learning and research in these languages started in the early 1900s" (p.9). For instance, according to Mandela (1994),Professor DDT Jabavu, the member of staff first appointed when Fort Hare University opened in 1916, "was awarded a degree in English from the University of London… taught Xhosa, as well as Latin, history and anthropology"(p.52). Therefore, Maseko (2011) also reveals that the teaching of SAILs have "been through other languages, even when taught to mother-tongue speakers" (p.9). Thus, GTM was used for teaching and learning SAILs. All these are rejuvenated by Lalu (2011),who observes that The Milner Commission of Inquiry (1903 to 1905) is the first to "call for scientific studies of natives of South Africa … The connection of knowledge with the exercise of power may be gleaned in the formation in 1921 of the school of African life and languages at the University of Cape Town" (p. 8). The languages referred to in the quotation were the SAILs.

Results on observation and analysis of the present state

There are 23 SAUs observed. Not all 23 SAUs have FL fields of study (seeFigure1).
Figure 1. Percentage of SAUs with and without FL Fields of Study



From Figure 1, 13 (57%) of the 23 SAUs choose their offerings from languages representing hard power (Arabic, Dutch, French, Italian, Portuguese, German and Spanish); Latin and Ancient languages (Greek and Hebrew); and an emerging soft power in the global arena (Mandarin).The courses are taughtat the beginner levelusing English as themedium of instruction and GTM.SAUs that do not have FL

Fields of Study are predominantly universities of technology (see Figure 2).“Universities of technology focus on skills and professions” (Nkuna, 2010b, p.159). It means the learning of FLs is not necessary for skills and professions, but it is necessary for theory and scientific research. However, the GTM was adopted for teaching and learningSAILs in all three types of SAUs.

Figure 2. Percentage ofSAUs that do not have FL Fields of Study

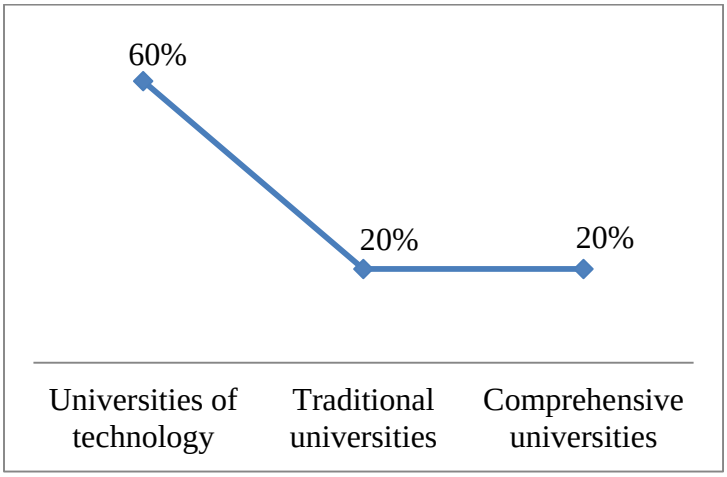
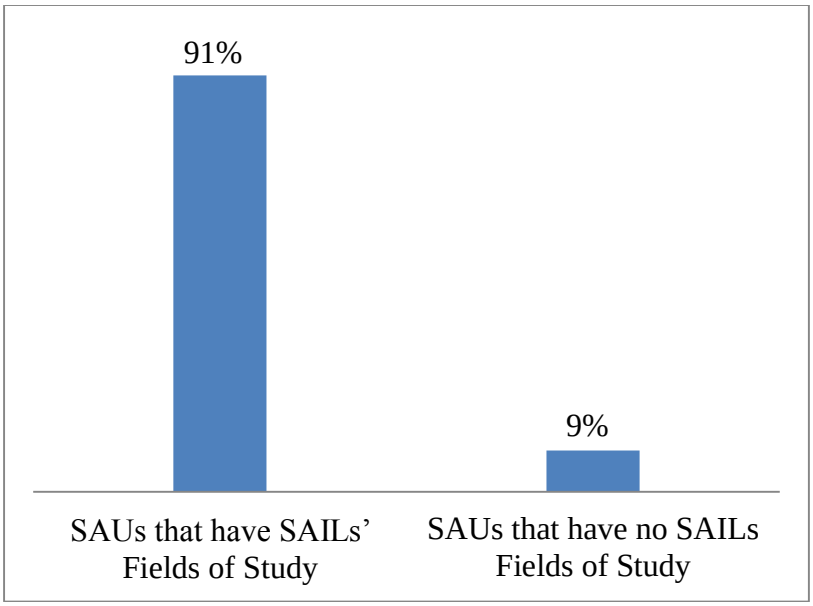


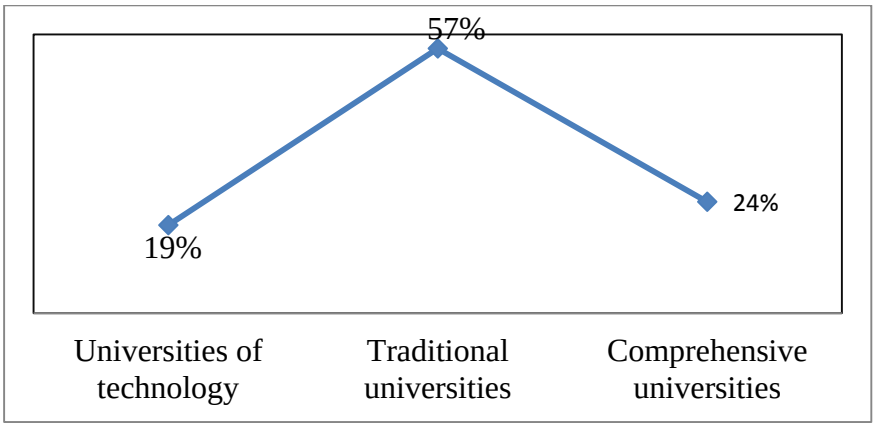
Figure 3. outlines the percentage of SAUs with and without SAIL fields of study.

Figure 3. Percentage of SAUs with and without SAIL Fields of Study



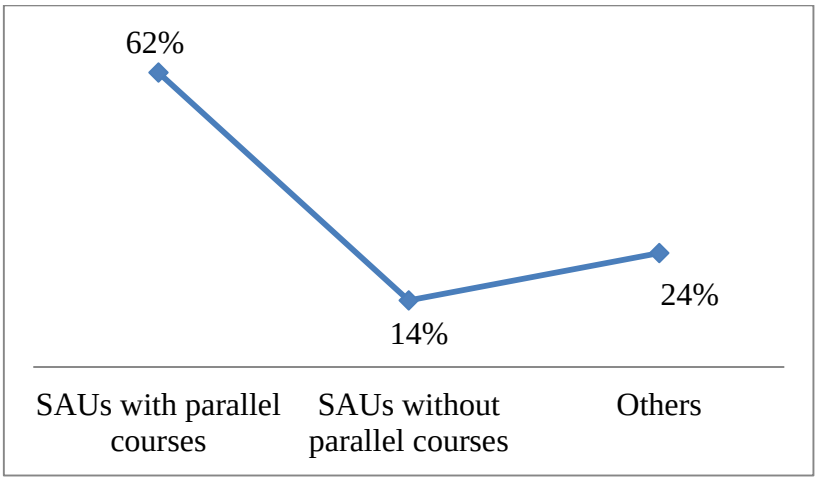
Only two (9%) of the SAUs do not offer SAILs. These are universities of technology that are expected to produce skills and professions. However, the 21 (91%) of the 23 SAUs that have SAIL Fields of Study include universities of technology, traditional universities and comprehensive universities. Figure 4 outlines the percentage of SAUswithSAILfields of study.

Figure 4. Percentage of SAUs that have SAIL Fields of Study



From Figure 4, only the four(19%) of the 21 SAUs provide learning to students with skills for professions. The remaining 17 (89%)provide theory and scientific research. The comprehensive SAUs are dominated by traditional ones, even in their own space, and focus on theory and scientific research. Most SAUs are now beginning to offer parallel courses for SAILs (see Figure 5).

Figure 5. Percentage of SAUs with or without SAIL parallel courses and others



From Figure 5, 13 (65%) of the 21 SAUs provide SAIL learning as non-mother tongue and mother-tongue courses.The non-mother tongue modules are mainly referred to as beginner's courses. The medium of instruction remains English.

Results on integration

I assessed the results on 3.2.1 and 3.2.2 to help thecouncils and their senates from the 23 SAUs to understand the competition between FL learning and SAIL learning in the country's universities. The assessment indicates that FL and SAIL learning have equal status at SAUs. They are all learned as L2 or below L2 status. The hegemony of English is increasing and the Mandarin language of China is already offered at three of the 23 SAUs.The Mandarin offerings arebacked by theChinese Confucius Institute for Language and Arts, already established at three SAUs.

Challenges

Power is the major challenge facing the SAUs on SAIL teaching. The hard power of the colonial powers wassustained through English hegemony. The emergence of globalisation andthe information age add to the sustainability of colonial power and create soft power.SAILs continue to diminish to the level of Latin and the Ancient languages. In addition, there is no progress on the learning of SAILs and students from SAIL classes do not know how to communicate using SAILs. Furthermore, the SAUs prefer to offer an FL rather than offering SAILs.For instance, you may find an SAU offering all 12 FLs and only one SAIL. In addition, FLs can have their own Departments,withpriority mostly given to theEnglish language, but SAILs are grouped together to form African Languages Departments.

Beyond the results

An integrated approach to SAIL learning in SAUs should be established.This should be done in consideration of their official status. All stakeholders should support such a project.

Lesson learned

The intervention showed that there is still a long way to go for SAIL learning at SAUs. Important factors on the development and promotion of SAILs in SAUs are still overlooked. Inclusion of SAILs for the sake of satisfying the call for their inclusion without commitment by the councils and their senates in the country's universities is common.

Conclusion

FL learning at SAUs surpasses the learning of SAILs. Hard power created in 19th century still prevails and soft power is emerging. The hard power seems to have created African elites whoprefer English rather than indigenous languages.

References

Abdullah, S.S. (2013). A Contrastive Study of the Grammar Translation and the Direct Methods of Teaching. *ICBEMBS*, 26-27 January: 124-128. Retrieved from http://psrcentre.org/images.

African Union. (2006). *Charter for African Cultural Renaissance.*http://au.int/en/sites/default

Ashcroft, B. (2001). Language and Race. *Social Identities*, Vol.7, No. 2: 311-328. Doi: 10.1080/1350463012008790.

Chang, S.C.(2011). A Contrastive Study of Grammar Translation Method and Communicative Approach in Teaching English Grammar. *English Language Teaching*, Vol. 4, No. 2: 13- 24.Doi:10.5539/elt.v4n2p13.

Christie, P. (1991). *The Right to Learn: The Struggle for Education in South Africa.*Braamfontein, BN: Ravan Press.

Ducháčková, S. (2006).Methods and Approaches in Foreign Language Teaching. Retrieved fromhttp://is.muni.cz/th/68503/pedf_m/Diploma_Thesis.pdf.

Gray, C.S. (2011). *Hard Power and Soft Power: The Utility of Military Force as an Instrument ofPolicy in the 21st Century*.Carlisle, US: Strategic Studies Institute.

Lalu, P. (2011). Restless natives, native questions,*Mail & Guardian*. 26 August: 1.

Louw, L. & Kendall, F. (1996). *South Africa: The Solution.*Norwood: Amagi Publications.

Lund, T. (2014). Power Education 'is Behind Joblessness': No Dividend From Drop in SA Poverty Rate. *Business Day. 10 April:1-2.*

Mandela, N.R. (1994).*Long Walk to Freedom.* London, LN: Abacus.

Maseko, P. (2011). Looking in all the wrong places for real learning. *Mail & Guardian.* 26 August: 8.

McKerron, M.E. (1934). *A History of Education in South Africa.* Pretoria, PTA: J.L. Van Schaik.

Meyer, M. (2007). *An Exploration of the Role of Soft Power in Hegemony: the USA and China.*Retrieved from www.scholar.sun.ac.za/bitstream.

Ministerial Committee.(2005).*The Development of Indigenous African Languages asMediums of Instruction in Higher* Education. Pretoria: N. S. Ndebele.

Ministry of Education. (1997a).*Education White Paper 3: A Programme for the Transformation Of Higher Education.* Pretoria:S. M .E .Bengu.

Ministry of Education. (1997b). *Higher Education Act 101 of 1997*. Pretoria: Juta & Company Limited

Ministry of Education. (2001). *Draft National Plan for Higher Education in South Africa*. Retrieved from http://www.unisa.ac.za.

Ministry of Education .(2002). *Language Policy for Higher Education.*Pretoria: T. Mbeki.

Morales-Jones, C.A. (2013).Methods/Approaches of Teaching ESOL: A Historical Overview. In H. Zainuddin, N.Yahya, C.A. Morales-Jones, &E.N.W. Ariza (Eds.), *Fundamentals of Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages in K–12 Mainstream Classrooms* (pp. 63-74). Dubuque, Kendall Hunt Publishing Company.

Nkuna, P.H. (2010a). *The 11 Official Languages: An Advantage for South Africa.* Midrand, MD: Hlovasi Productions.

Nkuna, P.H. (2010b). *The Fit between Government Language Policies and Institutional Language Policies: The Case of Indigenous Languages in the South African Higher Education System*. Retrieved from http://uir.unisa.ac.za.

Nye, J.S. (1990).Soft Power. *Foreign Policy*, No. 80, Twentieth Anniversary (Autumn):153-171. URL: htt://links.jstor.org/sici?sici= 005.

Nye, J.S. (2006). *Soft Power, Hard Power and Leadership*. Retrieved from http://www.hks.harvard.edu.

South Africa. (1996). *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa No. 108 of 1996*. Pretoria: GovernmentPrinters.

TheGrammar Translation Method (January). (2010). Retrieved *from*www.englishraven.com.

Trunkos, J. (2014).*What Is Soft Power Capability and How Does It Impact Foreign Policy?*Retrieved from http://www.culturaldiplomacy.org/academy/content/pdf.

The importance of value attitudes in solving intercultural conflicts

Roma Kriaučiūnienė
Vilnius University, Lithvania

Abstract: *The contemporary world is complicated and we face many difficult problems that sometimes can turn into conflicts that have to be resolved. As S. L. Dolan (2011) claims, these problems are: environmental pollution, human alienation, unemployment, crimes, drug addiction, disintegration of the family, mistreatment of the elderly, unequal distribution of wealth, food, educational opportunities, and many more. These challenges cause chaos and disturb the established sense of values across cultures. Some Lithuanian researchers (Aramavičiūtė, 2005) also maintain a view that such chaos has a major influence on people's psychological condition as they lose the sense and meaning of life, which has a negative impact on their intra- and inter-relations.Documents from the EU also highlight the need for educational institutions to promote social cohesion, intercultural dialogue, diversity and equality. The development of personal and social skills and respect for human dignity and shared values are considered to be essential forthe resolution of intercultural problems.*

The article is based on the research into the cognitive-notional component of value attitudes among students of management and foreign languages. The criteria were the acknowledgement of the importance of values and the depth of understanding of the meaning of values. The conclusion is that students have to be prepared to understand the world, its cultural variety and values, think critically, andmake a stand against injustice.Only then can there be hope for life without prejudice, violence and contempt. Educational institutions have a huge and indispensible responsibility in this respect (Popovici, 2006).

Keywords: *value attitudes, acknowledgment of the importance, depth of understanding, moral values, intercultural competence*

Article History:
Submitted: 22.04.2014.
Accepted: 22.11.2014.

DOI Number:
10.14706/JFLTAL152117

Introduction

Intercultural communication in our contemporary globalised world takes place in all walks of life: political, economic, social and educational. Sometimes this communication might become complicated.Difficult intercultural problems may occur that can develop into disputes and conflicts. Understanding the behaviour of the representatives of other cultures,anticipating the points at which communication may break down and knowing how to deal with emerging problemsrepresent vital skills that we all need in order to communicate successfully in different intercultural contexts. J. W. Neuliep (2006) suggests thatin order to make intercultural communication more effective, one has to have intercultural competence, which enables a person to predict beliefs, attitudes, values and behaviour of others and interact with people from other cultures more successfully.Therefore,institutions of education, as the EU documents highlight, have to take up the responsibility to develop intercultural competence among learners andto promote social cohesion, intercultural dialogue, diversity and equality.

Obviously, when we communicate between different cultures, values become especially significant. Values, as B. Tomalin and M. Nicks (2007) suggest, constitute the so-called "psyche of a country": They determine expectations people might have about one another as well as their behaviour. In other words, recognizing and responding to values is vital to building the cultural chemistry of relations.

However, the reality is that sometimes values might be in conflict and intercultural communicatorsmust decide whether or not to adapt to other culture's values. This can be a difficult process that will very much depend on the context and the situation. As some philosophers (Wick, Freeman, Werhane, Martin, 2010) state, both relativistic and ethnocentric stances eliminate the need for moral reflection and discussion about one's values and may create problems in further relationships. The same authors suggest that the way out might be universal values or universal moral principles that cut across different cultures and upon which most people can at least agree, such as *fairness, justice, helping others in distress*, etc.

While solving problems that emerge in intercultural relationships, we have to evaluate a situation and make a judgment with respect to thesocial and personal consequences of potential behaviour, as well as acknowledge or reject the arguments for or against a problem with an orientation on values, as the criteria of evaluation. Therefore, the need to understand the meaning of values, focusing not only on one's personal but other people's needs and interests and the possible consequences of the actions are of paramount importance. Thus, **the object** of the research is understanding of importance and meaning of values.

The **aim of this article**is to present the results of research into the cognitive-notional and behavioural components of value attitudes among students of management and foreign languages. In order to achieve the aim the following **objectives** were set:

1) to reveal the acknowledgement of the importance of values among students of management and foreign languages;
2) to determine the depth of understanding of the meaning of values amongstudents of management and foreign languages.

Methodological background of the research

The research was based on an analysis of the phenomenon of value attitudes. Psychological literature presents theoretical and empirical research into attitudes, which prove that attitudes can predict, determine and modify a person's behaviour, and control his/her cognitive and emotional processes. The*one-component* attitude model consists of an affect towards, or evaluation of, the object, which does not necessarily have an effect on a person's behaviour (Stahlberg, Frey, 1988).The *two-component* attitude model is an integral unity of cognitive and affective components, inseparable from one's behaviour and having a consistent influence upon it, thus providing the greatest possibility to infer and understand people's behaviour (Lind (1996, 2004). The*three-component* attitude model comprises interconnected cognitive, affective and behavioural components; an analysis of the content of these components allows for better prediction of an attitude influence upon one's behaviour (Hogg &Vaughan, 2005). Thus, the attitude is defined as *the unity of relatively enduring, persisting, positive or negative evaluations, emotional experiences, predispositions and behavioural tendencies towards socially significant objects.*

Lithuanian scientists of education (Aramavičiūtė, 2005; Bitinas, 2000; Jovaiša, 2007) investigate attitudes mainly following the attitude theory developed by D. Uznadzė (1966) and his school's representatives, according to which an attitude object is an interrelation between a particular need and the situation that can satisfy that need. The majority of authors support D. Uznadzė's view that value orientations expressing the motivational content of a personality are considered to be one's main attitude. Within the system of value orientations, moral values are regarded to be especially significant, laying the foundation for value attitudes.

The choice and acknowledgement of moral values, as V. Aramavičiūtė (2005) suggests, depends on traditions, attitudes and context that prevailwhere any individual resides. On the one hand, values influence attitudes, but on the other, attitudes determine the choice of values and certain behavioural tendencies. S. L. Dolan considers values to be:

Strategic lessons learned and maintained. These lessons teach us that one way of acting is better than its opposite if we are to achieve our desired outcome(s)—that is, our values and value systems guide our behaviour toward that which we think will turn out well for us. Thus, to the extent that they constitute deliberate or preferentially strategic choices, in the medium to long term, for certain ways of behaving and against others, toward the survival or good life of a particular system, values form the nucleus, the DNA, of human liberty." (Dolan, 2011, p. 87)

Obviously, there are many classifications of values; philosophers still cannot agree upon the hierarchy of values and controversial discussions among scientists (philosophers, psychologists, scientists of education) are ongoing. T. H. McLaughlin (1997), for example, claims that most of the discussions in contemporary democratic societies evolve around the choice of moral values. Being a representative of a liberal educational trend, he suggests that there should be *societal values*, which, due to their inevitably fundamental nature, should be obligatory to all the members of the society and *personal values* that could be chosen by everyone freely.

Whatever numerous and complicated classifications of values might be, there has been a trend to give priority to moral values: *solidarity, peacefulness, respect* and*love*, which usually manifest themselves in relationships with oneself, others and the world at large. Therefore, the research aims to identify which moral values the respondents acknowledge to be the most important and how they understand their meaning. The choice of these moral values was based on philosophers' (Halder, 2005; Hildebrand, 1950; Williams, 2002; Žemaitis, 1977) and scientists' of education (Aramavičiūtė, 2005; Bitinas, 2000; Elliott, 2004; Jovaiša, 2003; Huitt, 2004; Martišauskienė, 2004) viewpoints.

To investigate the *cognitive-notional* level of value attitudes the *inventory of moral values* was used;this inventory helped researchers in their attempt to elucidate the respondents' level of acknowledgment of the importance of moral values. The inventory contained eight moral values: *responsibility, respect, tolerance, sensitivity, fairness, altruism, openness,* and *self-respect*. The respondents' understanding of the significance of three moral values (*responsibility, openness* and *altruism*) was assessed as well.

Research methods

Theoretical:Analysis, comparison, evaluation of psychological, philosophical, pedagogical literature, on the basis of which a theoretical-empirical model of moral attitudes and the research instrument were created.

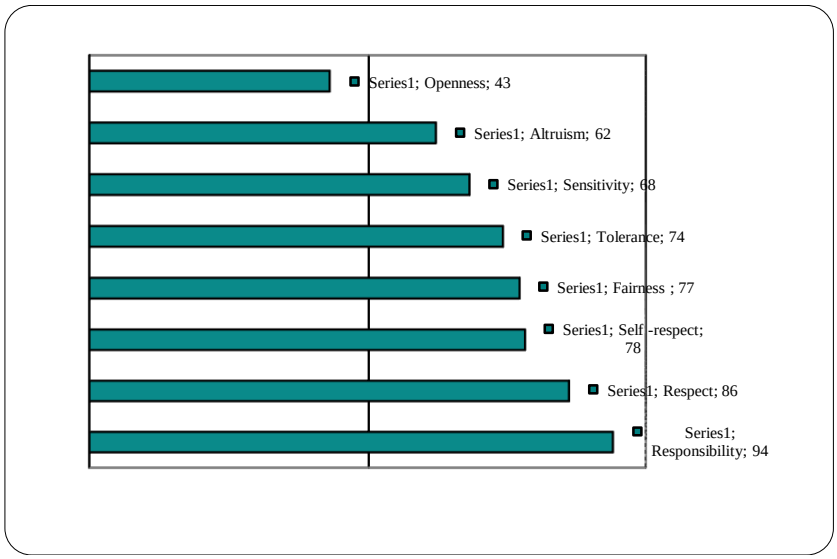
Empirical:A student*survey* was carried outthat aimed at finding outabout the respondents' acknowledgment of the importance of moral values and to determine the depth of their understanding of the meaning of values. The research instrument was an original *questionnaire*that was developed on the basis of the theoretical-empirical model of moral attitudes and the inventory of eight moral values (*responsibility, respect, tolerance, sensitivity, fairness, altruism, openness* and *self-respect*), the latter being defined according to V. Aramavičiūtė's (2004) research methodology. Evaluation criteria: *theacknowledgment of the importance of moral values, the depth of understanding of the significance of moral values*. The respondents were asked to prioritize values according to their importance on a five-point scale, as well as to substantiatethe personal and social meaning of moral values by answering open questions.

Statistical:Statistical research methods: descriptive statistics (absolute and percentage frequency, mean, Chi square criterion. The research data was processed using 12th version of the SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences).
The research samplewas 134 students (42male, 92female) of management and foreign languages at Vilnius University. The research was carried out in 2013.

Research results

Cognitive-notional level of value attitudes: the acknowledgment of the importance of moral values. In the process of the analysis of the cognitive-notional level of value attitudes, an attempt was made to determine the level of *the acknowledgment of the importance of moral values* by the students of management and foreign languages (English, Spanish, French and Russian). The *acknowledgment of the importance of moral values* was considered to be *the evaluation criteria*. The respondents were asked to evaluate moral values on a five-point scale. If they thought that a moral valuewas very important, that was considered to be a *very high* acknowledgment of a moral value; if a moral value was considered to be important, that signified a *high* acknowledgment; if the respondents thought that a moral value was only partly important, then the acknowledgment of the importance of it was considered to be *average*; if the respondents found it difficult to determine what the value meant to them, then its importance was *low*; and if the respondents thought that the value wasinsignificant, then its importance was considered to be *very low*. This helped to determine which moral values were considered to be of the highest priority to the respondents, which were of average importance and which they considered to be least significant. The following research results were obtained on moral values that the respondents rated as *very high*or*high*(Fig. 1):

Figure 1. The acknowledgment of the importance of moral values by the students of management and foreign languages.

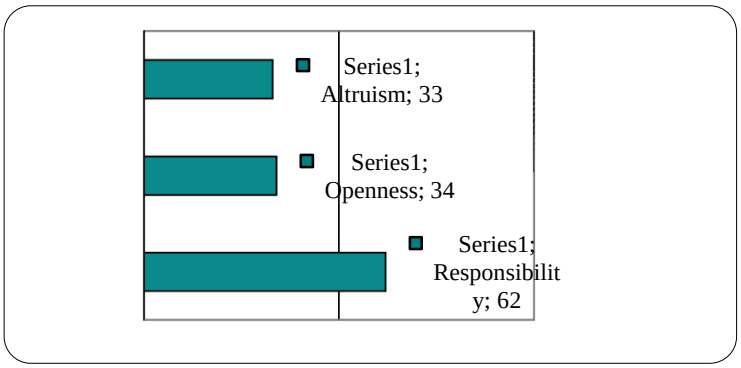


The majority of respondents (94%) considered *responsibility* to be thehighest priority. The second most-important moral value appeared to be *respect* (86%). Third place was shared by the values of *self-respect* and *fairness* (78% and 77% respectively). The value of *tolerance* was also valued quite highly by the research participants (74%). Although s*ensitivity* and *altruism* were considered to be important by far more than half of the respondents, they still appeared at the low end of the scale of the importance of moral values (68% and 62% respectively), while *openness* seemed to be least valued, as less than a half of the research participants (43%) acknowledged it to be important. Thus it could be claimed that the acknowledgement of moral values by the students of management and foreign languages is very high and high. This is undoubtedly a very positive phenomenon as values such as responsibility, respect and faithfulness are core moral values; and, as the philosopher D. Hildebrand (1950) claims, they lay a solid foundation for any person's life. Similarly,American researcher T. Lickona (1991) suggests that respect and self-respect are the main moral values.

Cognitive-notional level of value attitudes: the depth of understanding of the importance of moral values. During the research, an attempt was made to reveal how the respondents could interpret the meaning of moral values that they considered to be more or less important. As the Lithuanian scientist V. Aramavičiūtė (2005) suggests, deep understanding of the notion of moral values can alleviate their realisation in real-life situations; in other words, values can turn into the domineering driving force, motivating and directing a certain behaviour in a person. In the process of analysing the cognitive level of value attitudes from this perspective, the *depth of understanding of the meaning* of values was considered to be the evaluation criteria. If the respondent, while defining the meaning of one or the other value, focused not only on his/her own needs and moral well-being that were dependent on a particular value, but on the other person's as well,the understanding of that value was considered to be *very deep*; if a person's interpretation of the value's meaning concentrated only on his/her needs and his/her well-being that were dependent on the realisation of a particular value, and this helped him/her turn into a more mature person, then the understanding of its meaning was considered to be *deep*; if a person concentrated only on his/her hedonistic and egoistic needs, then the meaning was considered to be *not very deep*; if a person only stated the importance of the value, but failed to explain its social and personal meaning, then it was considered to be *lacking depth*or a*shallow or superficial* understanding of a moral value; if the interpretation was erroneous or a person could not describe what the value meant for him/her, the respondent'sunderstanding was considered *very shallow* or even *erroneous*.

The research aimed to determine the students' understanding of the meaning of values of *responsibility*, *openness* and *altruism*. Therefore, they were asked to provide arguments as to why they prioritised these values in one wayor another. Having analysed their answers to these open questions according to the abovementioned criteria, the following results were obtained,as presented in Figure 2 below (Fig. 2).

Figure 2. The depth of understanding of the significance of moral values by the students of management and foreign languages.



Evidently the students demonstrated the best understanding of the value of *responsibility*, which the majority of them considered to be the most important value. More than half of the respondents revealed deep or very deep understandings of responsibility, whereas deep or very deep understandings of the meaning of *altruism* and *openness* were presented by only one third of respondents.

Among the answers provided by the students, very mature and very positive interpretations and deep understandings of the importance of moral values could be found: <*when you act responsibly, you can be trusted, and the feeling of trust grows in the society and that improves our relations*>, <*having lost one's belief in the goodness of others, it could be impossible to live in our society*>, <*giving is one of the most honourable values that nurtures one's sensitivity and honesty, which in turn helpus live in our society*>, <*it is very important to do good things wholeheartedly and sincerely, it should be done without seeking any profit or benefit for oneself, otherwise it is meaningless*>, <*if we do not seek any material benefit by helping others, then we become more morally mature people*>, <*it is very important to take care of others, otherwise we lose our humanity*>, <*by giving more to others, business gains a more "human face*">.

However, the following extracts from the students' answers reveal a greater focus on their own well-beingrather than on thatof others: <*people are mostly selfish, you should be able to differentiate that*>, <*we are all selfish and we first of all take care of the well-being of our families and only then we can take care of others*>, <*taking care of others is complete nonsense*>, <*some people only pretend to be good – you cannot trust them completely*>, <*you cannot take care of others if you want to gain benefit for yourself*>,<*one's well-being is in the first place, you can only give advice to others, but not take care of them*>, <*believing in others can be harmful to oneself*>.

Conclusion

The results of the research show that the students of management and foreign languages demonstrated to have a mature cognitive-meaningful level of value attitudes. The most important values for them were *responsibility and respect*, while the values of *self-respect, fairness and tolerance* were considered to be important. Therefore, the conclusion can be made that the students will acknowledge these values later on in their professional careers. However, valuessuch as *altruism* and *openness*, which are of great relevance for socially responsible business and sustainable development, avoidance of conflicts, peaceful co-existence of different people within one culture and in contacts with representatives of other cultures, were considered to be the least significant. It should also be mentioned that these results are similar to other research carried out in Lithuania with senior schoolchildren, where *responsibility* was considered to be the most important value by more than half, but less than half took the same view of*altruism* (Aramavičiūtė, 2005). Another studyby D. Verbylaitė (2005) with future religion teachers also showed a similar priority of values: *respect* - most important (more than half), followed by *sensitivity* and *responsibility* (more than a third).

Although the respondents showed a very high acknowledgment of the importance of moral values, the understanding of the meaningfulness of these moral values was not very deep. Just over half of the respondents demonstrated a depth of understanding of thepersonal and social meaning of *responsibility*, whereas *altruism* and *openness* were perceived deeply by only one third of the respondents. Given these research results, we may conclude that the cognitive-meaningful level of value attitudes among the students of management and foreign languages is not very mature. Therefore, educational institutions have a huge and indispensible responsibility to nurture students' value attitudes and strengthen their capacity to interact with different people and develop their readiness to care more about others – all of which are critical to their personal, social and professional lives, as well as to maintaining much more effective intercultural relationships in an increasingly diverse educational environment.

Reference

Aramavičiūtė V. (2005). Auklėjimas ir dvasinė asmenybės branda. Vilnius: "Gimtasis žodis"

Bitinas B. (2000).Ugdymo filosofija. Vilnius: Enciklopedija.

Dolan S. L. (2011). Coaching by values. iUniverse Publishing

Elliott D.C. (2004). Moral Values for Public Education. Academic Exchange Quarterly, 8, 1.

Halder A.(2005). Filosofijos žodynas. Vilnius: Alma Littera.

Hildebrand D. (1950). Fundamental Moral Attitudes. Retrieved February 18, 2007 from http://www.ewtn.com/library/thelogy/funmore.htm

Hogg A., Vaughan G. M. (2005). Social Psychology. Pearson Education Limited.

Huitt W. (2004). Moral and Character Development. Educational Psychology Interactive. Valdosta, GA: Valdosta State University.

Jovaiša L. (2007) Enciklopedinis edukologijos žodynas. Vilnius:

Gimtasis žodis

Jovaiša L. (2003). Hodegetika. Vilnius: Agora.

Lind G. (1996). Testing Moral Judgement Competence. A Response to Rest, Thoma and Edwards. Retrieved August 23, 2011 from: http://www.uni-konstanz.de/ag-moral/b-publik.htm

Lind G..(2004). The Meaning and Measurement of Moral Judgement Competence: A Dual – Aspect Model. *Measurement of Moral Competence*. Retrieved August 23, 2011 from: http://www.uni-konstanz.de/ag-moral/b-publik.htm

Martišauskienė E.(2004). Paauglių dvasingumas kaip pedagoginis reiškinys. Vilnius: VPUl-kla.

McLaughlin T.H. (1997). Šiuolaikinė ugdymo filosofija: demokratiškumas, vertybės, įvairovė. Kaunas: Technologija.

Neuliep J. (2006). *Intercultural communication. A contextual approach.* 3rd ed. California: Sage Publications, Inc.

Popovici R. (2006). Integration of Citizenship, human rights and Language Education. In: *Coherence of Principles, Cohesion of Competences. Exploring theories and designing materials for teacher education* (pp. 59 -69). European Centre for Modern Languages: Council of Europe Publishing..

Stahlberg D., Frey D. (1988). Attitude I: Structure, Measurement and Functions. *In* Hewstone M., Stroebe W., Codol J.P., Stephenson G.M.(Eds.). *Introduction to Social Psychology*. Basil Blackwell Ltd.

Tomalin B., Nicks M. (2007). The World‘s Business Cultures and How to Unlock Them. London: Thorogood Publishing.

Verbylaitė D. (2005). Būsimųjų religijos švietėjų dvasingumas ir jo tobulinimo galimybės universitete. Daktaro disertacija. Kaunas: Vytauto Didžiojo universiteto leidykla.

Wick A. C., Freeman R. E. , Werhane P. H., Martin K. E. (2010). Business Ethics. A Managerial Approach. Pearson: Prentice Hall.

Williams T. (2002). Is There a Hierarchy of Values? Retrieved March 11, 2009 from: http://regnumchristi.org/english/imprimir/index.phtml

Žemaitis V.(1997). Pedagoginis etiketas. Vilniaus pedagoginis universitetas, Lietuvos etinės kultūros draugija “Ethos“. Vilnius: Lietuvos etinės kultūros draugija “Ethos“.

Узнадзе Д. Н. (1966). Псичологическое иследования. Москва: Наука.

Academic Writing Proficiency: The Role Of Academic Writing Instruction In Efl Preparatory Programs

Ryan Mcdonald & Hannah Murtagh
Koç University, Turkey

Abstract: *In studies of writing, linguistic proficiency has been assumed to play an important factor contributing to writing proficiency (Raimes, 1987; Bereiter&Scardamalia, 1987; Hayes 1996). Additional factors such as "cognitive" processes (i.e. planning and reviewing) (Ellis, 2005), memory (McCutchen, 1996, Alamargot&Chanquoi, 2001), and the matter of the quality of writing and lexical fluency (Van Gelderen&Oostdam; 2002, 2004) and error correction (Ferris & Roberts, 2001; Ferris;1999, 2002, 2004) have been among the focus areas. This study examines whether instruction in a university preparatory EFL program increases the quality of writing. A typical criticism from university academic writing classes often argues that short preparatory programs do not produce able, coherent, and proficient writers as preparatory reading and writing programs face the dual challenge of integrated skills instruction as well as covering many of the conventions of academic writing. In an effort to evaluate the effects of teaching academic writing within an EFL preparatory program, this research aims to compare the quality of writing within two groups of students, low level EFL students (pre-intermediate and intermediate levels) after a two-three semester program against students whose initial fluency was significantly higher at the time of university entry (direct-entry students with an IELTS 6.5 equivalency or higher). To this aim, four factors which are readability, lexical density, coherence and grammar complexity in 50 essays have been examined quantitatively. In this presentation, we aim to highlight implications of the findings for academic writing instruction at EFL university settings and for the broader context academic programs in EFL context. Our findings indicate that EFL students graduating from the ELC score well below their direct-entry peers in a number of categories.*

Keywords: *linguistic proficiency, EFL program, instructions, integreted skills*

Article History:
Submitted: 19.06.2014.
Accepted: 22.11.2014.

DOI Number:
10.14706/JFLTAL152118

Introduction

Our students are as diverse as their needs, and as Raime's (1991) noted, "there is no such thing as a generalized EFL student" (p. 420). Students arrive in our classrooms from a variety of heterogeneous contexts, which adds an additional dimension of difficulty to an already challenging situation. However, that does not mean we are reduced to helplessness. Ferris and Hedgecock(1998) remind us that "there are ways of identifying, categorizing, and working with these multiple variables" (p. 14). Teachers often rely on their instincts, rubrics, and checklists to determine the overall quality of student writing, but this can only provide a limited (and arguably biased) approach to assessment (Rezaei, A. R., &Lovorn, M. 2010). As EFL preparatory teachers, we are concerned about our students' writing ability in relation to their peers. The question then becomes more about how to assess the quality of writing and the ability of the student. Rather than focus on ways to improve qualitative analysis, this study attempts to eliminate subjectivity and analytically evaluate student papers quantitatively. We are aware of the challenges of quantifying a skill that is arguably qualitative in nature, and it's not unusual to find that students' levels of proficiency differ from their writing ability (Raimes, 1985). However, our university is relatively new (20 years) with an expanding EFL program. There has been a reworking of past EFL curriculum to focus more on integration and production skills with common end goals for all students graduating from the English Language Center (ELC). Upon graduating from the ELC, these students have to compete alongside direct-entry students who have greater faculty with English. Therefore, research is needed to determine if and where students graduating from the ELC are falling short of their direct-entry peers, and what we, as educators, can do to marginalize those inequalities.

This study focused on two major questions:

1: Is there value in quantifying the quality of student compositions after graduation from the ELC preparatory program?

2: What does the data suggest about the preparedness of our students when they graduate (in terms of readability, lexical density, coherence, and grammar complexity) and what still needs to be improved?

While we attempted to stay focused on these two areas, we did occasionally find useful or interesting data that varied slightly from our original goals.

Methods & Procedures

Data Collection

The participants in this study were 50 EFL college students,typically 17-19 years old, enrolled in Academic Writing at a private Turkish university. They were selected based on a several control factors. Direct entry students – a "control group" – comprised of 13 students who learned English outside the university (typically in high school or international school settings) and directly entered the university (bypassing the ELC) with a TOEFL IB test of 80 or greater or an academic IELTS score of 6.5 or greater. These students took the Academic Writing class in their first semester of university. The second student group was chosen based on their successful completion of the ELC and consisted of two sub-groups; 13 pre-intermediate students and 24 intermediate students. Both groups were chosen based on the following factors: they had all successfully completed the program (none of the participants had dropped out during the semester to participate in outside preparatory English classes) in 2-3 semesters (Fall, Spring, and Summer semesters of 2012-13), they all participated in the Academic Writing class during the first semester of their first academic year (2014), and they had all entered the university directly after leaving the ELC, meaning they did not take a semester or year of leave (this does not include the summer semester if they had passed out after semester two). All students were enrolled in ACWR 101 with five instructors and nine classes. The student's papers were chosen based on their first written drafts in response to an academic article and discussions taken place during class time. The topics of the articles and papers showed significant variety.

It should be noted that G1 will from this point refer to students who started the preparatory program at pre-intermediate level students; G2 at the intermediate level; and G3 as students directly entering the university.

Data Analysis

The data was viewed based on several factors: readability, lexical density, coherence and grammar complexity, and each shall be observed separately.

**Note on parametric values:*The research data gathered was run through the program for Statistical Analysis in Social Sciences (SPSS) and tested for validity using the Shapiro-Wilk test of normality and a Q-Q plot for additional verification. Data that was found not to be parametric was considered for further thought, but will be noted as non- parametric; unless otherwise noted, all data can be assumed normal according to these measurements.

Readability

Considering readability, this project viewed several sub-groups, including words per sentence, passive sentence use, academic vocabulary word use, Flesch Reading Ease, and the Flesch Kincaid Grade Level.

Vocabulary Usage

Students need to have a wide range of disposable vocabulary in order to be confident users of language. While grammar can be understood as the framework of language, educators understand that grammar is an arbitrary and meaningless construct without vocabulary (Dagut, 1977; Laufer, 1990; Meara 1996). It is also well documented that students often consider vocabulary as one of the primary barriers to communication and comprehension (Raims, 1985; Spack 1988;). This research looked at the rate in which ELC students used frequent and academic vocabulary in relation to the direct-entry students. Our primary concern was whether or not our students were using the vocabulary we were teaching them. Over the course of a year, G1 and G2 students were provided with explicit instruction on as many of the Coxhead570 semantic fields as possible, placing emphasis on academic vocabulary, while addressing frequent words as they arise.

In terms of vocabulary usage, this study focused on three subgroups, K1 (1-1000), K2 (1001-2000), and the Academic Word List, as measured by Lextutor.Surprisingly, the data showed that student starting proficiency levels did not significantly influencevocabulary.Regardless of the slight mean average difference between the groups, the percentage of common and academic words did not vary greatly between the three groups. All three groups ranged from 74.7 – 77.6 percent of words on the K1 list; 4.5-5.9 on the K2 list;and 6.6 – 8.5 percent on the AWL. Similarly, the range in ability within these groups did not significantly differ.

Sentence Length

In order to gain a general idea of how well students were able to write, in terms of complex and compound sentences, the study briefly surveyed sentence length using Microsoft Word. Although this is useful for an overview, in is by no means conclusive on the level or accuracy of the sentence structure. This quick analysis does not validate grammar use, nor does it check for run-on sentences. However, the study found a statistically significant difference between the ability to write more words per sentence and the starting English level. Students from the G1 level were writing a mean average of 15 words per sentence (wps), while G2 were writing at 20wps, and G3 at 23 wps. Additionally, the range of sentence length decreased

significantly (18, 11, 12 respectively) between the lower and advanced starting level as well.

Flesch Reading Ease and Flesch Kincaid Grade Level

Using the Flesch Reading Ease scores and FleschKincaide Grade Level, as calculated in Microsoft Word, this study compared the reading difficulty between the three groups of students. The results confirmed our suspicion that students starting in G3 had an advantage over the G1 and G2 students.

Regarding the Flesch Reading Ease, while the average mean for students in G1 & G2 was very similar, there was a statistically significant variance between the G1 – G3, G2 – G2 average means (see Chart 1 & Chart 2 below).

Chart 1				Chart 2	
		Mean			Sig. (2-tailed)
Pair 1	G1	52.1667		Pair 1 G1 – G3	.006
	G3	40.0250			
Pair 2	G1	52.1667		Pair 2 G1 – G2	.942
	G2	51.9417			
Pair 3	G2	51.9417		Pair 3 G2 – G3	.018
	G3	40.0250			

As expected then, the Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level showed similar correlations. G1 students were typically writing at the high end of a ninth grade reading level (G2 scored slightly higher at just over 11th grade). However, the G3 level students were starting comfortably in the first year university level at 13.2. Again, only the G1-G3 and G2-G3 pairs showed a statistical difference with a *p* value at .002 and .043 respectively, as can be seen in chart 3 and chart 4.

Chart 3			Chart 4	
	Range	Mean		Sig. (2-tailed)
G1	7.00	9.8250	Pair 1 G1 – G3	.002
G2	5.40	11.0583	Pair 2 G1 – G2	.165
G3	5.60	13.1583	Pair 3 G2 – G3	.043

Lexical Density

When considering lexical density, we again usedLextutor to compare functional word tokens with the total number of tokens in each essay to determine lexical density. However, the mean average of each group was almost identical, with G1, G2, and G3 scoring .556, .538, and .547 respectively. Additionally, when compared using a SPSS paired sample t-tests, *p* value showed no statistically significant difference.

Coherence

This study looked specifically at the use of transitional devices and connectors to consider coherence, which overlaps into the field of cohesive devices.We viewed these devices in four categories; additive, adversative, causal, and temporal. Documents were searched in Microsoft Word and thenvisually countedto find correct use of each device. Within each category, we looked at the use of specific words: additive (also, and, for example, in addition, furthermore, moreover, for instance, in other words, besides, likewise); adversative (however, but, on the other hand, in fact, on the contrary, as a matter of fact, nevertheless, in contrast); causal (so, therefore, as a result, consequently, hence, then to that end, in this case, thus); and temporal (first(ly), (second(ly), third(ly), then, following, in summary, in conclusion, to conclude).

The data collected was viewed, using Shapiro-Wilks, and found to be non-parametric. The usage of the different types of these devices did not seem to show and advantage or disadvantage in terms of ability and starting level of the students. However, in the lower entry level, namely G1 and G2, we did see a tendency to overuse certain devices. For example, the average mean of usage in additive device in G1 was about 34 uses per page. However, of these 34 uses, 27 were “and.” Additionally, 5 of the 13 G1 students exclusively used “and” and no other additive device. The same overuse was found with “but” and “in conclusion” as well.

Grammar Complexity

In this study, we looked at grammar complexity by viewing relative clause use, used correctly, to help determine the level of grammar ability in a student’s unedited writing. Clauses were separated into two sections, the use of relative clauses using pronouns and those using adverbials. All of the relative pronouns (who, whom, whose, which, and that) as well as relative adverbs (where, when, and why) were counted only if they were used correctly, and there was no data collection for rate of error usage with relative clause use.

The overwhelming majority of the data showed adverbial relative clauses to be sporadic, and while the G3 students used these at a slightly higher and more consistent level, when the data was considered in Shapiro-Wilk, it was found to be non-parametric. Therefore, while we have noticed some correct usage, the same size was not such that we could compare the data.

When considering pronoun use in relative clauses, the results were considered parametric, and the findings showed a significant difference between the three levels, when considering the mean and range. We found that the accurate use of relative clauses increased significantly as the entry-level increased and the range in use decreased, pointing to a more controlled ability to use this grammatical structure. The average means ranged from 5.8, 8.9, and 13.2 in G1, G2, and G3, respectively. Additionally, the *p* value showed statistically significant differences between all groups. This would be a useful area to follow up in terms of what program values are lacking in terms of grammar usage and advanced structures.

Results and discussion

1: Is there value in quantifying the quality of student compositions after they have graduated from the EFL preparatory program?

At our institution, students are leaving the preparatory program and entering the university sometimes after only one semester. The more traditional students remain in the program for two or three semesters. There is a concern that students, when leaving the ELC, are not as capable as the students who directly enter the university. New curriculum was developed and implemented last year, and this is the first study to comparatively assess former ELC student's compositional ability with that of their peers. Concern remains, even after the new curriculum shift, among faculty members that students are not adequately prepared for university level composition, and this data may be useful in adjusting the curriculum planning for upcoming years.

There is strong evidence to suggest that annual evaluation of students leaving the ELC program would be beneficial to determine the overall quality of student writing, as a quantification of various factors. Of particular use will be further assessment of the AWL list vocabulary as well as continuing evaluation of Flesch-Kincaid analysis. With annual assessment ,this program will have a baseline which can be measured against annually. This, when paired with qualitative assessment, can provide a more complete overview of exactly what our students leaving the ELC can do in relation to their direct-entry peers, and we can address curricular shortfalls and refocus specifically on skills which our students lack proficiency.

2: What does the data suggest about the preparedness in our students when they graduate (related to readability, lexical density, coherence, and grammar complexity) and what still needs to be improved?

Readability

Vocabulary: In terms of vocabulary usage,our preparatory students performed well in use of the K1 and the AWL (which is heavily integrated into the pre-intermediate program).As the program has been working specifically to increase both receptive and productive use of academic vocabulary during the last school year, as well as vocabulary diversity, this is relatively good news. The assumption has been that students with lower levels of English will have a more difficult time producing academic level vocabulary. One of the major concerns is that students have only receptively learned vocabulary throughout their 2-3 semester study in the preparatory program. However, although there is certainly the unknown of how *accurately* the students were using this vocabulary, they do, even at the lower levels, incorporate academic vocabulary into their draft writing.

Sentence Length: Our research found a significant difference in the sentence length of the students relative to their starting level. This suggests perhaps additional research is warranted in order to determine the actual complexity and grammatical accuracy of these sentences. However, it does suggest more confidence or effort involved at the G3 level as they had a significantly higher wps use while drafting.

*Flesch Reading Ease and Flesch Kincaid Grade Level:*Perhaps the most surprising data collected was the vast level difference reported by the Flesch Kincaid analysis for grade level and readability. While our pre-intermediate students were only writing at the ninth grade level during their first year of academic classes, the expectation that they are writing at a level equivalent to direct-entry students may be unreasonable. We recommend further study of this issue to look more closely at the samples to determine specific ways to improve both the readability and grade level at which our students produce academic writing. In order to focus on program evaluation, it may be useful to determine the reason why the FleschReading Ease as well as the Flesch-Kincaid Reading Level results point to such a difference in readability and what can be done to increase these levels.

Lexical Density: As stated above, the data for this section showed no real difference in use. Although this is an encouraging sign when considering the level at which a student starts, further research is needed to determine if this is, in fact, a point of no difference. If this data is actuate, it would suggest that lower level entry students are

able to compete, not necessarily at grade level, with higher-level students and would be encouraging.

Coherence: While the coherence data was found to be largely non-parametric, the fact that students are clearly over relying on the conjunctions "and," "but," and "because" may speak to an underlying issue in the way writing is taught. Although direct-entry students showed a slightly higher ability to diversity their transitional markers, it would not be unexpected for ELC students to enter at a lower level; however, it is concerning that part of the aim of the preparatory program is to help students learn academic writing, and a significant amount of time is spent on writing ability, including the use of transitional devices. This points to the need to further evaluate student writing in terms of markers in order to determine if the program is lacking in the area coherence.

Grammar Complexity: Relative clause pronoun use was shown to be more than double in terms of usage between G3 and G1&2. This points to a need for improvement in the way this skill is taught, practiced, and reinforced in the program. Currently students spend time focusing on relative clause pronouns mostly in their grammar classes, and reading and writing teachers do not explicitly check for or expect students to accurately use such constructions. This data points to the consideration of the incorporation of relative clause pronoun use into the writing curriculum.

Conclusions

It is clear to us that students graduating from the ELC still need writing support and scaffolding to compete with direct-entry students. Not only are they writing at a dramatically lower level (according to the Flesch-Kinkaid analysis) than other students, but they also score lower on a number of indicators of quality writing such as sentence length and relative clause use. Both of these skills can be improved through direct instruction and practice, and we advise the ELC to incorporate more time and focus on those areas. We advise continued annual evaluation of students exiting the ELC both quantitatively and qualitatively, as well as a continued measurement against direct-entry students, providing the ELC with measurable yearly data which will inform curricular and assessment changes.

References

Alamargot, D. &Chanquoy, L. (2001). *Through the models of writing.Studies in Writing*, Vol. 9. Dordrecht, The Netherlands: Kluwer Academic Publishers.

Bander, R. G. (1983). *American English rhetoric: A two-track writing program for intermediate and advanced students of English as a second language*. Holt, Rinehart, and Winston.

Cobb,T. Web Vocabprofile [accessed xx Month 200x from http://www.lextutor.ca/vp/], an adaptation of Heatley, Nation &Coxhead's (2002) Range.

Dagut, M. (1977).Incongruencies in Lexical Gridding.An Application of Contrastive Semantic Analysis to Language Teaching. *IRAL.International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching Lund*, *15*(3), 221-229.

Ellis, R. (2005). Principles of instructed language learning. *System*, *33*(2), 209-224.

Ferris, D., & Roberts, B. (2001). Error feedback in L2 writing classes: How explicit does it need to be?. *Journal of second language writing*, *10*(3), 161-184.

Ferris, D., &Hedgcock, J. S. (1998).Teaching ESL Composition: Purpose.*Process, and Practice*.

Hayes, J. R. (1996). A new framework for understanding cognition and affect in writing. In C. M. Levy & S. Ransdell (Eds.), The science of writing: Theories, methods, individual differences, and applications (pp. 1–27). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

Heatley, A., Nation, I.S.P. &Coxhead, A. (2002).RANGE and FREQUENCY programs.

Laufer, B. (1990). Why are some words more difficult than others?—Someintralexical factors that affect the learning of words. *IRAL-International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching*, *28*(4), 293-308.

Lee, I. (2000). Exploring Reading-Writing Connections Through a Pedagogical Focus on'Coherence'. *Canadian Modern Language Review/La Revue canadienne des languesvivantes*, *57*(2), 352-356.

Meara, P. (1996). The vocabulary knowledge framework. *Vocabulary Acquisition Research Group Virtual Library*.

McCutchen, D. (1996). A capacity theory of writing: Working memory in composition. *Educational Psychology Review*, *8*(3), 299-325.

Raimes, A. (1985). What unskilled ESL students do as they write: A classroom study of composing. *Tesol Quarterly*, *19*(2), 229-258.

Raimes, A. (1987). Language Proficiency, Writing Ability, and Composing Strategies: A Study of ESL College Student Writers*. *Language Learning*,*37*(3), 439-468.

Raimes, A. (1991). Out of the woods: Emerging traditions in the teaching of writing. *Tesol Quarterly*, *25*(3), 407-430.

Rezaei, A. R., &Lovorn, M. (2010).Reliability and validity of rubrics for assessment through writing. *Assessing Writing*, *15*(1), 18-39.

Scardamalia, M., &Bereiter, C. (1991).Literate expertise. *Toward a general theory of expertise: Prospects and limits*, 172-194.

Spack, R. (1988). Initiating ESL students into the academic discourse community: How far should we go?. *Tesol quarterly*, *22*(1), 29-51.

Van Gelderen, A., &Oostdam, R. (2002).Improving linguistic fluency for writing: Effects of explicitness and focus of instruction. *L1-Educational Studies in Language and Literature*, *2*(3), 239-270.

Van Gelderen, A., &Oostdam, R. (2004).Revision of form and meaning in learning to write comprehensible text.In *Revision Cognitive and Instructional Processes* (pp. 103-123).Springer Netherlands.

Body Parts As Frames In The Perception Of Turkish Learners Of English

Saule Abdramanova
KIMEP University, Kazahstan

Abstract: *The aim of the research is to investigateconceptual framesofbody parts,as perceived by native Turkish speakers while they learn English idioms that employbody-part components. The study is mainly based on the assumptions of the theory of frames by Minsky (1974), who proposed the frame system forthe cognitive sciences. Vygotsky (1986) introduced conceptual frames in his theory of human development, and Fillmore (2006) operated with the term "frame" in his frame semantics. The abovementioned theories have been applied to make up a network of 'nodes' and 'relations' that Turkish learners of Englishbuilt up while guessing the meaning of English idioms, with the focus on their body-part components. The experiment was conducted among first-year students with an intermediate level of English from the department of English Language Education at Middle East Technical University, Ankara. Participants were asked to fill in questionnaires and to guess the meaning of 15 English idioms that employbody-part components such as eyes, hands, head, heart, leg/foot, nose, and tongue. To ensure thevalidity and reliability of the experiment, interviews were conducted with five respondents and a think-aloud protocol was conducted with six other respondents. The qualitative data obtained in the experiment were analyzed, and the results showed that Turkish students build different frames related tobody-part meanings based on their universal, cultural and personal world perception.*

Keywords: *frames, idioms, body parts, English, Turkish*

Article History:
Submitted: 02.04.2014.
Accepted: 25.11.2014.

DOI Number:
10.14706/JFLTAL152119

Introduction

The notion of frames was introduced to cognitive sciences by Minsky (1974), who defined it as a network of notions and interrelated links; together, they represent a situation that comes to the human mind when required. He identified different levels of frames: the top ones are basic characteristics of the typical situation, and the lower ones have slots that are open for being filled in by situation's specifics. In other words, a situation has both general and specific features, and a frame network depicts those fixed and varied instances. In cognitive linguistics, Fillmore (2006) suggested a term of 'frame' instead of such terms as 'schema', 'cognitive model', 'script', 'scenario', etc., and he defined it as a system of concepts understood as a whole structure, parts of which are closely related to and dependent on each other. His 'frame semantics' is based on the assumption that all words are represented by categories that are motivated by situations, and grounded by experience and knowledge. Vygotsky (1986) introduced conceptual frames to his theory of human development; he contends thatthe social aspect of language is closely connectedto the society, and the environment plays a crucial role in the development of human beings' thinking abilities. Newborn children acquire the surrounding world through conceptual frames; those concepts originate from personal mental models (mostly models of the physical world constructed by people) and cultural models (shared resources of the community formed by negotiation). Fillmore and Baker (2009) distinguish two types of frames: core (central concepts) and peripheral (circumstantial notions); however, they admit that there is a vague distinction between them. They also name extra-thematic elements of frames irrelevant to any description of a phenomenon, situation or lexical unit.

English and Turkish languages belong to different language families; therefore, there are certain differences in the way body part components are structured and conceptualized in idioms, and how they are perceived and utilized in two languages. Those differences are justified by geographical, historical, political, social and cultural features of two nations. Meanwhile, a similarity may be found in the meaning of English and Turkish idioms as well as in conceptual representation of their body-part components due to common perception of the surrounding world by representatives of two nations and due to the universality of body-part functions.

Method of research

The objective of this study is to investigate the frames Turkish learners articulate while guessing the meaning of English idioms that employ body-part components. The data were collected by conducting an experiment among 20 first-year students with an intermediate level of English from the department of English Language

Education at Middle East Technical University, Ankara. Participants were asked to fill in questionnaires that contained15 English idioms that use components of body parts, such as eyes, hands, head, heart, leg/foot, nose, and tongue; participants had to guess the meaning of the idioms, which were culled from National British Corpus. The selection of idioms was based on the frequency of their usage, a wider representation of body parts as components, and the representation of English idioms not/having equivalent and analogous Turkish idioms.Questionnaires were designed to identify the meaning of idioms and to reveal background information about the respondents (gender, age, how long they had been learning English, mother tongue and family language). To ensurethe validity and reliability of the experiment, interviews were conducted with five respondents and a think-aloud protocol was conducted with six other respondents.

Data analysis

The data obtained from the group of participants withan intermediate level of English were analyzed to find out how learners at this level of English tend to define idioms. The analysis is based on the results received from questionnaires, interviews and think-aloud protocols. The answers were classified according to their relation to idioms' components. Only two groups of responses were considered – those that directly or indirectly referred to body part components. The definitions identified as relating to other parts of idioms were not included in the analysis.

Eyes

EYES are associated with seeing/watching/observing, and its conceptual interpretationis SEEING IS KNOWING. A considerable amount of respondents attributed the notion of VISION IS CONTROL to the idiom 'To keep your eyes on the ball' (If you keep your eye on the ball, you stay alert and pay close attention to what is happening): a ball is round, so it can go anywhere, keep it in front of your eyes; gözünütoptanayırma; gözünükırpmamak; gözünübirşeydenayırmamak; gözünütoptanayırmamak; to focus on the subject; çokodaklamak, gözünüayırmamak; gözleriniayırmadankonuyaodaklamak; gözünüdörtaçmak; göz kulak olmak. It is implied that if someone controls the situation, it will bring success, and vice versa: If somebody loses control, it will lead to failure. Two respondents attributed the notion of BEING BEWARE (to watch out); and one participant conceptualized SEEING IS UNDERSTANDING (to watch somebody carefully to understand what s/he is doing). One student indicated the notion of SEEING IS MOVING TO GOALS: always on the way to your goal. The eyes are given the function of 'seeing the goals' and 'stimulating a human being to move in their direction'.

The idiom 'Blink of an eye' (If something happens in the blink of an eye, it happens so fast it is almost impossible to notice it) also refers to VISION IS CONTROL: closing the eyes indicates a loss of control, but the action happens so quickly that control is still underway and has never been lost. Answers of some respondents related to the function of EYES FOR SEEING: bırbakışatmak, seeing just a second. Six respondents referred tothe Turkish idiom 'Gözkırpmak' (to wink); one learner extended the latter meaning to, 'To close and then quickly open the eyes to approve something' – EYES FOR APPROVING. One participant attributed an evaluative function to the act of seeing – EYES ARE EVALUATION: gözününkararması. There were also answers that can be referred to peripheral frames: something valuable/important for somebody; something that is very close to us; and to an extra-thematic one: being happy.

Mouth

The idiom 'To put your foot in your mouth' (If you put your foot in your mouth, you say something stupid or embarrassing) is more related to the image-schema of 'mouth' as a CONTAINER rather than 'foot' as a means of movement. When a container is closed by another object, then the way is blocked and nothing can be taken out of it, nor can be taken easily.If the path for verbal articulation is not free, the mouth, as a container, produces defective utterances, i.e. says stupid things. An overwhelming number of participants provided answers related to MOUTH IS (NOT) FOR SPEAKING: talk considerably; mantıklıkonuşmak; düşünüptaşınarak, tartarakkonuşmak; ağzınıhayraaçmak; shut up; not to talk about a secret; to withhold permission for somebody to speak; not to say anything,trying to hold yourself backfrom saying it. There was also a metonymical shift of 'mouth' to 'lips' and their engagement in producing an act of smiling with further extension to the state of 'happiness' – MOUTH IS SMILING → BEING HAPPY: ağzıkulaklarınavarmak, to be quite happy. And one answer was absolutely disassociated with whole framework of the MOUTH concept based on situational experience of the respondent: canınıdişinetakmak (a Turkish idiom – to take one's life in one's hands).

Nose

In the idiom 'Pay through the nose' (If you pay through the nose for something, you pay a very high price for it) the nose is connected to the frame of PATH through which the air passes. If the passage through the path is difficult, the movement is hindered, and the destination is not reached. Also, the nose is related to the source-concept of LIFE: the movement of the air along the path, i.e. the nose, implies staying alive because air is a condition of life. So, if the path is blocked, i.e. you pay through the nose, then it may cause you difficulties or even death. Participants

provided different meanings to the idiom giving an extended range of explanations based on functions of the nose – NOSE SMELLS: burnunakokulargelmek, sezmek, to guess beforehand (lit. smell comes to the nose); smelling bad; and NOSE SNOTS: burundanahilahilgelmek (to come from the nose in large amounts). Nose is associated with BEING GRUMPY: burnundankılaldırmamak (lit. not let a hair be taken from the nose); and TO REGRET: burnundangetirmek/ gelmek (to regret things that have been done); inatlaşmakvebununsonucunakatlanmak(lit. to be obstinate and to suffer from that); difficulty in doing something back. Two respondents based their definitions on the frame of NOSE IS CONTAINER/OBJECT - be beaten, havingabroken nose; her işeburnunusokmak.Associations have been developed either in connection with the difficult conditions of executing any actions through the nose, or emotions related to those situations.

Ears

Ears also refer to the notion of PATH; the sound goes in and out along the path, i.e. ears, to reach the destination. When the path is free, the movement is easy and fast. Almost all respondents referred to the frame of EARS FOR HEARING/LISTENING while guessing the idiom 'All ears' (If someone says they're all ears, they are very interested in hearing about something): listening carefully; all people are hearing something; can kulağıyladinlemek kulak kesilmekdıkkatledinlemek. Two participants extended the act of 'listening' to EARS FOR KNOWING: knowing/being aware of everything; to know everything.

Hands

Hands are means of taking and giving, and the concept is motivated by the metaphtonymies of HOLDING IS CONTROLLING and CONTROL IS PHYSICAL GRASP. Kövecses (2010) suggests the following conceptual metaphors for Hands: HAND STANDS FOR CONTROL, HAND STANDS FOR THE ACTIVITY, and HAND STANDS FOR THE PERSON. When processing the idiom 'Play into someone's hands' (If you play into someone's hands, you do what they were expecting you to do and take advantage of this), participants produced the definitions based on the concept of HOLDING IS CONTROLLING: birininelindekuklaolmak; birininelindeolmak, birşeyebağlıolmak, to be up to somebody/ something; kaderielindeolmak (to hold the fate in someone's hands). Two participants referred to the palm of the hand: avucundaoynatmak; avucununiçindeoynatmak.

Legs

LEGS and FEET are parts of the body responsible for walking; they are based on the frame LEG/FOOT FOR ABILITY TO WALK. They are also related to metaphor

WALKING FORWARD IS PROGRESS, a reverse action (inability to move) is understood as failing to achieve success. The idiom 'To pull someone's leg' (If you pull someone's leg, you tease them, but not maliciously) indirectly relates to the abovementioned metaphor: if somebody pulls your leg you will not be able to walk, and it will definitely hinder your progress. But the implication for this idiom is that pulling somebody's leg is perceived as a minor disturbance and a slight annoyance that occurs among friends for fun. Two respondents provided the frame of WALKING to the idiom: to trip up; birineönayakolmak. Eight participants referred to PREVENT FROM WALKING: to displace somebody; birineengelolmak; (birinin) ayağınıkaydırmak; birinezararvermek; ayağınıkaydırmak, to make somebody worse; birkişininişiengellemek.

Head

Five learners provided the meaning of 'Hit the nail on the head' idiom by referring to HEAD FOR THINKING: to think about; to think deeply; to think carefully; karakaradüşünmek (fig. to brood over); düşünmek. Five respondents extended the process of 'thinking' to other mental operations – HEAD FOR UNDERSTANDING: make somebody remember or understand by giving clues/examples; jetondüşmesi; jetondüşmek, understand immediately; 'coming immediately to one's mind: birandaaklinagelmek; and HEAD FOR REFERRING önemlibirnoktayadeğinmek.

Heart

The HEART is typically associated with emotional spheres, and metonymically motivated as HEART FOR FEELINGS. It also has an image-schema of a CONTAINER FOR CONTENT; the content is a range of emotions people usually have towards each other. The idioms 'Wear your heart on your sleeve' (Someone who wears their heart on their sleeve shows their emotions and feelings publicly) and 'Eat your heart out' (If someone tells you to eat your heart out, they are saying they are better than you at something) refer to the abovementioned concepts: if the heart is worn on the sleeve, it is exposed to the outer world and feelings are not hidden; and if other people are better than you at something, you would better eat your heart not to display bad emotions concerning that fact.

Most learners gave definitions to idioms based on the concept HEART FOR FEELINGS - to 'Wear your heart on your sleeve' idiom: do not be heartless; to behave like you do not have a heart; duygusaldavranmak, mantığıyladeğil, duygylarıyladavranabilmek; kalpkırmamayadikkatetmek, duygusaldavranmak; kalbiniellerinevermek, it is like kalbımsenindir; and to 'Eat your heart out' idiom: to be very emotional; you are a heartless person; kalbininsesindinlemek (lit. listen to the

sound of your heart); acımasız, kalpsız; acımasızolmaz (it is not possible without pain). An exposure of the HEART on the sleeve is perceived as its OPENNESS to public: herşeyiaçıkçayapmakya da söylemek (lit. to do and to speak openly). HEART removed from its location implies logical and unemotional actions: to think reasonably, not emotionally; HEART eaten implies LOGIC and COMMON SENSE: düşüncesizcedavranmak (to behave thoughtlessly); being romantic, but logical; to follow common sense; to think about something so much and make it a problem inside. Two learners matched the English idiom with the Turkish one – a semantic shift from HEART to SOUL: canınıdişinetakmak - (fig. to take one's life in one's hands). One answer was associated with an impossible task, similar to wearing the heart on the sleeve: to try hard to accomplish something. Lastly, participants referred to characteristics of human beings: always being in a nervous situation/to be nervous all the time – an association with STRESS; elinivicdanınakoymak, to be honest; kalbinielinealmak, cezaretlifalan; to be brave/being brave – an association with MORALE/ SPIRIT - moral/spiritual features of a human being; to be merciful; to be kind, understanding.

Conclusion

The qualitative data obtained in the experiment were analyzed, and the results showed that Turkish students provided different frames of body-part meanings based on their universal, cultural and personal world perception. EYES are associated with the ability to see and understand the surrounding world, accept and approve it, to be able to control the situation and evaluate it, to see risks and be able to guard yourself against dangers. MOUTH is for speaking and smiling, and as a consequence, feeling happy. NOSE is a container/an object that provides the ability to smell, as well as snot; at the same time, it is related to the condition of being grumpy. EARS are for hearing and listening; through them, people learn about the world. HANDS are associated with holding something and, consequently, controlling it. LEGS represent the ability to walk/not walk; HEAD is related to the mental functions of thinking, understanding and identifying similarities and differences in people and things. Lastly, HEART is referred to feelings and soul, expressing feelings and displaying human features openly.

Respondents mostly presented core frames to body parts while guessing the meaning of English idioms. Since body parts function similarly in all human beings, particularlythe five senses through which people experience the world, there was universality in the way representatives of Turkish culture perceive them. There were also some peripheral frames that represent facets of cultural knowledge. There were also some extra-thematic notions that were mostly grounded on the experience and knowledge of respondents. The respondents'perception of idioms that use body-part components offersinsights about their experiences, values, and culture. This

knowledge contributes to anunderstanding of young Turkish people's interpretation of body parts.

References

Fillmore, Ch.J. (2006). Frame semantics. In D.Geeraerts (Ed.).*Cognitive Linguistics:Basic Readings* (pp. 374-400). Berlin, New York: Mouton de Gruyter.

Fillmore Ch.J. & Baker, C. (2009).A frame approach to semantic analysis. In B.Heine&H.Narrog (eds). The Oxford Handbook of Linguistic Analysis (pp.313-339). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Kövecses, Z. (2010). *Metaphor: a practical introduction.* Oxford & New York: Oxford University Press.

Minsky, (1974).A Framework for Representing Knowledge.*MIT-AI Laboratory Memo 306.*

Vygotsky, L. (1986). *Thought and language*. Cambridge, MA: The MIT Press.

The Prosody and Quantity of English Compounds

Stanimir Rakić
Non-affiliated, Serbia

Abstract: *ollowing the earlier works of Booij (1985) and Nespor & Vogel (1986) I provide further evidence that English compounds are made up of prosodic words. The length of the first components must be preserved because they are identical to basic lexical forms. In some other languages, as for example in Serbian, the length of the first components may be shortened because the inclusion of linking vowels can contribute to the building of the required 'derived environment' (Kiparsky 1985). This invoking of the strict cyclicity condition is however necessary only for those English dialects in which the accented syllables are not necessarily closed. In this paper I discuss the prosodic status and quantity of English compounds.*

Keywords: *English Compounds, prosodic structure, trochaic shortening, quantity, stric cyclicity*

Article History:
Submitted: 17.04.2014.
Accepted: 06.11.2014.

DOI Number:
10.14706/JFLTAL152120

Introduction

The introduction of prosodic phonology has shown that besides grammatical hierarchy there also exists prosodic hierarchy (s. Selkirk 1978, Nespor & Vogel 1982, 1986, Booij 1983, 1985). These hierarchies are in most cases parallel, but still they do not coincide. The parallelism between these hierarchies can be represented as in the following table:

(1)

prosodic hierarchy	grammatical hierarchy
segment	segment
syllable (σ)	morpheme
foot (F)	
prosodic word (ω)	morpho-syntactic word
prosodic phrase (φ)	syntactic phrase

(Booij 1985, p. 29)

According to Selkirk (1978, 1980) the units of prosodic hierarchy are exactly those domains in which phonological rules processes apply. The grammar must determine what relations exist between prosodic and grammatical hierarchies. In the languages such as English and Dutch every syntactic word is usually also a prosodic word, but this is not always the case. Booij (1985, p. 29) notes that in the languages such as English and Dutch the following differences are possible:

(2a) In compounds every component is an independent prosodic word;

(b) Some affixes, which may be denoted as non-coherent, make particular, independent prosodic words.

Besides the Dutch examples, Booij cites the following English ones:

(3) $[\text{black}_A\text{board}_N]_N$ - $(\text{black})_\omega\,(\text{board})_\omega$
$[\text{public}_A\text{ity}]_N$ - $(\text{publicity})_\omega$
$[\text{king}_N\text{dom}]_N$ - $(\text{king})_\omega(\text{dom})_\omega$

The first example represents compound components, while the following two are respectively the derivatives with coherent and non-coherent suffixes. The coherent suffix *–ity* combines with the stem *'public* into a prosodic word *pu'blicity*, while the non-coherent suffix *-dom* makes a separate prosodic word. With non-coherent suffixes there is no resyllabification across morpheme boundaries that mark separate prosodic words. A particularly impressive example is the derivative with non-coherent suffix *-achtig* in Dutch. In the

adjective *roodachtig* ('reddish') the principle of the maximal onset rule does not apply:

(4) roodachtig - $(rood)_w(achtig)_w$

The compelling evidence is the devoicing of the syllable-final /d/ showing that this segment belongs to the coda, not to the onset – there is no resyllabification over the boundary of prosodic words (Booij, 2002, p. 189).

Kiparsky (1979) also cites examples showing that the compound components in English are separate prosodic words. In the following English compounds the principle of maximal onset does not apply:

(5a) beef eater - $(beef)_w(eater)_w$ / *$(bee)_w$(feater)
(b) bee feeder - $(bee)_w(feeder)_w$

In (5a) the components are separate prosodic words – the coda of the first component /f/ does not go over into the onset of the second component, although /f/ is a possible onset, as the example *feeder* shows. The examples (5a) and (5b) are clearly different as the first /i/ is phonetically shorter in *beef* than in *bee.*

In this paper we intend to show further evidence that the components of English compounds are separate prosodic words.

2. In many languages the compounds are understood as combining of prosodic words. This means that all phonological rules whose domain is a prosodic word can be applied separately on the compound components, but not on the whole compound. This is true for phonotactic restrictions as well as for segmental and prosodic rules. In English there is a phonotactic restrictions that geminated consonants cannot appear inside prosodic words. The geminated consonants are not possible inside the compound components, but they can appear at the components boundary as is shown in (6):

(6) back.cloth /'bæk-klT/ n.
big game /∩bIg'geIm/ n.
bird dog /'b∈:d∩dɒg/ n.
black comedy /∩blæk'kɒmIdi/ n.
fast track /'fɑ:sttræk/ n.
goosestep /'gu:s-step/ n.
etc.

However, in lexicalized compounds degemination is possible. Thus in *granddaughter* /'græn∩d:t↔/, the /d/ from the end of the first component is

lost. The simplification of the pronunciation reflects the lexicalized meaning of this compound, which deviates from the compositional meaning implied by the components.[1]

Another phonotactical restriction refers to the agreement of obstruent in voicing. In the interior of prosodic words the adjacent obstruents must agree in voicing, but at the boundary of components this is not be the case. This property of English compounds may be illustrated with the following examples.

(7) back.bit.ing /'bækbaItIŋ/ n.
back.bone /'bækb↔Yn/ n.
baggage car /'bægIdZ∩kɑ:/ n.
bag.pipes /'bægpaIps/ n.
band.stand /'bændstænd/ n.
bank.book /'bæŋkbYk/ n.
bank draft /'bæŋkdrA:ft/ n.
news.stand /'nju:zstænd/ n.
etc.

These examples clearly show that the given phonotactic restriction does not hold in English compounds, although they do hold in prosodic words. In some lexicalized compounds however the adjacent obstruents may agree in voicing. Thus for *newspaper* the variant pronunciations /'nju:z∩peIp↔/ and /'nju:s∩peIp↔/ are possible, but for the noun *gooseberry* pronunciation is normally /'gYzbri/. Note however that *newspaper* and *gooseberry* are lexicalized compounds - their meaning does not follow compositionally from the meaning of their components.

The third known restriction refers to the velarization of nasals in prosodic words. In English, the alveolar /n/ is velarized before velars (e.g.. *finger* /'fIŋg↔/, *uncle* /'ɷŋk↔l/, *pancreas* /'pæŋkri↔s/) in prosodic words (Gimson 2001, p. 199). In English compounds velarization does not apply across morpheme boundary:

(8) corn.cob /'k□:nkɒb/ n.
corn.crake /'k□:nkreIk/ (the bird) n.
man.kind /∩mæn'kaInd/ n.
green.grocer /'gri:n∩gr↔Ys↔/ n.

[1] In American English the compound *granddad* may be also written *grandad*, which means that lexicalization is also reflected in the spelling.

bean counter /'bi:n∩kaYnt↔/ n.
pan.cake /'pænkeIk/ n.
etc.

In lexicalized compounds velarization can occur as in *hand.ker.chief* /'hæŋk↔tʃIf/ (Allen 1978, p. 129).

In English, as in many other languages, syllabification does not apply across the compound boundaries because of the assumed principle that the syllable boundary must coincide with the morphem boundary (Gimson 2001, p. 52).[2] Wells, who also assumes this principle, explains this principle in his introduction to the LPD (1990) in the following way:

(11) The syllable boundary coincides with the word boundary, and also with the morpheme boundary between the compound components.

Booij (2007) cites Dutch examples that show that the sequence /*lk*/ is divided inside prosodic words (e.g. *kal.koenen* 'turkey'), but is included in the coda if it occurs at the end of prosodic words (e.g. *balk* 'beam'). When *lk* is at the end of the first compound component, as for example in *balk anker* ('a support for the beam'), there is no resyllabification across the components boundary, and the sequence /*lk*/ remains in the coda of the first component. It is not difficult to find similar examples for English:

(12a) abundant /↔.'bɒn.d↔nt/ adj. n.
advantage /↔d.'vɑ:n.tIdZ/ n.
franchise /'frΘn.tΣaIz/ n.
bolster /'b↔Yl.st↔/ v.
alternate /□:l.'t∈:.nIt/ adj.
Moldova /'m□l,d↔Yv↔/
Atlanta /↔t.'lΘn.t↔/ n.
temper /'tem.p↔/ n.
Amundsen /'A:.m↔nd.s↔n/

(b) land owner /'lΘnd∩↔Yn↔/ n.
current account /'kɒ.r↔nt.↔.∩kaYnt/ n.
lunch hour /'lɒntΣ. aY↔/ n.
false alarm /∩f□:s.↔'lA:m/ n.
adult education /∩Θ.dɒlt.e.djY.∩keI.Σv/ n.
field officer /'fi:ld.∩□:fIs↔/ n.
battleaxe /'bΘt.↔l.Θks/ n.
stamp office /'stΘmp.∩A:fIs/ ,n.
Land's End /∩lΘndz.'end/

[2]Gimson (2001, p. 244) invokes four criteria for the word division: morphemic, phonemic, phonotactic and alophonic, but he adds that these criteria sometimes do not agree, and then we may additionally use the principle of maximal onset.

In (12a) the underlined consonant sequences *nd, nt, ntΣ, ls, lt, ld, tl, mp* and *ds* are divided in prosodic words, while in (12b) they remain in the coda of the first component in compounds because there is no resyllabification across morpheme boundary. Note however that there is no resyllabification when the second order suffixes are added, either, even in the cases when they begin with vowels (e.g. *land.ed* adj., *land.ing* n., *thorn.y* adj., *stamp.ing* n., Booj 1983, p. 267).

The impossibility of resyllabification across the morpheme boundary in compounds also affects the realization of affricates in English. The affricates in English are complex segments produced by combining plosives and fricatives. In English these are the combinations /tʃ/, /dZ/, /tr/ i /dr/. Inside prosodic words, the combinations of these voices are pronounced as affricates, but at the conjunction of compounds they remain separated because they belong to different syllables.

Table 1. The place of affricates in prosodic units

	In the Interior of Words	At the Compound Conjunction
/tΣ/	*butcher*	*lightship*
/tr/	*mattress*	*Footrest*
/dr/	*tawdry*	*Handrail*

Gimson (2001: 172)

The example for the affricate /dZ/ is difficult to find because only some words of French origin begin with /Z/, and these rarely appear as the second components in compounds.

Further evidence that English compounds are not prosodic words is provided by the allophony of the alveolar approximant /l/. In English, the alveolar approximant /l/ appears in two allophonic forms: palatalized and velarized (Gimson 2001, p. 203, Čubrović, p. 2011, 60). In the compounds in which the first component ends with /l/, and the second begins with a vowel, /l/ is not palatalized:

(13) battleaxe /'bΘt.l.Θks/ n.
barrel organ /'bΘ.r↔.l.∩□:.g↔n/ n.
capital assets /∩kΘ.pI.t↔l.'Θs.et/ n.
real estate /'rI↔l.I.∩steIt/ n.
travel agent /'trΘv.↔l.∩eIdZ.↔nt/ n.
waffle iron /'wA:f.↔l.∩aIr.↔n/ n.
bottle opener /'b℘t.↔l.∩↔Yp.n↔'/ n.

mail order /'mɛIl.∩□:d.↔/ n.

It is possible that in some cases the /l/ from the end of the first component is nonetheless palatalized. This will be the signal that the compound in question is lexicalized – it is understood as one whole. In fact, this is how Booij (1994, p. 8) interprets the observation of Durand (1990, p. 181) that in the compound *mail order* the /l/ is palatalized. In lexicalized compounds, resyllabification across morpheme boundary is possible, and, as usual in a such cases, the compound *mail order* is divided in syllables as a monomorphemic word, i.e. *mai.lor.der*.[3]

2. The vowel length of the first component in English compounds usually does not shorten, although it may shorten in Serbian and some other languages. In this paper, I try to explain why this shortening is lacking in English.

It is well known that in trochaic systems, feet may be ordered by the following hierarchy:

(14) (LL), (H) > (HL) > (L),

where H denotes heavy syllable, and L light syllable (Prince 1990, p. 8).

According to Prince (1990), in trochaic systems the trochaic shortening (HL) → (LL) produces the preferred foot structure because (LL) and (H) are the optimal feet in trochaic systems. The trochaic shortening is a lexical rule that applies in derived environments; however, it never applies in English compounds.

In English, each compound component represents a separate prosodic word. As nouns and adjectives in English may contain long vowels, the first compound components may also contain such vowels. In (15), the point marks the syllable division, which normally does not cross the morpheme boundary.

(15a) boot.leg /'bu:tleg/
pea.nut /'pi:n℘t/
cheek.bone /'tʃi:kb↔Yn/

(b) auc.tion bridge /'□:kʃən∩brIdZ/
for.tune cook.ie /'f□:tʃən.∩kYki /

(c) ba.na.na peel /bə'nɑ:nə∩pi:l/
beau.ti.ful /'bju:tI.fYl/
fea.ture film /'fi:tʃə.fIlm/

LDCE (2003)

In the examples provided in (15), the length of the first components does not shorten. In the examples of (15a), the first components consist of one foot of the type (H),

[3] In EPD the compound *mail order* is devided into syllables with *mail.or.der* where /l/ is velarised. Obviously some dictionaries, as well as some speakers, may differently asses (estimate) whether a particular compound is lexicalized or not.

which does not undergo shortening because it is optimal according to the hierarchy (14). In the example (15b) the first components *auc.tion* and *for.tune* consist of two heavy syllables (H)(H), and with this foot structure no shorting is possible. The shortening is only possible if there is the foot (HL) in a prosodic word, and the first syllable is not closed. In (15a) and (15b) this condition is not fulfilled.

The conditions for trochaic shortening are not fulfilled in (15c), either, because every component behaves as a separate prosodic word that keeps its lexical form. The first components *banana* /bə.'nɑ:.nə/, *beauty* /bju:.tI/ and *feature* /'fi:.tʃə/ are lexical words, and the environment in which the length occurs in (15c) has not been changed. The principle of strict cyclicity bans the application of lexical rules in a non-derived environment. Kiparsky (1985) explains that 'derived environment' means "an environment which satisfies the structural description of the rule either by virtue of a morphological operation on the same cycle, or by virtue of the prior application of a phonological rule on the same cycle" (p. 137). The domain of foot formation as well as the domain of syllabification is a prosodic word. The first components *banana, beauty* and *feature* are respectively divided into feet $(bə)_F('nɑ:.nə)_F$, $('bju:.tI)_F$ and $('fi:.tʃə)_F$. The feet $('nɑ:n.ə)_F$, $('bju:tI)_F$ and $('fi:.tʃə)_F$ contain the heavy, but also open, first syllables. The conditions for trochaic shortening are satisfied, but the trochaic shortening cannot apply because the first components of compounds in (15c) do not occur in a derived environment. Therefore, the shortening of the vowel length of the first components in these compounds is not possible. Because of the principle of strict cyclicity, the shortening of the vowel length of the second components in English compounds is also impossible.

If the compound is lexicalized, the vowel shortening of the first component may be possible in English. The compound *gooseberry* is pronounced /'gYzbəri/ in the standard which reflects Received Pronunciation. Because of lexicalization, in the basic form /'gu:sbəri/, the adjacent obstruents undergo agreement in voice and the whole word is divided into syllables as a monomorphemic word – gu:.zbə.ri. The first two syllables make up a foot, and the third syllable is extrametrical. In the metrical structure $(gu:.zbə)_F<ri>$, the foot $(gu:.zbə)_F$ satisfies the conditions for trochaic shortening which as a result produces the outcome /gu.zbəri/. The alternative pronunciation /'gu:sbəri/ survives in those English dialects in which this compound is not completely lexicalized (s. LDCE). In the pronunciation /'gu:sbəri/, the components are separately divided into syllables, which provides the division 'gu:s.bə.ri. The foot division gives $('gu:s)_F(bə)_F<ri>$ where the final syllable is extrametrical. The first foot is heavy, and therefore optimal, which means that no trochaic shortening is possible.

In Serbian, the length of the first component in compounds is often shortened, and this shortening is simply accounted for as trochaic shortening in the words with long-falling accents.[4]

(16) kr̂v ’blood’ > kr̆votōk ’bloodstream’
vi⇓d ’sight’ > vi%dokru#g ’field of vision’

In (16), the compounds are constructed with a linking vowel *-o-,* which provides for the required derived environment. The underlying structures for the compounds in (16) are parsed into feet with $(kr̂vo)_F(tōk)_F$ and $(vi⇓do)_F(kru\#g)_F$. Here the first components fulfill the conditions for trochaic shortening, and the result are the forms *kr̆votōk* and *vi%dokru#g* with short syllables in the first component. In (16), the linking vowel has the crucial role as it provides ∪a derived environment∪. If there is no linking vowel in compounds, the shortening is impossible:

(17) pra⊥h-še∃čer ’powdered sugar’, to⊥n-film ’soundfilm’, go⊥l-ra≅zlika ’goal difference’ (in sport).

In (17), the components keep their accents and length, and, in particular, the first components *pra⊥h* ’powder’, *to⊥n* ’tone’, *go⊥l* ’goal’ keep their long-falling accent. In the grammars, the compounds of this type are called semi-compounds (’polusloženice’) because they do not make prosodic words.

3. I must however note that the accent of the words in (15c) is marked differently in different dictionaries. For example, in LPD (1990), the accented syllables are always closed. In this dictionary, the first components in (15c) have the transcriptions *banana* /bə.ˈnɑ:n.ə/, *beauty* /ˈbju:t.I/, *feature* /ˈfi:ʧ.ə/, where the accented syllables are closed, and no trochaic shortening is possible. On the other hand, in CALD (2008) the same words are phonetically transcribed with /bə.ˈnɑ:.nə/, /ˈbju:.tI/ and /ˈfi:.ʧəʳ/ suggesting that there may exist dialectal differences in the syllabification of these words. In those English dialects in which the accented syllables are not necessarily closed, we are free to recall the principle of strict cyclicity in order to account for the lack of shortening of the first components in compounds, because the conditions for trochaic shortening are fulfilled. The observations made in this paper may have some explanatory value for these dialects only.

[4] In standard Serbian, as in the other standard languages based on Neoštokavian dialects of former Yugoslavia, the four different accents are commonly distinguished:

short-falling	long-falling	short-rising	long-rising
ri%ba ’fish’	gra⊥d ’town’	se∃lo ’village’	gla≅va ’head’

The case of the long-falling accent is somewhat more complicated because its shortening involves a change of tone, the reason for which is not completely clear (e.g. *hva%lospēv* ’eulogy’ < *hvála* ’praise’-o-*spêv* ’poem’, s. Rakić 2012).

References

Allen, M. (1978) *Morphological Investigation.* University of Connecticut. Unpublished doctoral dissertation.

Booij, G. (1983) Principles and parameters in prosodic phonology. *Linguistics, 21,* p. 249-280.

Booij, G. (1985) The Interaction of Phonology and morphology in Prosodic Phonology. In E. Gussmann (Ed.) Phono-Morphology. *Studies in the Interaction of Phonology and Morphology*, Lublin, Poland, p. 23-35.

Booij, G. (1994) Lexical phonology: a review. In R. Wiese (Ed.) *Theorie des Lexikons. Arbeiten des Sonderforschungsbereichs, 282.* Düsseldorf, Germany: Heinrich-Heine-Universität, p. 287-305.

Booij, G. (2007) Construction morphology and the lexicon. In F. Montermini. G. Boyé & N. Harbout (Eds.) *Selected proceedings of the 5th Décembrettes Morphology in Toulouse*. Somerville, Mass.: Cascadilla Press, p. 34-44.

Durand, J. (1990) *Generative and Non-Linear Phonology.* London: Longman.

EPD, *English Pronouncing Dictionary* (2003) Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.

Gimson, A.C. (2001) *Gimson's Pronunciation of English,* 6th edition, revised by A. Cruttenden. London, England: Arnold.

Hayes, B. (1995) *Metrical Stress Theory. Principles and Case Studies*, Chicago, IL: The University of Chicago Press.

Kiparsky, P. (1979) Metrical structure assignment is cyclic, *Linguistic Inquiry, 10,* p. 421-441.

LDCE (2003) *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English,* 3rd edition. Essex, England: Longman.

LPD, J.C. Wells (1990) *Longman Pronunciation Dictionary.* Essex, England: Longman.

Nespor, M. & I. Vogel (1982) Prosodic domains of external sandhy rules. In H. van der Hulst & N. Smith (Eds.), *The Structure of Phonological*

Representation, vol. 1. Dordrecht, Holland: Foris Publications, p. 222-255.

Nespor, M. & I. Vogel (1986). *Prosodic Phonology*, Dordrecht: Foris.

Prince, A. (1990) Quantitative consequences of Rhythmic Organization. In *CLS* 26, Chicago Linguistic Society, IL, p. 355-398.

Rakić, S. (2012) Trochaic Lengthening in Neoštokavian. In Junghanns, U. et al. (Eds.) *Formal Description of Slavic Languages: The Ninth Conference, Proceedings of FDSL 9, Göttigen 2011*.Frankfurt am Main, Germany: Peter Lang, p. 237-258.

Selkirk, E. (1978) On prosodic structure and its relation to syntactic structure. In T. Fretheim (ed.) *Nordic Prosody II.* Trondheim, Norway: TAPIR. 111-140.

Selkirk, E. (1980) The role of prosodic categories in English word stress. *Linguistic Inquiry, 11*, 3*,* p. 563-605.

The role of concept analysis in studying English (on the basis of American political discourse)

Chanturidze Yulia
Lomonosov Moscow State University, Moscow

Abstract: *Once a person sets a goal of studying the culture of some country or even of teaching it to foreign students in classrooms, he/she cannot manage without taking into account its reflection in the languages. it is the language that fixes all peculiarities of people's world perception and becomes the storage of knowledge about it. It is in the light of such perception that a human being sees the world. Thus, one can speak about a linguistic world view. The linguistic world view is based on the set of certain concepts. A concept is a great deal broader than the lexical meaning of a word as it also includes an evaluative component. Cultures may share the same concepts or possess their own uniqueness. The latter are often referred to as national-specific concepts. These are the concepts that render the peculiarities of nation's mentality, world view and evaluation of the material world. In order to understand each other people must share the set of concepts and the same background information. This is often referred to as "common knowledge" [1.P.174-175]. At present considerable attention is drawn to discourse, especially its political variety. The analysis of national-specific concepts and the set of linguistic means which express them in political discourse seem to be of special interest in the discussion of typical cultural characteristics as political sphere is one of the constituent parts of any national culture. Thus, political discourse contributes to the understanding of the ways values have been developed. The importance of linguistic analysis of political discourse as part of culture teaching can be illustrated using materials from the African American political discourse, in which such concepts as 'freedom', 'power', 'equality' and 'African American dream' come to the fore.*

Keywords: *discourse, culture, teaching, worldview, concept, African American dream*

"Every language is a temple in which the soul
of those who speak it is enshrined."
Oliver Wendell Holmes

Article History:
Submitted: 02.04.2014.
Accepted: 13.11.2014.

DOI Number:
10.14706/JFLTAL152121

Introduction

Language is a means of communication between people. It is inextricably bound to the life and development of people who use it. It is a human being who perceives and understands the world through various senses and creates a worldview on the basis of this experience. Having received the results of such a perception, people passtheir knowledge to other people with the help of language. That is why one can argue that language, thinking and culture are so closely interconnected that they exist in the state of unity.

Language does not only reflect people's worldview and culture;among its key functions one can also name preserving culture and passing it on to the next generations. In this respect it goes without saying that it is necessary to turn to language analysis when teaching foreign cultures to students. People see the world around them differently: Their worldview depends on what has become traditionally important to them. The peculiarities of the vocabulary of a language should be noticed by teachers of language and culture and explained to students.

As a result of world perception one can observe the appearance of concepts in culture. Their nature has been defined by such prominent Russian linguists as V.A.Maslova and Y.S.Stepanov. Then their theory has been applied to a great variety of languages (see Levenkova E.R., Ter-Minasova S.G., Vishnyakova O.D. and others). As a result of their research it has become clear that an important peculiarity of a concept, which helps to distinguish it from the lexical meaning, appears to be the fact that a concept is "felt through", i.e. it carries some special emotions and reflects a person's attitude to it (positive or negative). Moreover, concepts are connected with the norms of people's behaviour since they also fix the peculiarities of native speakers' culture.

Having clarified the notion of a concept to students, it seems to be of major importance for teachers to classify all its variants. Concepts represented only in a specific culture are often called "national-specific". It is they that fully reflect the peculiarities of people's mentality, values and worldview. In addition, the representatives of various social classes also see it in their own way. That is why one can speak not only about national-specific concepts but also about historically- and socially-conditioned ones of a certain language. In addition, it is essential to keep in mind that the set of concepts in language always changes andthat their structure and meaning transform as well because the world is perceived differently at certain stages of history. So, one can differentiate between static and dynamic concepts, though the former ones are less numerous than the latter ones.

At this stage it seems necessary to illustrate the role of language in representing people's worldview by adducing some examples. For this reason let us turn to political discourse in its African-American variety. In this article an example of political discourse was chosen for analysis as it is it that is characterized by a high concentration of stylistic means, which contribute to the expression of concepts in language.

The aim of turning to political discourse is also explained by the fact that the political sphere is one of the constituent parts of any culture. It plays the key role in reflecting the national worldview and pursuing political aims, and is meant to influence the addressee by means of language. This peculiarity explains the reason so much attention is drawn to political discourse at present.

One of the best examples of political discourse can be found in the USA. Political public addresses have always been important for Americans. An increase in their significance is observed in the 20th and 21st centuries when African Americans took the political floor in America. Let us illustrate the way of concept analysis with the help of Martin Luther King's "I Have a Dream"speech where a new concept – the African-American Dream – can be singled out.

When speaking about the American mentality in general, one easily singles out individualism, rationality, individual freedom and self-confidence. The most well-known and complex concept of the American worldview is the "American Dream". It belongs to national-specific concepts even though similar ones appear in modern worldviews of other peoples (the "Ukrainian Dream" [2], the "Georgian Dream" [4]).

The notion of the American Dream is closely connected with the idea of America's social and cultural 'selectedness'. That is why, in order to identify themselves and distinguish themselves from other nations, there appeared unique values and ideas, one of which is the American Dream.

The term was first used by James Truslow Adams in his book "The Epic of America." He states that the American Dream is "that dream of a land in which life should be better and richer and fuller for everyone, with opportunity for each according to ability or achievement" [1, pp.5-6].In order to let the students get a fuller understanding of the concept in question, it is necessary to turn their attention to its definition in dictionaries published in different decades.

Longman Dictionary of English Language and Culture [6, p.33]:
American Dream (the): the idea that the US is a place where everyone has the chance of becoming rich and successful. Many immigrants to the US in the early 20th century believed in the American Dream.

Oxford Guide to British and American Culture [8, p.13]:
The **American Dream**: the belief of Americans that their country offers opportunities for a good and successful life. For minorities and people coming from abroad to live in America, the dream also includes freedom and equal rights.

As a result of definition analysis,students can see that immigrants' understanding of the American Dream was added to the dictionary entry. If they consult more dictionaries they will findout that nowadays there exist a number of definitions of this concept, each of them bringing its various components to the fore. It shows that the components of the American Dream have not always been the same. From this one can conclude that the American Dream is a dynamic concept. So it seems possible to speak about their evolution. [1] If at the end of definition analysis a concept is named "dynamic", students must be asked toprove it with the help of examples. So, the next step is looking for the actual realization of this concept in discourse. As mentioned above, a concept contains an emotional-evaluative component. That is why one of the students' tasks is also to figure out the emotional colouring of the concept in question.

Martin Luther King was an African American and addressed the audience with the "I Have a Dream" speech during the civil rights movement in the USA. It is crucial to keep this fact in mind while analyzing the set of concepts in the speech. Being the citizens of the USA, African Americans partly shared the views of Americans, as they are united by the territory and history. However, there is a set of concepts that were influenced by the peculiarities of historical development of the USA, i.e. a long period of segregation and discrimination of African Americans. That is why there appeared a unique concept of the "African American Dream". This new concept is a key to understanding the African American worldview since it is based on their strivings, cravings and hopes for the future. Some time ago the African American Dream used to be part of the American Dream, a broader concept. That is why the definitions of the earlier period are applicable to a narrower concept. Here, the African American Dream is examined as a separate concept that has its own characteristics, which are often different from those of the American Dream.
It is not difficult to imagine what African Americans have been dreaming of during the two previous centuries. What they wanted most of all was certainly freedom. Only after 1865 newly freed African Americans started new lives in spite of the fact that attitudes toward them were still negative. That is why there appeared one more component of their dream – the will to be treated equally to the white population of the country. African Americans dreamt of being able to make choices without the restriction of their race and skin colour.

It was Martin Luther King who spoke about a new dream that was not the same as the American Dream. In his best-known speech, "I Have a Dream," he defined it in the following way: "It is a dream deeply rooted in the American dream <…> a dream that one day this nation will rise up and live out the true meaning of its creed: 'We hold these truths to be self-evident; that all men are created equal.'" [7] These words can be seen as the emergence of the African American Dream. So, its core element in the middle of the 20th century, in Martin Luther King, Jr.'s opinion, was the idea of racial equality.

In the "I Have a Dream" speech, Martin Luther King stands up for the existence of the Dream in people's hearts. He shows that even though African Americans are not satisfied with the way they are treated, they do not deny the Dream. Ill-treatment of African Americans, injustice, persecution, discrimination, and oppression are shown in the "I Have a Dream" speech as threatening, sinister and sullen:

- *the long night of captivity*
- *quicksands of racial injustice*
- *storms of persecution*
- *winds of police brutality*
- *heat of injustice*
- *heat of oppression*

On the contrary, positive treatment is seen asa pleasant and joyful natural phenomenon:

- *a joyous daybreak*
- *sunlit path of racial justice*
- *invigorating autumn of freedom and equality*
- *oasis of freedom and justice*

In order to describe the modern attitude towards African Americans, the leader of the U.S. civil rights movement uses a sequence of adjectives and nouns with negative connotations: "dark", "desolate", "storm", "heat". They represent natural phenomena that prevent peaceful existence. The same idea can be applied to unfairness, discrimination and segregation. That is how emotionally coloured words contribute to the understanding of the concept.

One more point of analysis in this speech is the revelation ofa Biblical layer that broadens the understanding of the African American Dream. The main source of M.L.King's language was the King James translation of the Bible. In his childhood, King attended his father's church and listened to the preachers. He had a unique memory and could cite the passages from the Bible. As a result, one can find numerous allusions to the Bible in the speech under analysis. Examples related to the representation of the African American Dream are provided below:

"we will not be satisfied until justice rolls down like waters and righteousness like a mighty stream."	AMOS 5:24: "But let judgment run down as waters, and righteousness as a mighty stream."
"I have a dream that every valley shall be exalted"	ISAIAH 40:4: "Every valley shall be exalted, and every mountain and hill shall be made low"
"from the quicksands of racial injustice to the solid rock of brotherhood"	MATTHEW 7:24-27: Parable of the houses built on the sand and on the rock.

The use of Biblical allusions is truly remarkable because by introducing such metaphors in the address, Martin Luther King not only expresses his own ideas with respect to the actual state of affairs at the time, but also reminds people of the parables, which are relevant at all times. [5, p.79]. Thus, thanks to Martin Luther King the African American Dream has connections to religion, proving the fact that not only material wealth is important for immigrants.

Later, in 1965, Martin Luther King would elucidate the concept by quoting the Declaration of Independence once again: "It wouldn't take us long to discover the substance of that dream. It is found in those majestic words of the Declaration of Independence, words lifted to cosmic proportions: 'We hold these truths to be self-evident, that all men are created equal, that they are endowed by God, Creator, with certain inalienable Rights, that among these are Life, Liberty, and the pursuit of Happiness.' This is a dream. It's a great dream." [3] In this passage he drew special attention to the words "all men" as they suggest absence of any division of the Americans into groups and the idea of unity comes to the fore.

To sum up, with the help of the examples adduced above, it has been shown that the African American Dream is a true concept as it meets all the requirements of a concept mentioned in the theoretical part of the present article: It is a national-specific dynamic concept that arouses certain positive emotions of people who use it. Being a historically conditioned concept, it also has some historic references to African Americans' past, especially to the civil rights movement in the USA.

The concept of the African American Dream is not the only one that finds its realization in Martin Luther King's speech. In his address he also turns to the notion of freedom, which becomes a separate concept: it is a complicated and important notion without which it is difficult to imagine the culture in question [3, p.27]. Some decades ago, the concept of freedom was understood merely as freedom from slavery, but in this very speech it reflects something greater – the attitude towards African Americans in society and their moral state. This time its main components

are getting rid of segregation and discrimination andletting African Americans feel equal to white Americans.

"But one hundred years later, the Negro still is not free. One hundred years later, the life of the Negro is still sadly crippled by the manacles of segregation and the chains of discrimination"[7].

The modern understanding of freedom, in Martin Luther King's opinion, is close to that of freedom from slavery becausemen are still not free, but "crippled by manacles and chains". However, in this case one comes across a metaphoric understanding of African Americans' inability to escape from the fetters of segregation and discrimination.

Moreover, there is a link between the notion of freedom and other components of life that African Americans have been striving for, for example "freedom and … justice", "freedom and equality" and "an oasis of freedom and justice". Thus, the notions of justice and equality also define the African American worldview, showing that freedom is not everything they want to achieve.

If African Americans want to get the desired result, they need to put in a great deal of effort. That is why the concept of freedom is accompanied by the idea of struggle.

"<…> we must rise to the majestic heights of meeting physical force with soul force."

"We can never be satisfied as long as the Negro is the victim of the unspeakable horrors of police brutality. We can never be satisfied as long as our bodies, heavy with the fatigue of travel, cannot gain lodging in the motels of the highways and the hotels of the cities. We cannot be satisfied as long as the Negro's basic mobility is from a smaller ghetto to a larger one…"[7].

As can be seen from the examples adduced above, struggle presupposes not an armed rebellion but a constant movement forwards, spiritual power, a desire to change the current state of affairs andhope for the future. It follows that Martin Luther King, unlike Malcolm X, was not an adherent of a radical approach to the situation, but promoted integration with the rest of Americans.

These are two basic concepts of the African American worldview that have been reflected in the political discourse of the civil rights movement, represented in the article by Martin Luther King, Jr.'s speech. They have also been developed in addresses by other African American leaders and politicians. Some of these concepts

exist even at present, though slight changes in their understanding are possible. One can find them in Barack Obama's and Louis Farrakhan's speeches.

The African American Dream of the 20thand 21st centuries is characterized by a definite opposition of the reality and the ideal, by a necessity to struggle, by believing in the Dream. The African American Dream remains a complex and multilayered concept. To get a fuller picture,students can also turn to Malcolm X's addresses and even to addresses by our contemporariessuch as Barack Obama and Louis Farrakhan. That is how the evolution of the concept in question can be illustrated.

To conclude, language is a great source of information about culture and the worldview of people. It is a means of passing traditions and attitudes from generation to generation and setting them firmly in people's minds. That is why doing concept analysis,following the stages mentioned at the very beginning of this article, in culture classes with foreign students seems to be of considerable importance.

References

Баранова Л.Л. Американскаямечта: Учебно-методическоепособие. М.: МАКС Пресс, 2006.

Лунев С. Чтотакоеукраинскаямечта. «Однако», 14.08.2012; http://www.odnako.org/blogs/show_20248/

Маслова В.А. Когнитивнаялингвистика: Учебноепособие. Мн.: ТетраСистемс, 2004.

ПартияГрузинскаямечта; http://gd.ge/?lang=Rus

Chanturidze J., Martin Luther King, Jr. and the American Political Discourse: Rhetoric and Religion // LATEUM 2013 Conference Proceedings. ELT and Linguistics 2013: New Strategies for Better Solutions: Conference Proceedings / Editor-in-Chief: Prof.Olga Aleksandrova. – M.: MAKS Press, 2013.

Longman Dictionary of English Language and Culture, 1992.

Martin Luther King, Jr.'s speech "I Have a Dream", 1963; http://www.americanrhetoric.com/speeches/mlkihaveadream.htm.

Oxford Guide to British and American Culture, 2001.