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Contents

A Comparative Study on Meaning Between Systemic Functional Linguistics and Cognitive Linguistics[*]

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As both SFL (Systemic Functional Linguistics) and CL (Cognitive Linguistics) belong to the big family of functionalism, with the real and natural language as the target, the two linguistic schools focus their attention on meaning. They basically share four general concepts about meaning: integrity between form and meaning, iconicity between form and meaning, dynamics of meaning and indeterminacy of meaning. However, distinctive perspectives of two schools that SFL regards language as behavior while CL regards language as knowledge, determine the fact that similar concepts are generated and proved in different ways or with different ideas. Moreover, the main disparity in their study on meaning is reflected in the basic hypothesis of each school. Through a brief comparison, the paper reaches the conclusion that both schools have great future for mutual complementariness on their study of meaning.

Keywords: SFL, CL, meaning, behavior, knowledge

Introduction

The late period of the 20th century witnessed a shift of linguistic study focusing from form and structure to meaning. SFL and CL have been unswervingly pursuing meaning-oriented studies, in contrast with form and structure-oriented studies adhered to structuralism linguistics and generative linguistics.

SFL and CL both focus their attentions on meaning, which is evident from their respective definitions.

> SFL is defined as a theory of language concerned about the communicative meaning produced in the course of communication of social man. And CL is defined as a theory of language concerned about the conceptual or image meaning intrinsic in the human mind by exploring the interaction between man and the objective world. (ZHANG, 2004, p. 84)

The reason arises from the fact that they belong to the big family of functionalism, with the real and natural language as the target, in contrast with the family of formalism.

However, both schools have different perspectives and take different approaches. SFL reflects the social function of language. SFL starts at the social context centered around people, and from the perspective of socio-culture and humanism, that is interorganism. It studies meaning in the context, regards text (both written and spoken) as the basic study target, and takes the approach of function segmentation to analyze the functions

expressed by text and sentence components from different strata. Its textual analysis covers both macro (register and genre) and micro (transitivity, mood, modality, theme, cohesion) studies. CL reflects the cognitive function of language. CL starts at the cognitive domain related to individuals, and from the cognitive and psychological perspective of individuals, that is interorganism. It applies the prototype category theory to describe the conceptual structure, and establishes a variety of cognitive models such as ICM (Idealized Cognitive Model), image schema, mental space theory, frame semantics to find out the common rules of language structure and cognitive structure. In summary, according to the Halliday's (1978) diagram showing the domain of language study by a broken line (p. 11), SFL regards language as behavior while CL regards language as knowledge; and from the perspective of study on meaning, SFL is principally concerned about the situational meaning while CL deals with the conceptual meaning.

The paper will first reveal the basic agreements on meaning between SFL and CL embodied in four general concepts about meaning. Then, it will look into the disparity in meaning between both schools shaped by their basic hypothesis. Finally, it will come to a conclusion that it is the distinctive perspectives of two schools that have contributed to the basic agreements as well as the disparity between them. More importantly, two schools have great potentials in complementariness of meaning studies.

Basic Agreements on Meaning Between SFL and CL

Both SFL and CL belong to the big family of functionalism, with the real and natural language as the target, in contrast with the family of formalism led by Chomsky's generative linguistics with the idealized and grammatical sentences as the target. As each of their definitions implies, meaning is the key and focus of each school. This explains the reason why some basic agreements are reached between two schools, and justifies the assumption that they belong to the same family. They basically share four general concepts about meaning: integrity between form and meaning, iconicity between form and meaning, dynamics of meaning and indeterminacy of meaning. However, distinctive perspectives of two schools that SFL regards language as behavior while CL regards language as knowledge, determine the fact that similar concepts are generated and proved in different ways or with different ideas, as specified in Table 1.

Integrity Between Form and Meaning

Two schools stand together against the idea of formalism that language is an "autonomous" system, and against separation of form from meaning. They both agree that language expression is formed on the basis of meaning-function, and constrained by meaning-function. In other words, meaning-function influences and determines the language form (WANG, 2007, p. 31). They claim an integrated and inseparable relationship between form and meaning.

SFL classifies the language system into three strata: phonology, lexico-grammar and meaning, and emphasizes the fact that the stratum of meaning is realized by the stratum of lexico-grammar, which is also realized by the stratum of phonology. Thus, the study of meaning penetrates deep into each stratum of language and integrates all strata into a whole.

CL divides language into three units: symbolic unit, meaning unit and sound unit. The symbolic unit is a unity of meaning unit and sound unit. Morphemes, words, phrases and syntax are all included in the symbolic unit with no boundary, and together construct a continuum (Langacker, 1987, pp. 328-368). Thus, CL is a believer of integrity between form and meaning.

Table 1

Basic Agreements on Meaning Between SFL and CL

Meaning / School	Basic agreements			
	Integrity between form and meaning	Iconicity between form and meaning	Dynamics of meaning	Indeterminacy of meaning
SFL	Meaning ⌣realization Lexico-grammar ⌣realization Phonology	Phonology arbitrary iconic Meaning iconic Lexico-grammar	Meaning is a kind of "semogenesis process", or the product of a series of dynamic constructive activities, existing in the interaction between man's consciousness and experience.	Final formation of meaning is inseparable from the choice of man, while this choice is determined by various contextual factors (social context and cultural context).
CL	Grammar Symbolic unit Meaning unit ↕ Sound unit (PENG, 2005, p. 19)	Meaning iconic Morphology /syntax	Meaning of language is not limited to the language content, but originated from the cognition interacted with the objective world, and from users' understanding of the world.	Meaning is not from the objective truth conditions, but related to man's subjective cognition domain and the knowledge network system.

Iconicity Between Form and Meaning

Both schools challenge the thought of arbitrariness of language by acclaiming different meanings expressed by different forms, and proposing certain motivation between form and meaning. However, both schools vary with the degree of motivation. So far as SFL is concerned, the relationship between phonology and meaning is arbitrary, while the relationships between meaning and lexico-grammar, and between phonology and lexico-grammar are not arbitrary but iconic. CL suggested meaning and morphology/syntax are iconic as there is a correspondence between language form and personal experience.

Dynamics of Meaning

Both schools object to the static approach of meaning taken by formalism. Halliday (1992) thought that meaning is a kind of "semogenesis", or the product of a series of dynamic constructive activities, existing in the interaction between man's consciousness and experience. As far as CL is concerned, the meaning of language is not limited to the language content, but originated from the cognition interacted with the objective world and users' understanding of the world.

Indeterminacy of Meaning

Halliday (1978) pointed out repeatedly that the final formation of meaning is inseparable from the choice of man, while this choice is determined by various contextual factors (social context and cultural context). Therefore, the meaning is probabilistic or indeterminate (ZHANG, 2004, p. 86). There are five types of indeterminacy: ambiguity, blend, overlaps, neutralization and complementarities.

CL proposes that meaning is not from the objective truth conditions, but related to man's subjective cognition domain and the knowledge network system. The boundary of meaning can only be called vague,

which can not be determined with a set of key features.

Disparity in Meaning Between SFL and CL

As for the meaning study, the disparity between SFL and CL is mainly embodied by their basic hypothesis, in which the behavior-dominated experience under the social context has shaped SFL while the knowledge-based cognition in the mental world has oriented CL.

Basic Hypothesis of SFL

As revealed in Figure 1, the objective world studied by SFL is actually the social structure. Halliday (1978) assumed that there is a meaning interface between the objective world and the language sign. Linguists should be committed to the study on how language use is restrained by social structure, and how social structure is preserved, spread or changed and even replaced through the use of language (Halliday, 1978, pp. 55-182). The school's current work highlights how human constructs the experience of the world and how human experience is constructed into the meaning system. And language becomes the base of experience construal. Besides, language also constructs interpersonal relation. Thus, social communication can be realized through language. As guided by the hypothesis, SFL describes the context of situation with the term "register", which consists of three variables: field, tenor and mode. Those three variables respectively restrain three meta-functions in the text: ideational, interpersonal and textual functions. Meanwhile, the three meaning systems are realized by transitivity, mood and modality, thematic structure, information structure and cohesion in the strata of lexico-grammar.
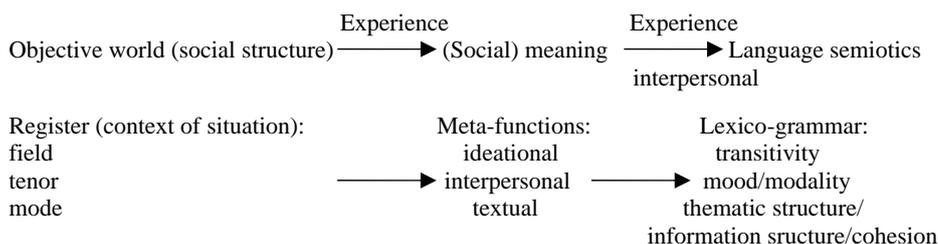
Figure 1. Basic hypothesis of SFL.

Basic Hypothesis of CL

As clearly seen from Figure 2, CL emphasizes that language can not directly mirror the objective world, but first resort to cognition to shed light on the objective world. Its focal point is man's cognition rather than the objective world. CL assumes that man's subjective cognition interacts with the objective world through embodied experience so as to form the concept or image in the human brain. The process of conceptualization means formation of meaning by means of prototype category, image schema and metaphor, which are the most typical cognitive phenomena or structures. And finally, the concept or image is materialized by the symbolic unit. Therefore, what language reflects is the mental product of the reality.
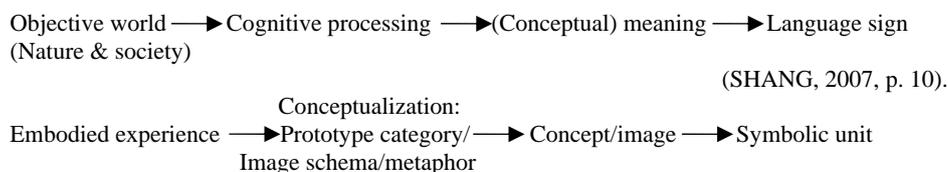
Figure 2. Basic hypothesis of CL.

Conclusions

Both CL and SFL belong to the big family of functionalism, for they focus their attention on meaning. They mainly differ from each other in their distinctive perspectives and approaches. SFL has formed a rather complete and comprehensive theoretical system, centered around the leading figure of Halliday's ideas and thoughts. SFL studies meaning from the perspective of social function and context, reflecting social communication of language. But it is not ignorant of cognitive and psychological methods. CL is a relatively new discipline without a unified theoretical system, in need of further improvement. CL stresses the role of such cognitive phenomena or structures as prototype category, image schema and metaphor in shaping conceptual meaning, reflecting cognitive function of language. But it is not ignorant of the influence of social culture upon meaning perception. In short, two schools have great future for mutual complementariness on their study of meaning.

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Right Diction in Advertising English

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As a special style, advertising English has its own features. The verbal part of an advertisement is of vital importance to ensure its success. The paper discusses right diction in advertising English. This idea is established mainly through four aspects. The first section deals with effective choice of words by looking into some features of words and phrases. How to use appropriate figures of speech is carefully considered in section two. Section three confers about some advertising copy techniques, such as capitalized headlines and gimmick. For the purpose of avoiding a few common pitfalls that yield from some cultural differences and misunderstanding, we can refer to section four. The paper is hoped to be helpful to those who want to learn English by reading English advertisement or those non-native copywriters of English advertisement.

Keywords: right diction, advertising English, advertising techniques, gimmick

Introduction

Advertising comes up whenever we unfold a piece of newspaper, read a magazine, turn on TV or just walk on the street. For those who are interested in English, learning precise English by reading and appreciating delicate advertisement really has good effect with less effort. But it is not easy to master, because advertising is different from other literary styles. It has its own features and is limited in certain areas according to some special effects it pursues. In this paper, we refer to the verbal part of English advertisement in the hope that it will facilitate English learners in studying advertising English.

Advertising English tends to use simple and common vocabulary. But it is not equal to say that those simple words only present monotony. Every word has to be considered over and over to match the content of the advertisement. Artistic charm is achieved through morphology, pronunciation, connotation and denotation, so right diction can add surprising feeling to a piece of plain advertisement.

Advertisement's power of persuasion has kept in touch with the masses through different mass media. Advertisement enjoys its popularity and charm mostly because of its verbal part. The features of advertising English have decided that promising effect is ensured by right words and phrases.

By expressing people's deep-lying desires and states of being what individuals privately want, advertisers have the best chances of getting affection and affecting communication. The immediate goal of advertising is to tug our psychological states and to have influence on us for a word or two about whatever is being sold.

Effective Choice of Words

Understanding Copy Terminology

To ensure the effective choice of words, we should first understand some copy terminologies in advertisement. The key elements in print advertising are the headline, illustration, subhead, body copy, caption,

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boxes and panels, slogans, logotypes, seals and signature. In broadcast advertising, copy is normally spoken language and referred to the audio part of the commercial. An announcer, spokesperson or actor may deliver the copy by an unseen announcer or camera.

Most of these elements belong to the verbal part. It is necessary to use appropriate diction to write a delicately designed advertisement verbal part. In order to write a nice verbal part, we will refer to some features of advertising English.

Some Verbal Features of Advertising English

After a long history of advertisement, advertising English has developed into a special style and has its own features. Ignoring these features by using inappropriate words can cause devastating results.

Simple and colloquial words. Most native speakers know 20,000 to 30,000 words but only 4,000 to 5,000 ones are used frequently. Simple and colloquial words are used for easy and fast contact with the readers.

Example 1: My Goodness! My Guinnes!

Example 1 is a beer advertisement. "Guinness" is a beer brand. In this exclamatory sentence, colloquial feature is distinctive. "My Goodness" expresses surprising feeling in colloquial language. "Goodness" and "Guinness" have the same alliteration and rhyme. It is not only easy to pronounce and memorize but also to present a vivid admiring picture of customers. Few other words can replace "Goodness" for better effect because of its similarity with "Guinness".

Example 2: Merrell Dow dedicated to improving the health of Americans.

Example 2 is a piece of advertisement of a famous medicine corporation—Merrell Dow Pharmaceuticals Inc. in USA. The headline is "If you want to quit smoking for good, see your doctor". Friendly mood arises in "see a doctor" instead of "consult a doctor". If one removed "see" and used other words, the power of persuasion and friendly feeling would decrease a lot.

Certainly, not all English advertisements are based on colloquial language. Languages of different flavor are used to welcome different readers. They differ in formality. Every member of the society can be a reader of advertisement when they have chocolate, drinks or popular snacks. So words like "gotta" or "you bet" can be used for the fear of losing readers. Most readers with expensive wine, luxury cars and cosmetics of high quality are wealthy and well-educated. So language of this category requires being graceful. Otherwise some prospective customers will not even read such advertisement. Also, graceful words can add glory to the commodity and reveal the customers' high statuses.

Example 3: With Petal-Drops Moisturizing Bath-Essence you can give your skin a petal-fresh softness and fragrance that will last and last while the day through. Because Petal-Drops—all combined with loving care to give that oh-so-good-to-be-alive feeling.

Example 3 is a literary advertisement. Words such as "moisturize", "essence" and "fragrance" are carefully chosen to reveal smell of literature. "Petal" is an image for refreshment, softness and beauty. Function of this soap fuel is well-established by connecting such feeling to skin. We also see traces of colloquial English, such as "oh-so-good-to-be-alive". The combination of written English and colloquial English is also a feature of advertising English. The difference between each other is becoming more and more obscure. Literary words are also widely used in airline advertisement. A lot of airline advertisements are elegant and charming. For instance, "We all welcome you the moment you step on board, as we would be *honored* guests in our own home, sharing with you a world of *enchantment* that is Malaysia". In this advertisement, the two italicized

words put passengers into a high social status and emphasize the superb service in the planes.

Coined or invented names. The most distinctive names are often coined or invented in advertising. Kodak is said to be coined to a name in the beginning and ending with an infrequently used letter. Many more, such as Xerox and Polaroid, are other examples. They have an advantage, because they are short, pronounceable and arbitrary. It is unlike others to use anything similar.

Psychologists say that creating new words can mislead consumers to think about the uniqueness of the product. A reasonable new word can make the advertisement more appealing. For example, "We know eggsactly how to sell eggs". "Eggsactly" has the same pronunciation as "exactly" but spells differently. It is better than "exactly" because it echoes with "eggs". Undoubtedly, it impresses deeply upon readers' mind.

For example, "Drinka pinta milka day". This prevailing advertisement is spelled according to its pronunciation. Its actual meaning is "Drink a pint of milk a day". The former one arouses readers' curiosity, while the latter one cannot achieve.

As we have mentioned in the first paragraph of this part, "K" is very active in creating new words, such as "Kash'n' Karry Supermarket" (= Cash and Carry Supermarket), "Krispy cream doughnuts" (= Crispy cream doughnuts), "Koin Klean Laundry" (= Coin Clean Laundry). Some people think the letter "K" is more attractive than "C". After all, the use of "K" results in lively and interesting effect.

Elliptical words and sentences. Contemporary advertisement costs a lot, while elliptical words can lower the cost and spare some space of sheet. There is a real estate advertisement as follows:

> To Rent Or For Sale
> Furnished Edinburgh Court,
> 426 Argyle St.,
> 2nd floor,
> 1,630 sq. ft.
> 4 bedrooms with dining and living room, private garage.
> Sale at $130,000.
> Rent 1,400.
> Tel. 38954 office time or 823784.

We can see the conciseness of this advertisement almost in a glance. There are a lot more information words—nouns, verbs, adjectives than function words—prepositions, conjunctives, etc.. Many auxiliary verbs, i.e., the verb "be" is omitted to cut advertising cost. Obviously components such as "is" or "are" will not influence the readers' comprehension of the whole piece of information. Advertising language must have time effect and persuade its readers almost in no time. Eliminating subordinate components can make the key words outstanding and impressing. For example, "Make it a mild smoke. Mild Seven Smooth, rich, rewarding" (Mild Seven Cigarette's advertisement); "Special purchases too good to miss" (Advertisement for jewelry); "Soft 100% cotton's the natural choice for comfort!" (Advertisement for underwear). Complete sentences like "Special purchase is too good for you to miss" or "choose soft underwear of 100% cotton" will not have the practical impression and perfect effect.

Adjectives. The aim of advertisement is to describe the nature and quality of the product. So it is very important to use adjective properly.

Words, such as "wonderful", "fine" and "great", can be used in any circumstance to describe excellent commodity. "Delicious", "crisp", "fresh" and "rich" are often used in food advertisement. "Fresh" and "clean"

often emerge in advertisement of toothpaste, soap, shampoo and detergent. To be specific, "One more Cartier for your fingertips". "More" is the comparative form of much. It is used in this cigarette advertisement of Cartier brand, so that you can feel the continuing enjoyment in smoking.

Persuasive forms of "buy". The target of advertisement is to encourage its readers to buy the commodity. However, "buy" is warily used, because the connotation of it is "to obtain something by giving money". Advertisement designers often use other words to prevent giving readers an unpleasant impression of "giving money". The words which enjoy a high frequency are "be, make, get, take, try, come, go, have, need, see, use, give, discover, introduce, remember, serve, choose, look for, let/send for, call, come on" and "hurry". These words belong to basic vocabulary and most of them are mono-syllabic. The connotation of "buy" can be expressed through different ways such as "take A your toothpaste", "discover the smoothness of A", "introduce your family to A" or "serve A". These expressions in the context have the same meaning as "buy" and avoid unpleasant feeling.

Compound words. In some senses, compound words are another form of created words. Most of them used in advertising are constructed in these ways:

(1) adj. + n., e.g., these twenty top-quality bulbs; high-fashion knitwear;

(2) n. + adj., e.g., the farmhouse—fresh taste; feather—light flakes; sugar-crisp bubbles of wheat;

(3) v. -ing + adj., e.g., shining-clean pans, your paintwork comes up sparkling-clean;

(4) n. + v.-ed, e.g., honey-coated Sugar Puffs; the only chocolate-flavoured cereal;

(5) adv. + v.-ed, e.g., a stiff-tufted mud remover; perfectly-textured cakes;

(6) n. + v.-ing, e.g., the unbreakable hand fitting container; a relief-giving liquid;

(7) adj. + v.-ing, e.g., the best-looking small car in the world;

(8) adv. + v.-ing, e.g., fast-foaming new detergent; the best-selling soft toilet tissue.

Syllabic and easy to utter as they are, compound attributes/classifiers or modifiers contain contact implication and remind a picturesque product image. They are precise and close to customers' five senses. They are therefore more persuasive and convincing at the recipients' end.

Brilliant compound words, such as we have mentioned in Example 3 "oh-so-good-to-be-alive feeling", add obvious outstanding effect to ordinary advertisement.

Homophone. A homophone is a word that is pronounced almost the same as another word but differs in meaning. The words may be spelled the same, such as rose (flower) and rose (past tense of "rise"), or differently, such as carat, caret and carrot, or to, two and too. Almost all car advertisements give detailed introduction of their cars' performance. But Honda's advertisement distinguishes itself from others on headline by "Home Sweet Honda". In "Home Sweet Honda", "Honda" is a homophone of "Home" which is familiar to most people in "Home Sweet Home". Therefore, people can associate "Honda" with "Home" subconsciously. This is a typical successful example by using homophone in advertising.

Euphemisms. To euphemize is to substitute an inoffensive, mild word for a word that is offensive, harsh or blunt. Calling toilet paper bath-room tissue does not change its appearance or function, but it may soften the mental impression of people. But be careful in choosing euphemisms, they can be misleading sometimes, or even weakening one's message. For example, "washing hands" is a euphemism of going to toilet. But in some countries other than US, listeners may misunderstand as its original meaning. So they may turn out to lead you to an awkward wash basin! The same is true in advertising! Besides its original reference, euphemisms in different culture may lead to different connotations. Sometimes in some countries if they are considered fraudulent, they could have risks in breaking laws. Hence, a comprehensive investigation shall be conducted

before it takes effect.

Avoiding Unsatisfactory Words

Look out the devastating results which inappropriate diction can lead to.

Clichés words. Overused expressions do nothing for copy. Most superlatives and clichés were once exciting statements, but time has worn their value into rags.

Certainly, clichés can communicate, but not all-stock expressions are clichés. Clichés rode consumer confidence. They contribute to an out-of-date image. For example, the old proverb "One man's meat is another man's poison" will not remind any pleasure or excitement of the audience.

Vague words. Vague words are words that do not provide a specific measurement, such as good, fine and OK. They are not easily understood or evaluated. Concrete words are specific and understood.

A good copy is concrete and tied in with the experience of the audience to which it appeals. Words should have concrete dollar-and-cuts value. For example, in an industrial advertisement for a new piece of equipment, it would be better to be specific and say the machine "performs the work of five people" rather than to simply mention that it is "a work-saving machine".

Right Figures of Speech

Besides the features of words mentioned above, figures of speech play another significant role in right diction of advertising English.

Rhyming

Being used to be a poetic writing skill, rhyming now is widely used in advertising. It includes alliteration and rhyme. In "And it's power that packs a punch", strengthening the power of plosives /s/ in "a smooth silky skin", the repeated consonant /p/ has emphasized the soft skin resulted from that brand cosmetics.

Rhyming is often seen in a song advertisement. For example, "Pepsi-Cola hits the spot, twelve full ounces, that's a lot, twice as much for a nickel too—Pepsi-Cola is the drink for you" (Pepsi's advertisement). It is played in lively rhythm and animates the readers to drink it.

Contrast

Antonyms and contradictory words form contrast to strengthen the imposing manner of the sentence, such as inside and outside, up and down, black and white, hot and cold, new and old. To be specific, "Something good is coming up when you get the Bisquick down" (Bisquick is a snack brand).

Pun

Franklin had a saying that "We must all hang together, or we shall all hang separately!". This is a superb pun by using the two meanings of "hang". Franklin emphasized the dreadful death resulting from splitting instead of convincing people to cooperate. Pun is humorous and interesting in advertising English. Here are several examples: "Give your hair a touch of spring" (Spring refers to the elastic quality and spring-like color of hair); "Ask for More" (More is a cigarette brand. If a smoker asks for more cigarettes, he asks for More).

Other Figures of Speech

Besides what we have mentioned, there are several more kinds of figures of speech, such as simile, metaphor, personification, repetition, and so on. We pass over them because they are familiar to most readers. These figures of speech also help to intensify advertisement's effect.

We just take an overlook of some features of diction of advertising English. Now we know what words are

suitable for an advertisement, but that is far from enough. Now we will focus on what kind of suitable words can be right, bringing about expected consequence without any pitfalls.

Advertising Techniques

According to Bovee and Arens' *Contemporary Advertising* (1986), the definition of advertising is "the nonpersonal communication of information usually paid for and usually persuasive in nature about products, services or ideas by identified sponsors through the various media" (p. 5).

To create an effective advertisement, the copywriter seeks to gain attention, create interest, achieve credibility, heighten desire and stimulate action.

Capitalized Headlines

"Why is it more fun to go to California on the sunset limited? (Advertisement of sunset limited corporation)" introduces the object directly which "new breakfast drink discovery gives you more vitamins C and A than orange juice" (Advertisement's headline of TANG instant drink) tackles the latest information to arouse readers' interest.

Gimmick

Gimmick is a trick or object which is issued only to attract people's attention especially in an attempt to sell something. An advertisement of Honda Motorcycle is headlined with "Rebel. A bike you can afford to be seen on". Motorcycles are an image of youth, liveliness and risk. Honda from Japan names its new motorbike "rebel" to promote its sale and it really works.

Avoiding Common Pitfalls

The key point to remember about copy style is that it must reflect consumers' tastes and values. Today, consumers are intelligent, educated and discriminating. Generalizations are not convincing. So it is especially important to combine appropriate words into precise sentences. In order not to annoy customers, we should use words that sell and avoid the pitfalls.

First Person

To be effective, the advertisement must appeal to the readers' self-interest, but not the advertisers'. If one wants to get his/her message across and persuade the readers to buy, then he/she had better use his/her attitude: Talk in terms of his/her needs, hopes, wishes and preferences; talk about the readers and he/she is talking about the most interesting person in the world. In Table 1, "A" in the left column corresponds to "A1" in the right column. "B" corresponds to "B1".

Table 1

First or Second Person

You	Me
A: We are pleased to announce our new flight schedule from Cincinnati to Philadelphia which is any hour on the hour.	A1: You can take a place from Cincinnati to Philadelphia any hour on the hour.
B: We believe this vacuum cleaner to be technically superior to any other on the market.	B1: Your house will be more beautiful because you'll be using the most powerful, easy-to-use vacuum we have ever offered.

Risks in Creating Names for Products

Copywriters may develop names for products. Personal names, geographic names, coined or invented names, initial or numbers, foreign words, licensed names and dictionary words provide the basis for the

selection of names of most products. But there are risks in creating some names.

Advertisers must be mindful of foreign cultural and governmental restrictions on what may or may not be said, shown or done in an advertisement. Some restrictions are legal ones; others are moral and ethical ones that determine the boundaries of good taste.

These restrictions can cause problems in international advertising. The old Coca-Cola slogan, "Refreshes you best" was once tried to be translated into foreign languages. Nowadays, assertive words, such as "best", is prohibited in field of advertising in many countries. In the United States, this slogan would merely be considered as harmless exaggeration. In Germany, therefore, it is substituted as "Das erfrischt richtig" or "Refreshes you right".

In Europe, there are "Official Sales Periods", which are the only times when price cuts may be advertised. These periods vary from country to country, but control is very strict and fines are exactly high. Before a sale advertisement may be published, it frequently must be approved by a government-controlled agency.

Another example is "Goat" clock in China. It has superb quality and enjoys a good sale in Southeast Asia but few buy it in England, because a goat stands for a man about town in England. Some people joke that a housewife will not buy such a clock unless her husband has affairs.

A "Pansy" brand of men's shirt indicates an effeminate man. Most customers will not like such brand. A kind of Chinese cosmetics named "Fang Fang" means "snake's poisonous teeth". "One export playing cars' Chinese PinYin is 'maxipuke' whose English equivalence is to vomit violently". Such mistakes will not benefit the seller, the buyer or the government.

Conclusions

Art is the visual presentation of the message strategy, and copy is the verbal presentation of the message. They two are of the equal importance. One cannot be ignored more or less than the other. Finishing a perfect copy is half a successful advertisement. The copywriter should develop a brief, well-written copy platform that tells what the copy will say and how it will support the message strategy.

Inappropriate diction can backfire and the results can be devastating. In some countries, customers will not buy a kind of commodity only because of its offensive, fearful or annoying name. In some cases, inappropriate diction may break laws or offend against beliefs or traditions. Once this happens, the company of this commodity might get in trouble. Consequently, the advertising agency or even the copywriter may be involved. It brings unnecessary suffering which can be avoided by careful workings. Instead, right words can create mood, suggest image, ask for sale and state the brand name all at once. So in order to avoid misunderstanding and to enjoy, we should adopt right diction.

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Contrastive Analysis of "Dog" Expressions in English and Persian

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This study is based on corpora of animal expressions in English and Persian. In this study, "dog" expressions are examined based on Hsieh's (2006) approach of semantic molecules to explore the salient meanings and the cultural backgrounds. Animal expressions may reveal people's thoughts, emotions, cultures and customs. The analysis of about 10,000 English and Persian proverbs shows that there are 97 English and 207 Persian "dog" expressions. In spite of cultural and social differences between English and Persian, the salient semantic properties derived from the name of this animal are nearly the same. The main semantic molecules of the word "dog" are "worthless, bad-tempered, cruel, violent" in both English and Persian.

Keywords: proverbs, animal metaphors, semantic molecules, animal expressions, salient content

Introduction

The present study is within semantic-pragmatic framework. Over the years, there has been an interest in research about metaphors, idioms and proverbs within different frameworks, but studies on animal expressions are few. Animal expressions are part of a language which contain at least one animal name and refer to the animal itself or human being, and will develop along with the time and with the society. Some of the collected metaphors are seldom used nowadays and instead some new metaphors are invented and added to a language because of the social and technical developments. Since the beginning of the history, human beings live close to animals and this make people know animals (especially domestic animals) well, and attribute negative, inferior human characters to animals, and through animal expressions we can see how people of every society observe and describe animals and this may help to understand or reveal culture backgrounds and differences, in fact human languages express the thoughts of human beings, and develop from the culture and society. By using animal metaphors we can reflect how we think about others, about human relations, and how we assess our society. Animal expressions are useful devices for supporting different human purposes such as insulting, praising, criticizing and describing humans, societies, cultures and customs.

"Dog" expressions play an important role for the English and Persian, because dog is a popular animal in both cultures and has a close relation to people. So, because of human familiarity with this animal, they use it frequently in their language expressions. "Dog" name is the second frequent animal name used in Persian animal expressions, although there are a lot of cultural and social differences between English and Persian, the semantic contents raised from the name of this animal are somehow similar. In this paper, we will reveal some

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of the dog expressions in both languages and will discuss the primary and secondary semantic molecules of them in order to compare these expressions in English and Persian to find differences and similarities.

Review of Literature

Below gives a review of some linguistic researches on animal expressions:

Fraser (1981, pp. 435-441) examined insulting animal expressions in different languages other than English to see if they have equal usages;

Newmark (1988, pp. 125-147) believed that animal metaphors are used to a great extent in order to describe inferior or undesirable human habits and attributes;

Davies and Bentahila (1989, pp. 49-68) examined animal terms in British English and Moroccan Arabic. They used different theories like similarity and relevance to categorize animal metaphors;

Holmes (1992, as cited in Hsieh, 2006) gave examples of the "chicken" metaphor in her sociolinguistic analysis of sexism in language;

Sutton (1995, as cited in Hsieh, 2006) studied linguistic discrimination against females and made a strong argument about the metaphor "women are animals";

Tomita (2000, pp. 1-15) worked on a large amount of rhetorical expressions, such as animal similes and metaphors, which are used to delineate the physical appearances or distinctive personalities of various characters in Charles Dickens's novels;

Nadim (2000, pp. 291-299) examined animal roles in Shirazi proverbs with an approach to sociolinguistics. After analyzing about 100 animal expressions, he concluded that "donkey" expressions are the most frequent ones and have some salient semantic molecules, such as "crazy, worthless and absurd";

Hsieh (2001, as cited in Hsieh, 2006) studied animal expressions in Mandarin Chinese and German based on Lakoff and Johnson's (1980) conceptual metaphors;

Hsieh (2004, as cited in Hsieh, 2006) further proposed that "animal expressions are our vocabulary of values";

Hsieh (2006, pp. 2206-2220) investigated animal expressions in Mandarin Chinese and German. With a focus on "cat" and "tiger" expressions, he revealed the salient semantic molecules of these animals in both languages.

Research Framework

In this study, animal expression means any English or Persian expression which contains at least one animal name. "Dog" expressions will be used as the primary examples in the first part of the analysis in order to reveal the semantic molecules of animal expressions. Animal names are considered as metaphorical vehicles here, and most of the data are collected from the written English and Persian dictionaries of proverbs or idioms. Part of the raw data are taken from daily-life conversations. Among written and spoken animal expressions about 304 (English: 97, Persian: 207) are "dog" expressions.

Hsieh (2006, p. 2209) suggested that "In a word, the meaning of an animal word in our mental lexicon contains the components from the animal's nature, habitat, behavior, appearance, and human-animal relation". The following section will extract and analyze the semantic molecules of "dog" expressions. Semantic molecules refer to primitive semantic features, which are supported by linguistic evidence like proverbs.

"Dog" Expressions and Semantic Molecules

In this part, some of the semantic molecules of "dog" expressions are exemplified, and then the authors will discuss and compare the salient molecules in both English and Persian.

Dog

In spite of cultural and ideological differences between English and Persian, the semantic molecules of "dog" expressions are somehow similar in both languages. In Islam dog is an unclean animal, and this belief is revealed in some Persian proverbs which are few and only about seven of 207 "dog" expressions, for example:

Example 1: (1) سگ به هفت دریا پاک نشود (Literal Translation[1]: not be cleaned sea seven in dog) (English Translation: Dog is unclean even if be cleaned in seven seas);

(2) خون سگ شوم است (LT: is ominous dog's blood) (ET: Dog's blood is ominous);

(3) از لف لف سگ دریا نجس نشود (LT: be not uncleaned sea dog's barking of) (ET: sea will not be dirty of dog's barking);

(4) سگ که به آب تر شود، پلیدتر شود (LT: becomes dirtier, be wet water from when dog) (ET: when the dog is wet, becomes dirtier). In English, this belief is not accepted and just one proverb is found with this semantic molecule;

(5) دریا به دهن سگ نجس کی گردد؟ (LT: become when unclean dog of mouse from sea) (ET: the sea is never dirty with the dog's mouse?), "He that washes an ass's head, loses both his soap and his labour". In Persian instead of "ass", "dog" is used;

(6) سگ به دریای هفت گانه بشوی/ که چو شستی پلیدتر باشد (LT: dog in sea seven wash/that when you wash dirtier becomes) (ET: If you wash dog in seven seas, it becomes dirtier).

Another semantic molecules for "dog" expressions in both languages are "worthless", for example:

Example 2: (1) شیر مرده به که سگ زنده (LT: alive dog than better dead lion) (ET: the dead lion is better than an alive dog);

(2) سگ سگ است، ارچه پاسبان باش (LT: be keeper although, is dog dog) (ET: dog is a dog although it is a keeper) = "cut off the dog's tail, he remains a dog";

(3) سگ با قلاده زرین هم سگ است (LT: is dog even golden collar with dog) (ET: dog is a dog even with a golden collar) = "A dog is a dog whatever his colour";

(4) آواز سگان کم نکند رزق گدا را (LT: beggar's food will not decrease dog's barking) (ET: The dog's barking will not decrease the beggar's food);

(5) سگ لاید و کاروان گذرد (LT: goes caravan and barks dog): (ET: Dogs bark, but the caravan goes on) = "The dog bays the moon";

(6) خدا نصیب گرگ بیابان نکند (LT: God want wolf's desert not) (ET: should not happen to a dog) = "God helps that it won't happen to a wolf";

(7) آدم گرسنه سنگ را هم می خورد (LT: eat even stone hungry man) (ET: hungry man will eat even stone) = "Hungry dogs will eat dirty pudding", "cruel and violent" and making a lot of noise.

Other semantic molecules are revealed in English and Persian, for example:

Example 3: (1) پارس آن سگ از گاز گرفتنش بدتر است (LT: is worse his bite than dog that barking) (ET: the dog's bark is worse than his bite) = "His bark is worse than his bite";

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[1] LT should be read from right to left.

(2) پا روي دم سگ نگذار (LT: do not put dog tail on foot) (ET: do not stand on the dog's tail) = "let sleeping dogs lie", "Treading on dog's tail";

(3) با وحشي كسي كه انس گيرد / هم عادت وحشيان پذيرد (LT: with violent who that familiar becomes/habit violent people will take) (ET: He that becomes familiar with violent people, becomes violent) = "He that lies down with dogs must rise up with fleas";

(4) سگ گزنده همان به كه آشنا باشد . (LT: be familiar that better biting dog) = "It is better to be friends with the biting dogs".

There are some English and Persian. Proverbs which contain "loyalty" for dog expressions, for example:

Example 4: (1) سگ حق‌شناس به از آدمي ناسپاس (LT: ungrateful man than better grateful dog) = "A grateful dog is better than an ungrateful man";

(2) سگ از مردم مردم آزار به (LT: better inhumane people than dog) = "The dog is superior to a man who upsets others";

(3) وفاداري را از سگ بايد آموخت (LT: learn should dog from loyalty) = "loyalty should be learned from the dog";

(4) سگ حق‌شناس به از آدمي ناسپاس . (LT: ungrateful man than better grateful dog) = "A loyal dog is better than an ungrateful man";

(5) سگ وفا دارد ندارد زن وفا! (LT: loyalty woman does not have has loyalty dog) (ET: The dog is loyal, but not the women);

(6) سگ به وقت وفا به از نا كس (LT: man than better loyalty time to dog) (ET: dog in need is more loyal than man).

"Dog" expressions contain the opposite semantic molecule "ungrateful" too, in both languages, for example:

Example 5: (1) سگ رفيق استخوان است (LT: is stone friend dog): (ET: Dog is friend with bone) = "Dogs wag their tails, not for you, but for your bread";

(2) دهن سگ هميشه باز است (LT: is open always dog mouse) (ET: The dog's mouse is always open);

(3) سگِ سير سركش است (LT: is unruly fed dog) (ET: fed dog becomes unruly);

(4) سگ خويش گرسنه‌دار تا از دنبال تو آيد (LT: you follow to keep hungry your dog) (ET: Keep your dog hungry to obey you) = "If you save a rouge from the gallows, he will rob you that same night";

(5) سگ كه سير شد دنبال آدم نمي‌آيد (LT: does not follow man is fed when dog);

(6) كمترك انداز سگ را استخوان (LT: Bone to dog give less);

(7) سگ را كه چاق كنند هار مي‌شود (LT: become rabid make fat they that dog);

(8) سگ را كه گنده كني بچه‌ات را مي‌درد . (LT: kill your child grow dog) = "if you feed your dog, becomes violent and kill your child".

As seen in the present proverbs, the same and unique content is shown in form of different proverbs in different languages. The number of dog expressions in Persian is more than English, but the conveyed semantic molecules are nearly the same in both languages.

"Dog" expressions may have other secondary semantic molecules, such as, "vagrancy and wandering" that exists only in Persian.

Example 6: (1) بسكه هرزه دويدم :به سگ گفتند چرا پير شدي گفت (LT: in vain running from says he get old you why ask they dog to) (ET: ask the dog why you get old? He answers because of running in vain);

(2) گفت از دوندگيهاي بيجا ?به سگ گفتند چطور شد كدخدا شدي (LT: in vain running from says become you headman how ask they dog to) (ET: ask the dog how do you become the head man? He answers because of trying in vain).

"Disobedient"

Example 7: (1) تا نباشد چوب تر، فرمان نبرد گاو و خ (LT: donkey and cow do not obey, wet stick without) (ET: there should be stick to make cow and donkey obey) = "It's the raised stick that makes the dog obey";

(2) سگ را به زور به شكار نتوان بر (LT: take can not hunting to force with dog) (ET: you can not force the dog to hunting) = "one can not take a dog on a hunt by force".

"Crazy"

Example 8: سگ در سايه ديوار راه ميرفت گمان ميگرد سايه خود اوست (LT: his own shadow thinks walks wall shadow in dog) (ET: dog walks in the shadow of wall and thinks it is his own shadow)

"angry"

Example 9: روي سگش بالا آمدن (LT: come up his dog face) (ET: his face becomes like a dog) which means to become very angry in English: "To go one's goat".

"Inattention"

Example 10: محل سگ هم به كسي نگذاشتن (LT: do not pay a person to dog heed) (ET: to treat someone less than dog) = "to treat some body like a piece of dirt".

"Shameless/Rude"

Example 11: در مسجد باز است حياي سگ كجا رفته (LT: is where dog shame, is open mosque door) (ET: The mosque's door is open, where is the dog's shame?!) = "It is the masque's door, can not be pulled nor burnt".

"Regret"

Example 12: مثل سگ پشيمان شدن (LT: be regret dog like) (ET: to be regret like a dog) = "To regret very much".

"Miserable"

Example 13: (1) فلك زده شدن (LT: become miserable) (ET: to become miserable = "to go to the dogs";

(2) زندگي سگي داشتن (LT: have doggish life) (ET: to have a life like a dog) = "He leads a dog's life".

Table 1

The Semantic Molecules of Dog in English and Persian

Language	Vehicle	Semantic molecules
English and Persian	Dog	(1) Salient English and Persian semantic molecules: violent, cruel, worthless, unclean, loyalty, ungrateful
		(2) Secondary English and Persian semantic molecules: miserable, disobedient
Persian	سگ /sag/	(3) Secondary Persian semantic molecules: inattention, angry, crazy, wandering, vagrancy, regret, shameless, rude

Conclusions

As it is revealed in Table 1, "dog" evokes more molecules in Persian than in English and it is also much more productive in Persian. While the dog is one of the most popular pet in English, but it is an unclean animal in Iranian culture.

Animal expressions refer to undesirable characteristics and traits of man and low, inferior aspects of human life, so most of them carry negative connotations. There is only one proverb which seems to be positive but it is not used to praise people, "مثل سگ کار کردن" (LT: work dog like) (ET: to work like a dog), yet to praise people in the form of proverbs. Hsieh (2006, p. 2216) believed that names of domestic animals and pets are used for women, and names of wild animals for men.

Traditional notions show themselves in the form of proverbs. In other words, proverbs like other linguistic vehicles are the reflection of speakers' views, cultures, believes, social behaviors and roles, so animal expressions can reveal the individual or social thoughts.

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Romani Exotic Vocabulary in Józef Ignacy Kraszewski's Polish Novel *A Hut Outside the Village* and Its Russian Translation[*]

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The strategies of adequate translation of exotic vocabulary are peculiar in every case. Romani dialects seriously differ from one another. Fiction authors sometimes use Romani exotic vocabulary from uncertain sources. The translator's dilemma is occasionally very crucial: either to agree with the author's choice or try to correct his mistakes. A famous Polish novel *Chata za wsią* (*A Hut Outside the Village*) by Kraszewski is in diverse editions and its Russian translation (also changed into several printed versions) shows an outstanding example of contest between polar decisions of the author and the translator. There are 63 Romani items used 229 times in the novel. Sources used by Kraszewski are descriptions of two dialects seriously differ from Romani dialect in Wołyń (Ukraine), where the writer and his heroes lived. Russian translator included only 33% of Romani words. The last two thirds of the text are almost free of them. Despite some unsatisfactory attempts of revision, this translation is still reprinted unchanged.

Keywords: Romani dialects, exotic vocabulary, fiction translation

Introduction

It is quite obvious that translators have to represent authors' thoughts and must be as precise as possible. The strategies translators who choose and use for adequate rendition of exotic vocabulary are hardly routinized, as they are peculiar in every case. It is understandable, because translation in general is a process of the text conversion from one language to another, when the exotic vocabulary belongs to the third language. The last can essentially differ from both main languages. Exotic elements can be unique and/or rarely used, unfamiliar to most. That is the reason why majority of readers need some comments and notes to understand the meaning of a used exotic term properly. More peculiar way of introducing an exotic term is the thoroughly organized context guiding a reader with some convenient hints rather than explicit definition and making him/her understand the strange word. Although exotic vocabulary as a part of the third language remains usually unchanged in the translation, its new entourage depends both on the context of the original and on the target language rules.

Sometimes, a translator should change the author's original wording to be more clear and understandable for his/her own readers. A French replied at the very beginning of Leo Tolstoy's novel *War and Peace* (2001)

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in its French translation was seriously corrected, for instance, "Eh bien, mon prince. Gênes et Lucques ne sont plus que des apanages, des поместья, de la famille Buonaparte..." (Well, my prince, Genoa and Lucca are nothing but estates or поместья (Russian) of the Bonaparte family) (Tolstoj, 1996), "Eh bien, prince, que vous disais-je? Gênes et Lucques_sont devenues les propriétés de la famille Bonaparte..." (Well, Prince, what did I say? Genoa and Lucca are turned into estates of the Bonaparte family) (Tolstoï, 1901, p. 9).

Sometimes, a translator decides to translate exotic elements into the target language. The same phrase in English translation is English: "Well, Prince, so Genoa and Lucca are now just family estates of the Buonapartes…" (Tolstoy, 2001). In this case, all exoticism saved by the translator is concentrated on the unusual spelling of the family name of Napoleon Bonaparte.

These both main strategies and some additional applied to Romani lexical material are analyzed below.

Material

The Russian translation (Krashevskij, 1856) of the novel *Chata za wsią* (*A Hut Outside the Village*) by a famous Polish writer Kraszewski (1854) is an outstanding example of the translator's independence relating to exotic vocabulary. This example is even more significant than previous instances because of some reasons.

Original

The novel *Chata za wsią* is one of Kraszewski's novels included in the prominent series on the life of folk people (powieści ludowe—"folk novels"). This novel shows Polish landowners, Ukrainian peasants and Romani migrant blacksmiths in their everyday lives and mutual contacts. As well as Ukrainian residents of the village Stawisko, Romani heroes speak their own language. Romani elements in their replies play very important roles either of ethnic markers or of signals of higher emotional level of communication. These words are at once obscure for readers, their meanings are shown a bit later in author's comments enclosed in brackets. This artificial retardation is not the author's fault. It is organized very tricky as a part of nostalgia on the comfort of past times. The novel was destined and thoroughly designed for slow and tasty reading at home, in one's own rural estate, if he/she is a Polish landowner. Editor of 1934 edition Stanisław Turowski compares Romani words in the Polish original text with the raisins in a home cake: "Gdzie niegdzie wkońcu—w scenach z Cyganami—pomieszczono wyrazy cygańskie, jak rodzynki w cieście" (Finally somewhere in scenes with Roma Romani words are placed as the raisins in a home cake) (Kraszewski, 1934, p. xxvi). It is a very informative comparison. This nostalgia sounds clear and wistfully in author's preface to the third edition, which usually precedes the novel from 1871 on and reminds some target groups of readers of "those happy years when we possessed our villages" (w tych szczęśliwych czasach, gdyśmy wsie mieli) (Kraszewski, 1879, p. 3), and when the novel had been written too.

Russian Translation

The first Russian translation (Krashevskij, 1856) comes very soon in the popular journal *Biblioteka dla chtenija* (*Library for Reading*). It looks like the novel was translated immediately after or even during the first journal publication which lasted 20 months (in the Warsaw journal: part I—*Biblioteka warszawska*, 1853; Vol. II. April-May; part II—1854. Vol. I. February-March; part III—Vol. II. April; Vol. IV. November-December). Kraszewski was working on and finished the third part of the novel on May 1, 1854, when the first part was already familiar to readers for more than 10 months (Kraszewski, 1934, p. xlviii). Simultaneously, the first separated edition by Wolff is coming (Kraszewski, v. I-II, 1854; v. III, 1855). It was a real bestseller, not an

ordinary item of everyday literature process. These details are important, because the Russian translation also was not an ordinary translation for many features. The translation (450,000 characters) is shorter than the original text (610,000 characters) by 25%. The reason for shortening of a journal version is usually a lack of free space on the pages. For instance, 1937's edition appeared in two parts as an item of the complimentary library for subscribers of the journal *Kurier Polski* (Kraszewski, 1937). Its editor Stanisław Grek had to shorten the text (to 547,000 characters) by 10%. It is interesting enough that strategies of shortening were different in both cases. The first phrase is unchanged in 1937's version: "Była to sobie... wioska (niestety! niestety! znowu na pograniczu Wołynia i Podola) trochę jeszcze wołyńska, już nieco podolska..." (It was... a village—alas! alas! again on the border between Wołyń and Podole regions—still belongs a bit to Wołyń, but as well a bit to Podole) (Kraszewski, 1937, p. 3). Slow rhythm of this comfort reading alludes unhurried informal evening talks at home. The Russian translation at the beginning chooses less friendly and more dry and informative style: "На границѣ Волыни и Подоліи есть селеніе…" (There is a village on the border between Wołyń and Podole) (Krashevskij, 1856, p. 61). The Russian translator changes almost every phrase and paragraph. So, one can conclude that potential lack of free space in the journal issue was not the single reason for shortening. Strategy of shortening shows a conflict between two stylistic conventions. Author's rhetoric of romanticism is systematically replaced by more realistic descriptions.

It is hardly possible to find some certain information of the translator Mroczek, whose name is absent in the first journal edition and appears in later editions of the same text. Nevertheless, it is clear that this translation should be approved by the journal editor Osip Ivanovich Senkovsky (in Polish spelled as Józef Julian Sękowski, 1800-1858), well known as "a Pole by origin, a Russian by choice". His activity was one of the sources playing the important role for commercial success reached by the unique journal *Biblioteka dla chtenija* (*Library for Reading*). It was certainly his decision either to choose the novel for urgent translation or to change cardinally its style. The target group of Saint Petersburg readers was presumably not ready to enjoy long passages on rural life and decipher Romani words incorporated into the fiction text for easy reading. The author's reaction to this first translation is positive rather than neutral: "Z tego wydania był dokonany przekład rosyjski, w Bibliotece dla Cztenia drukowany, a w r. 1856 francuski wyjść miał w Brukseli. Tego ostatniego nigdyśmy w rękach nie mieli..." (That edition was translated into Russian, and then published in the library for reading, later in 1856 the French translation should be appear in Brussels. But we never had the last in our hands) (Kraszewski, 1879, p. 4). Thus, he saw the Russian journal. He could appreciate all the peculiarities of the autonomous Russian version. In any case, the author of bestsellers could protest and did not so, then expressly or by implication he approved this translator's unusual decision too.

It is unbelievable that this translation being as free as a poetic exposition or even as musical arrangement satisfies everyone for decades. Good command in Polish is not as rare in Russia as Romani, and it is not a big task to look through the first pages to conclude that the original and the 1856's translation are two different novels indeed. There are two evidences that some people evaluate the translation as inadequate. The first evidence is positive: the revised version of 1900 has some additional passages with Romani words taken from the Polish original, this correction is sporadically seen from the chapter 23 on: "Ну, слава Мроденъ-ору! Кузница готова..." (Well, thank God, our smithy is ready) (Krashevskij, 1900, p. 105), where "Мроденъ-ору" (dat. sing. with the Russian masc. ending -u) is taken from the Polish original (Romani Mroden-oro "God") and added into the revised translation, ср.: "Ну, слава Богу, кузница кончена!" (Well, thank God, our smithy is ready/finished) (Krashevskij, 1915, p. 102; 1996, p. 498). The second evidence is negative: the version of 1915

is not revised and copies the first edition of 1856 letter by letter, but is closed with a misleading or ambiguous note: "Настоящее изданіе представляетъ собой воспроизведеніе этого перевода, вновь свѣренное съ подлинникомъ" (This edition is reproduction of 1856 translation newly collated with the original) (Krashevskij, 1915, p. 246). This collation, if any took place, left no traces.

Research of Translator's Strategies Concerning Romani Words

The translator's autonomy is fully visible in the transformation of Romani exotic vocabulary. Romani words and phrases are an important part of (pretending to be) authentic decoration of the novel. There are 63 Romani items used 229 times in the novel. They have to create an exotic atmosphere. And they do, because an ordinary Polish reader feels deeply impressed by these extraordinary words.

Distribution of Romani Words in Polish Original

Before commenting the graph (see Figure 1), it is necessary to say that composition of the novel is next: preface with an additional fragment and chapters from 1 to 44 are divided by three or two volumes. Some editions have no chapter numbers (Kraszewski, 1879, p. 9). Some editions have chapter 1/I as chapter 2/II (if the additional fragment bears number 1/I), etc. (Kraszewski, 1853, p. 3; Kraszewski, 1834, p. 10). So, there are 46 text fragments shown on the graph.
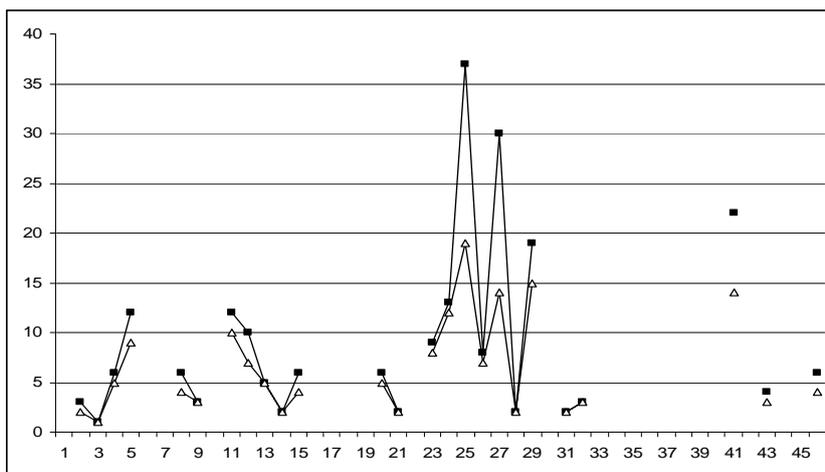
Figure 1. Linear distribution of Romani words in Polish original. Signs: 46 units of the X-coordinate match to 46 text fragments (chapters) of the novel. On the Y-coordinate the number of Romani words used in a chapter and the total number of their uses are shown: Δ—number of Romani words in a chapter; ■—number of Romani words' uses in a chapter.

Although the quantity of Romani elements is exceptionally high, the author's manner of their usage is logical. It is worth to remember that a famous novella *Carmen* (1845) by Prosper Mérimée appeared just eight years before Kraszewski's novel. This unique pioneering work showed the first sample of incorporation of Romani lexical elements into a fiction text about the life of Roma people. Nevertheless, Kraszewski's decision in this point is remarkable and fully independent. In his Polish original, Romani words' linear distribution is very reasonable and informative (see Figure 1). Areas of Romani words' density are also explicable. Chapters 2-15 describe the first arrival of Romani group. Chapters 23-29 narrate of the second arrival of Romani group. Three tops of frequency are positioned in the most dramatic pivot points of the action: chapter 25 (disappointing return of the Romani male Tumry to his family camp), chapter 27 (failed explanation of Tumry and the Romani girl Aza) and chapter 41 (Aza failed to return Tumry's daughter Marysia to her Romani family).

Romani Words Critical Analysis by Edward Klich (1931)

Polish researcher Edward Klich (killed by Nazis in 1939) thoroughly analyzed all Romani words scattered here and there in the novel in an expanded article (Klich, 1931, pp. 171-220). He found two printed sources used by Kraszewski, which were descriptions of Subcarpathian Romani in Poland and Basque Romani in Spain (Michel, 1848). The last is a very fantastic assumption because of geographical factors. Both dialects seriously differ from Romani dialect in Wołyń (Ukraine), where heroes of the novel live and act (Klich 1931, pp. 172-176). Rational reasons by professor Klich are absolutely right, his analysis is unbelievably accurate and industrious. His criticism is bitter sometimes, and everywhere linguistically perfect. Nevertheless, "intellectual fiction in literature" was constructed by the author, his own world could not be judged and assessed by using criteria of the scientific model of reality (Krzyzanowski, 1980, p. 51).

Other examples demonstrate even bigger freedom of authors' choices dealing with exotic lexis of Romani in fiction and fantasy texts. A famous fantasy novel *Dune* (1965) by Frank Herbert contains samples of a fictitious Chakobsa language. They could be identified as Romani phrases taken from *Gypsy Sorcery and Fortune Telling* (1891) by Leland. A fantasy novel *Thinner* (1984) by Stephen King shows Gypsies speak some odd language formally looking like Sweden or a similar one. Both authors have reloaded chosen words and phrases with new meanings. Thus, imitation of unknown language in some way linked with Gypsies (Roma) is not extraordinary decision in fiction writers' practices. In this aspect, Kraszewski is closer to reality.

Professor Klich's analysis divides Romani words by two lists of diverse origins. The first is taken from a vocabulary of Subcarpathian Romani in Poland (Klich, 1931, pp. 172-173). This short vocabulary (184 items) collected by priest Serwatowski is printed at least three times (Klich, 1931, p. 172; Serwatowski, 1851, pp. 412-418). Stanisław Turowski reported that Józef Unger published this Romani vocabulary in *Kalendarz Warszawski* of 1853 (Kraszewski, 1934, p. xxx), it was the article *O narodowościach w Galicyi* (*On nationalities in Galicia/Halychyna*) by the author shown as "Ks." (Klich, 1931, p. 172). These two twin sources were surely at Kraszewski's disposal. Edward Klich mentioned also an article by Józef Łepkowski published in a Kraków newspaper *Czas* (*Time*), where the author is indicated as "J. Ł." (Łepkowski, 1851). The last source differs from the vocabulary quoted by Kraszewski in some details (Klich, 1931, p. 172), see below "2. bałwany" (Appendix 1).

The second source used by Kraszewski was a description of Basque Romani in Spain (Klich, 1931, p. 176; Michel, 1848, no page numbers). 17 Romani words used by Kraszewski have some features of that source. Full word lists with comments are in Appendix 1 (items 1-46) and Appendix 2 (items 47-63).

The Polish declension added to Romani nouns by the writer does not match this fantastic vocabulary, as Klich (1931, p. 177) ironically underlined: "to robi wrażenie zgoła humorystyczne" (it creates the fully humoristic impression). For instance, Polish sing.: gen. Bynka, dat. Bynk'u "Devil', instr. dają "mother', pl.: nom. bałwany "winds', gen. ciurachanów "thieves", etc.. This way of morphological adaptation creates some kind of Para-Romani, but in fact it is just the author's invention. Kraszewski ignored Romani genders: łatio (masc.) egaszi (fem.) "good woman'; after that he did not notice some semantic details, as a correct Romani form of addressing is "lachi gadži" and means "a good non-Romani woman", but this is wrongly applied to Aza. Verbs are rare and also used incorrectly: ciurawa means "I (will) steal", then "musiał ciurawa (kraść)" (he ought to I? steal) is grammatically mistaken and possible exceptionally in "Romani" of this novel.

Distribution of Romani Words in Russian Translation

In Klich's (1931, pp. 178-179) opinion, the Polish original looks overloaded with disordered Romani

elements of two dialects, their choice was unsystematic. The Russian translator shared this position and decreased number of Romani words. The losses in the translation were not results of mechanical deleting of some paragraphs, but their scrupulous changing. He ignored almost every uncertain word as the list of Romani words shows. They were often omitted by the translator, whose task was obviously to create a love story rather than a Romani phrasebook.

Table 1

Romani Elements in Polish Original and Russian Translation

Romani words/phrases	Original	Average	Translation
Saved & changed	21 (used 157 times)	7.48 times	21 (used 50 times)
Omitted	42 (used 72 times)	1.71 times	0 (0)

Only 33% of Romani materials were included in the Russian translation, mainly those of the exotic words which were used a number of times by Kraszewski. Very often an ordinary Russian word with no markers replaces a Romani word marked with italic fonts.

In the Russian translation, Romani words' linear distribution is very informative too (see Figure 2). An area of Romani words' density is in the beginning quarter of the novel (chapters 2-12). It is a story of the first arrival of Romani group. A comparative top of frequency is positioned in the chapter 5. Hence, a number of Romani words start to decline in comparison with the original. The graph shows that the translator's and/or the editor's attitude towards Romani exotic vocabulary is cardinally changing in the process of translation: (1) chapters 2-5—the translator admits the author's conception; (2) chapters 6-15—the translator corrects the author's decision tactfully; (3) chapters 16-46—the translator changes the author's decision cardinally. As a result the last 66% of the translation are almost free of Romani words, excepting an ordinary term "Rom" used only three times.
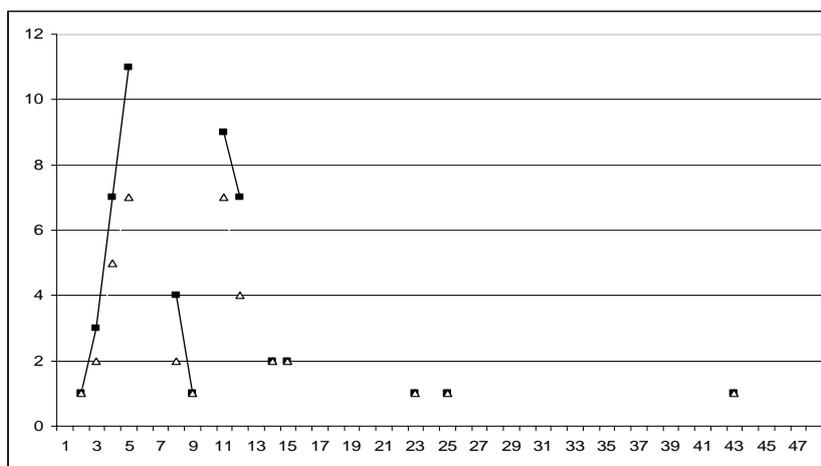
Figure 2. Linear distribution of Romani words in Russian translation.

This freedom in dealing with the original is not usual. As an example of common practice could serve the Russian translation of the novella by Prosper Mérimée's *Carmen.* Although in both translations Romani words are converted from Latin into Cyrillic, strategies in general differ. The translator of *Carmen* is more careful for Romani materials, which is entirely saved (Merime, 1886). Nevertheless, 1856's journal Russian version of the novel by

Kraszewski was and is still reprinted many times without changes, as a fresh sample (Krashevskij, 1996).

Romani Words in Russian Translation

The translator is experienced enough to omit the author's mistakes in Romani vocabulary, or he/she is careful enough to choose only the words he/she gets from a trustful source. Some words were corrected by him/her:

Full list of Romani words used by the translator see in Appendix 1 (items 4, 5, 6, 8, 11, 12, 14, 16, 24, 27, 29, 35, 36, 37, 39, 42, 46) and Appendix 2 (52, 53, 54, 61).

Translator adds very informative linguistic notes (to the items 8, 14, 36) which demonstrate his/her competent work with supplementary sources. Romani words and phrases are taken by him/her from a proper source, but their copies have some confused letters, as well as Romani items in the original.

Conclusions

The Russian translation of the famous Polish novel *A Hut Outside the Village* by Kraszewski chooses more informative and laconic style: almost every phrase and paragraph is changed for this purpose. Strategy of shortening shows a conflict between rhetoric of romanticism and more realistic style. This decision should be approved by the editor O. I. Senkovsky and by the author himself.

There are 63 Romani items used 229 times in the novel. Three tops of frequency are positioned in the most dramatic points of the story. Sources of Romani words used by Kraszewski are descriptions of Subcarpathian Romani in Poland and Basque Romani in Spain. Both dialects seriously differ from Romani dialect in Wołyń (Ukraine), locus in quo of the novel.

Translator's dilemma either to agree with the author's choice or to correct his mistakes is resolved cardinally. Only 33% of Romani materials were included in the Russian translation, mainly those of high frequency. The last two thirds of the translation are almost free of them. The translator is experienced enough to omit the author's mistakes in Romani vocabulary and grammar.

Nevertheless either the author or the translator uses just secondary copies of Romani words and phrases taken from someone else. So, the translator adds his own mistakes (see below Друкалескро "dog's", Appendix 2, [*]61) to the author's errors sometimes accepted by him (targimom "brandy").

Fantastic ("Carpathian-Iberian") Romani by Kraszewski was replaced by translator's reduced description of a less disintegrated Romani dialect, which sounds more realistic and is geographically linked with Ukraine, as some features can show.

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Appendix 1: Subcarpathian Romani Words

Notes for word lists: (1) = used 1 time. *4—comments for Romani words in the Russian translation. "<u>fingers</u> (fingers)"—the first underlined <u>word</u> is Romani, the second word in brackets is its Polish equivalent.

1. (1) anguszti "fingers": "Zdejm z oczu <u>anguszti</u> (palce), spojrzyj..." (Take your <u>fingers</u> (fingers) from your eyes, look) (Kraszewski, 1855, v. III, p. 157; 1937, v. 2, p. 116), Romani pl. angrustjá, for Polish pl. anguszty is better (Klich, 1931, p. 195); "Pal<u>c</u>e: Anguszto", where Polish pl. defines Romani sing. (Serwatowski, 1851, p. 416); Łepkowski also listed the Polish word first (in correct singular), and then put its Romani synonym: "Pale<u>c</u>, anguszto" (finger) (Łepkowski, 1851, 54, p. 1).

2. (1) bałwany "winds": "<u>bałwany</u> (wiatry) mnie przyniosły..." (the <u>winds</u> (winds) have brought me) (Kraszewski, 1854, v. II, p. 111; 1937, v. 1, p. 119) < Polish pl., "Wiatr, bałwan" (Klich, 1931, pp. 195-196; Serwatowski, 1851, p. 415); mistaken: "Wiatr, bał<u>isa</u>n" (wind) (Łepkowski, 1851, 54, p. 1), w misread as is, cp. Polish bałwan "great wave".

3. (1) bukelisom "hunger": "<u>Bukelisom</u> mi nie dokucza (głód)" (<u>Hunger</u> does not bother me (hunger)) (Kraszewski, 1854, v. II, p. 154); and without this Romani word: "Głód mi nie dokucza" (Hunger does not bother me) (Kraszewski, 1937, v. 1, p. 141) < bukheli (bokhali) som "I am hungry (fem.)" (Klich, 1931, p. 196; Serwatowski, 1851, p. 416); "Głód, bukelisom" (hunger) (Łepkowski, 1851, 54, p. 1).

4. (11) Bynk "Devil": "Znajdziesz innego mę<u>ż</u>a, niech go tam <u>Bynk</u> porwie (diabeł)" (You will find another husband, let the <u>Devil</u> hit him there (Devil)) (Kraszewski, 1853, p. 18; 1854, v. II, p. 34; 1879, p. 29; 1934, p. 28; 1937, v. 1. p. 17), Polish gen. Bynka (Kraszewski, 1854, v. I, pp. 57-88), dat. Bynk'u (Kraszewski, 1854, v. II, p. 157) < beng "Devil" (Klich, 1931, p. 197; Serwatowski, 1851, p. 415); "Diabeł, bynk" (Devil) (Łepkowski, 1851, 54, p. 1).

*4. Bynk "Devil"|(3) бынгъ "Devil": "Найдемъ тебѣ мужа и кроме него, а онъ провались къ <u>бынгу</u> (чорту)!" (We'll find another husband for you, and let him vanish to the <u>Devil</u> (Devil)) (Krashevskij, 1900, p. 18; 1915, p. 18; 1996, p. 434). Possessive: (2) бынгескри <дчаи> "Devil's daughter" (Krashevskij, 1900, p. 22; 1915, p. 21; 1996, p. 437), (г misread as ч) бын<u>ч</u>ескро <чаво> "Devil's <son>" (Krashevskij, 1900, p. 46; 1915, p. 45; 1996, p. 455). Ср. «ЧортЪ. БынгЪ» (Devil) (Zuev, 1878, p. 179). 6. ciawa "son"|(1) чаво "son".

5. (6) ciaj "daughter": "boś ty prawa <u>romów ciaj</u> (cygańska córka)" (as you are the genuine Romanies' daughter (Romani daughter)) (Kraszewski, 1853, p. 223; 1854, v. I, p. 64) < ćhaj "daughter" (Klich, 1931, pp. 197-198; Serwatowski, 1851, p. 415); "Córka, ciaj" (daughter) (Łepkowski, 1851, 54, p. 1).

5. ciaj "daughter"|(2) дчай "daughter": "Ты настоящая <u>ромонэ-дчай</u> [*Ромонэ-дчай–цыганская дочь.]" (You are the genuine <u>Romani daughter</u> [Romone-dčaj–Romani daughter.]) (Krashevskij, 1900, p. 33; 1915, p. 33; 1996, p. 445). *54 gasina "child"|дчаи "daughter". Some expressions were completely changed. Polish original: "Wszetecznica! <u>Bynka gasina</u> (diable dziecko)" (Whore! <u>Devil's child</u>! (devilish child)) (Kraszewski, 1879, p. 33; 1934, p. 32; 1937, p. 20), where bynk is Romani for "Devil" with -a–ending of Polish masculine nouns in the genitive singular case. Russian translation here and somewhere else shows correct use of a peculiar Romani form of possessive adjective regularly derived from nouns and replaced Slavic genitive: "Прелестница<u>!</u> <u>Бынгескри дчаи</u>*! [*Чортова дочь.]" (Charming girl! <u>Devil's daughter</u>! (Devil's daughter)) (Krashevskij, 1900, p. 21; 1915, p. 21; 1996, p. 436). Softening of the form of addressing is obvious.

6. (2) ciawa: Bynka ciawa! "Devil's son!" (Kraszewski, 1854, v. I, p. 57) < ćhavo "son" (Klich, 1931, p. 198; Serwatowski, 1851, p. 415); "Syn, ciawa" (son) (Łepkowski, 1851, 54, p. 1). Doubts over this form were expressed by the editor Turowski: „Poprawnie po cygańsku syn znaczy ćhawo" (Correctly the Romani term for "son" is ćhawo) (Kraszewski, 1934, p. 28). They are not reasonable, ciá<u>w</u>a looks like Romani vocative.

*6. ciawa (son), see 4.

7. (1) cierik "bird": "<u>cierik</u> ten (ptak) zowie się u was bocianem..." (this <u>bird</u> (bird) is called by you the stork) (Kraszewski, 1853, p. 217; 1854, v. I, p. 50; 1879, p. 40; 1934, p. 39; 1937, v. I, p. 25) < fem. č(h)irikli/masc. č(h)iriklo "bird" (Klich, 1931, p. 198-189; Serwatowski, 1851, p. 416); "Ptak, cierik (oro)" (bird) (Łepkowski, 1851, 54, p. 1), the last could be read as cierik[ł]oro/cierik[w]oro, cp. [ł] in nasua. Diminutive suffix of masc. -oro is used mistakenly with the stems of fem. nouns too. The space between the noun's initial part cierik and the suffix (oro) in brackets could provoke misunderstanding: diminutive cierik[ł]oro is derived from cierik[ł]o, not from cierik.

8. (1) ciomut-oro "moon": "<u>ciomut-oro</u> (księżyc) wskaże drogę..." (the <u>moon</u> (moon) will show you the way) (Kraszewski, 1854, v. I, p. 52; 1879, p. 41), Ciomut(oro) "moon" (Klich, 1931, p. 199); "Ciomut (oro)" (Serwatowski, 1851, p. 415); "Księżyc, ciomut" (moon, crescent) (Łepkowski, 1851, 54, p. 1).

8. ciomut-oro "moon"|(1) ціомуторо "moon": «<u>ціомуторо</u> укажетъ дорогу» [*<u>Ціомутъ</u> или <u>чомутъ</u>, у иныхъ цыганъ <u>чонъ</u>; оро–уменьшительное окончаніе.] (the <u>moon</u> will show the way [<u>Ciomut</u>, or <u>čomut</u>, within other Romanies <u>čon</u>, moon,

oro–the diminutive suffix.]) (Krashevskij, 1856, p. 84; 1900, p. 26; 1915, p. 26; 1996, p. 441).

9. (2) ciurachan "thief": "Poczciwy <u>ciurachan</u> (złodziej)" (The honest <u>thief</u> (thief)) (Kraszewski, 1854, v. II, p. 61) < adj. ćoraxano "thievish" (Klich, 1931, p. 199; Serwatowski, 1851, p. 416); "Złodźéj, ciurachan" (thief) (Łepkowski, 1851, 54, p. 1), St. Turowski comments this form as an adjective: Ciurachan jest formacją przymiotnikową od wyrazu cior-złodziej. Kraszewski popełnił omyłkę za swoim źródłem" (Ciurachan is an adjective derived from the noun cior-thief. Kraszewski made a mistake following his source) (Kraszewski, 1934, p. 17).

10. (1) ciurawa "to steal": "Ani chyba, musiał <u>ciurawa</u> (kraść)" (No doubt, he should <u>steal</u> (steal) it) (Kraszewski, 1854, v. II, p. 61). Cp.: "Ukraść: Ciurawa" (to steal) (Klich, 1931, p. 199; Serwatowski, 1851, p. 417); "Ukraść, ciurawa" (to steal) (Łepkowski, 1851, 54, p. 1), more precise definition is "I <will> steal".

11. (1) Cynon (male name): "krępy Kaliban, zwany po cygańsku <u>Cynonem</u> (niskim)" (the robust Caliban called in Romani <u>Cynon</u> ("small")) (Kraszewski, 1879, p. 22), in the first journal edition with the lost brackets: "krępy Kaliban, zwany po cygańsku Cynonem niskim" (the robust Caliban called in Romani the small Cynon) (Kraszewski, 1853, p. 12) < cinono "small" (Klich, 1931, p. 216); cp.: "Niski: Cynon" (Serwatowski, 1851, p. 416); "Niski, cinon (oro)" (small, low) (Łepkowski, 1851, 54, p. 1). The Polish masc. form was artificially derived from a diminutive (of cinono) cinonoro printed with an excessive space: "cinon (oro)". Cp. above cierik.

*11. Cynon "small"|(1) Цынокъ (with the lost definition "small"): "Дюжий Калибан, которого цыгане звали «Цынок», вертелся около кузницы" (the strong Caliban called by Romanies Cynok was rolling around the smithy) (Krashevskij, 1900, p. 12; 1915, p. 12; 1996, p. 430). The letter н is misread as к, the word looks almost like Russian сынок "sonny, my little son" pronounced with a strange accent.

12. (8) dados "dad, chief": "słuchaj <u>dados</u>" (hear me <u>dad</u>) (Kraszewski, 1854, v. I, p. 39). Cp.: "Ojciec: Dados" (father) (Klich, 1931, p. 200; Serwatowski, 1851, p. 415); "Ojciec, dados" (father) (Łepkowski, 1851, 54, p. 1), cp. local Ukrainian "Дадос–предводитель цыганскаго табора" (a chief of Roma group) (Piskunov, 1882, p. 62).

12. dados "dad, chief"|(1) додъ "dad": "Слушай, <u>дод</u> [*Додъ–отецъ.]" (hear me <u>dad</u> [Dod – father.]) (Krashevskij, 1900, p. 20; 1915, p. 20; 1996, p. 435); cp. "Vater,... Dod" (father) (Bischoff, 1827, p. 93), «Отецъ. Додъ» (father) (Zuev, 1878, p. 180).

13. (3) gadzia "wife / Gadži, non-Romani woman": "Czy <u>Romni</u>, czy <u>gadzia</u> (Cyganka, czy obca)" (Either a <u>Romani woman</u>, or a <u>Gadži</u> (a Romani woman or a stranger)) (Kraszewski, 1854, v. II, p. 155) < gadži (Klich, 1931, p. 201; Serwatowski, 1851, p. 415); more correct: "Niewiasta tych narodów, gadzia" (a woman of non-Romani nations, a Gadži) (Łepkowski, 1851, 54, p. 1).

14. (23) gadzio "Gadžo, non-Romani man": "to krew <u>Gadziów</u> (niecyganów)" (this is the blood of <u>Gadžos</u> (non-Romanies)) (Kraszewski, 1853, p. 17; 1854, v. I, p. 33; 1879, p. 28; 1934, p. 28) < gadžo "non-Romani man" (Klich, 1931, pp. 200-201; Serwatowski, 1851, p. 415); "Niecygan (po polsku Polak, Rusin etc.), gadzio" (non-Romani man (in Polish: Pole, Carpatho-Rusyn, etc.) (Łepkowski, 1851, 54, p. 1).

14. gadzio "Gadžo, non-Romani man"|(2) гаджо "Gadžo": "въ немъ кровь <u>гаджо</u>! [*<u>Гаджо</u>, въ женскомъ родѣ <u>гаджи</u>–чужой, не цыганъ]" (he has blood of <u>Gadžos</u> [Gadžo, in feminine gadži—a stranger, non-Romani person.]) (Krashevskij, 1900, p. 15; 1915, p. 17; 1996, p. 433), instr. pl. "с гаджами" "with the Gadžos": "Остался со своими <u>гаджами</u>!" (He decided to stay with his <u>non-Roma</u>!) (Krashevskij, 1915, p. 35; 1996, p. 447), possessive: (1) гаджискри рат "Gadžo's blood" (Krashevskij, 1915, p. 17; 1996, p. 433), with wrong spaces: гаджи скрир<u>о</u>тъ (Krashevskij, 1900, p. 15), correct: gadzeskr<u>o</u> rat.

15. (2) gata "shirt": "brudna <u>gata</u> (koszula)" (the dirty <u>shirt</u>) (Kraszewski, 1854, v. II, p. 81, 103); loc. sing. w gat'i (looks rather like Ukrainian): "w gat'i (koszuli) grubej" (wore a thick shirt) (Kraszewski, 1854, v. II, p. 81) < ga<u>d</u>, pronounced [gat] "shirt" (Klich, 1931, p. 202; Serwatowski, 1851, p. 416); "Koszula, gat" (shirt) (Łepkowski, 1851, 54, p. 1). Cp. also Basque Romani: "Chemise, gata" (shirt) (Michel, 1848, last page).

16. (3) gdzia, instr. sing. gdzią "strange woman; Christian woman": "ją zawsze <u>gdzią</u> (obcą) nazywano" (she was always addressed as a <u>Gadži</u> (stranger)) (Kraszewski, 1854, v. II, p. 85); "matka jego była jasno-włosą <u>Gdzią</u> (chrześcijanką)" (his mother was the blond <u>Gadži</u> (Christian woman)) (Kraszewski, 1853, p. 17; 1854, v. I, p. 33; 1879, p. 28; 1934, p. 28), < Gadži "non-Romani woman" (Klich, 1931, p. 201), cp. gadzia. Elision of unstressed (or stressed in this region) vowel is not clear.

*16. gdzia |(5) гаджи "non-Romani woman, village woman": "мать не из наших, белокурая–<u>гаджи</u>" (his mother was not ours, the blond one—a <u>Gadži</u>) (Krashevskij, 1900, p. 15; 1915, p. 17; 1996, p. 433). *52. egaszi "woman, wife"|гаджи "non-Romani woman". The author's use of the term egaszi "woman, wife" ignores the important part of meaning (relevant for the cardinal semantic opposition "non-Romani"—"Romani") and is not correct. The translator tried to find a compromise and somewhere failed: "стыдно тебѣ, ты не <u>гаджи</u>!" (shame on you, you are not a <u>Gadži</u>, non-Romani woman) (Krashevskij, 1856, p. 91; 1900, p. 34). The original has here "you are an egaszi" instead: "E! babo! <u>egaszi</u>! (kobieto)... wstydziłabyś się" (Eh! female! <u>egaszi</u>! (woman in general) … for shame!) (Kraszewski, 1879, p. 50; 1934, p. 48; 1937, p. 32).

17. (1) giwes-oro "day": "na... giwes-oro (dzień)... klnę się" (I swear on... the day (day)) (Kraszewski, 1854, v. II, p. 91) < d'ives "day" < "Dzień: Giwes (Giłes)" (Klich, 1931, p. 202-203; Serwatowski, 1851, p. 415); "Dzień, giwes" (Łepkowski, 1851, 54, p. 1). Some edition have in brackets after giwes-oro "śmierć" (death) (Kraszewski, 1934, p. 155; 1937, p. 108) instead of correct "dzień" (day) (Kraszewski, 1879, p. 166). This wrong definition is taken from the Romani mutes-oro in the same phrase: "na Mroden-oro (Boga), na mutes-oro (śmierć), na nasua-oro (chorobę), giwes-oro (dzień), na rat-oro (noc) klnę się" (I swear on my God (God), death (death), disease (disease), day (day), night (night)) (Kraszewski, 1854, v. II, p.). The revised 1900 version of 1856 Russian translation has this phrase as an addition without the heavy for understanding second "death" (originally "day"): "Умоляю Мроденъ-оромъ (Богомъ), Мутесъ-оромъ (смертью), Насуа-оромъ (болѣзнью), Ратъ-оромъ (ночью)!.." (I swear on my God (God), Death (death), Disease (disease), Night (night)!) (Krashevskij, 1900, p. 114).

18. (1) hasyka "wool fabric": "w urakha (płaszczu) z prostego hasyka (sukna)" (wore an overcoat made of cheap wool fabric) (Kraszewski, 1854, v. II, p. 81) < "Sukno: Hasyka" (West Slavic, from Latin casaca "overcoat") (Klich, 1931, p. 203; Serwatowski, 1851, p. 416); "Sukno, hasyka" (wool fabric) (Łepkowski, 1851, 54, p. 1).

19. (2) Jag "flame, fire": "to imię nosiła od ognia (Jag)" (she had taken this name from the fire (Fire) (Kraszewski, 1854, v. II, p. 84) < jag "flame, fire" (Klich, 1931, p. 204; Serwatowski, 1851, p. 415); "Ogień, jag (oro)" (fire) (Łepkowski, 1851, 54, p. 1).

20. (1) Jagoro "hell": "i w Jagoro (piekle) przed nim się nie schowa..." (none hides himself from one's own destiny even to Hell (hell)) (Kraszewski, 1855, v. III, p. 218) < correct: fem. jagori "flame (diminutive)", the secondary meaning "hell" is presumably Kraszewski's invention (Klich, 1931, p. 204).

21. (1) kaszt "wood": "czasem w podróży człowiek trafi na kaszt (drzewo)" (sometimes a traveling man finds a tree (tree)) (Kraszewski, 1853, p. 222: 1854, v. I, p. 62) < kašt "wood" (Klich, 1931, p. 204; Serwatowski, 1851, p. 416); "Drzewo w ogóle, kaszt, na pojedyncze niema nazwy" (wood in general is kašt, there are no names for concrete trees species) (Łepkowski, 1851, 54, p. 1). It is true, some dialects have Slavic (Polish) dembo "oak" for any kind of trees, another then breza "birch-tree", or Rumanian salka "willow, osier".

22. (2) katarsat "where from": "Katarsot? katartos? (skąd? kto to?)" (Where from? Who is this?) (Kraszewski, 1855, v. III, p. 249) < kat(h)ar sał "where art thou from?" (where ł misread as t) (Klich, 1931, pp. 204-205); cp. East Slovak Romani "tu sal = ty jsi" (thou art) (Šebková & Žlnayová, 1998, p. 33). Klich suggested the second word katartos is just misshaped katarsat, where sat is from sał "(thou) art" (Klich, 1931, p. 205). It is not fully clear. Serwatowski gave the simple for commenting phrase "Zkąd ty?: Katarsał?" (Where art thou from?–with omitted words for "art" in Polish and for "thou" in Romani) and its second version "Zkąd jesteś?: Katartós?" (Serwatowski, 1851, p. 417). The latter could be rather read as "kat(h)ar tu sał?" with stressed tu (Polish ó = [u]) and unstressed and reduced s(ał). Thus, katartus(ał) means "where art thou from?" too. Its Polish definition "Zkąd jesteś?" means the same (with no word for "thou").

23. (1) łatio egaszi "good woman": "Ja nie jestem łatio egaszi (dobra kobieta), nie, nie" (I am not a good Gadži (good woman)), no, no) (Kraszewski, 1855, v. III, p. 159) < lačho; correct lačhi gadži means a "good non-Romani woman" (Klich, 1931, p. 205); "Dobry łatio" (good) (Łepkowski, 1851, 54, p. 1; Serwatowski, 1851, p. 416).

24. (1) łoń "salt": "nie kiwnąwszy mi nawet głową za mandru i łoń (chleb i sól), za przytułek i naukę" (without bowing his head to thank me for bread and salt (bread and salt), for the roof and my instruction) (Kraszewski, 1853, p. 223: 1854, v. I, p. 64: 1879, p. 50; 1934, p. 47) < lon "salt" (Klich, 1931, pp. 205-206; Serwatowski, 1851, p. 416); "Sól, łoń" (salt) (Łepkowski, 1851, 54, p. 1).

24, 27. "za mandru i łoń" "for bread and salt"|"за марно-та-лонъ" "for bread and salt": "не кивнулъ даже головой за марно-та-лонъ, за приютъ и науку [*Марно-та-лонъ–хлѣбъ-соль.]" (he did not bow his head to thank for bread and salt (bread and salt), for the root and instruction [Marno-ta-lon–bread-and-salt]) (Krashevskij, 1900, p. 33; 1915, p. 33; 1996, p. 445), where: (1) лонъ "salt", (1) марно "bread" (Lovara, Gurbet dialects). The last variant is listed in the 1938 dictionary as Ukrainian Romani: "марно* м = маро́ хлеб" (bread) (Barannikov & Sergievskij, 1938, p. 71), cp. also South Russian Romani: "ХлѣбЪ Манро" (bread) (Zuev, 1878, p. 180). The translator found a proper informant with one Ukrainian or South Russian dialect and took marno for bread, though Saint Petersburg's choirs Roma (with their maro for bread) were near at hand.

Occasionally the translator uses more Romani words than the author: Romani (or Ukrainian in that area) conjunction ta "and" replaces Polish (and also Russian) i.

25. (2) łowy "money": "łowy (pieniądze) prędko wychodzą" (money (money) is quickly spending) (Kraszewski, 1854, v. II, p. 69) < love "money" (Klich, 1931, p. 206; Serwatowski, 1851, p. 416); "Pieniądze łowy" (money) (Łepkowski, 1851, 54, p. 1). Polish łowy "hunting" protects this word from mistakes.

26. (1) male "field": "Egaszi dobra i poczciwa, ale jej tęskno za swymi, których nie widzi, jak mnie za małe (polem) i namiotem!" (My Gadžo wife is good and obeying, but she misses her relatives as bad as I miss a field (field) and our tent!) (Kraszewski, 1854, v. II, p. 95) < mal "meadow" (Klich, 1931, p. 206), with wrong -c: "Malc" (Serwatowski, 1851, p. 416); "Pole,

malі" (field) (Łepkowski, 1851, 54, p. 1).

27. (2) mandru "bread": "już chleba nie ma, a mandru sam nie przyjdzie" (bread is already almost gone, but the bread does not come on its own feet) (Kraszewski, 1854, v. II, p. 40) < "Chleb: Mandru" (bread) (Klich, 1931, p. 206; Serwatowski, 1851, p. 416); "Chleb, mandru" (bread) (Łepkowski, 1851, 54, p. 1); cp. (Balkan Romani) Manru "bread", and the hero's name in I.J. Paderewski's opera *Manru* based on the novel *Chata za wsią* (*A Hut Outside the Village*), by Kraszewski. Cp. "Pain, mandroua" (bread) (Michel, 1848, last but one page).

*27. mandru (bread), see 24.

28. (16) Mroden-oro "God": "Wielki duch, Mroden-oro (Bóg) skazał nas na wszelakie zniszczenie" (The Great Spirit, Mroden-oro (God) has centenced us to total annihilation) (Kraszewski, 1853, p. 17; 1854, v. I, p. 33) < mro deł-oro "my God (diminutive)" (Klich, 1931, p. 206-207; Serwatowski, 1851, p. 415); "Bóg, mroden (oro)" (God) (Łepkowski, 1851, 54, p. 1). Here den could be stand instead of dew, because [ł] is pronounced similar to [w].

*29. Mroden-oro "my God (diminutive)"|(4) Мроденъ-баро "God", where баро means "great": "Такъ ужъ опредѣлилъ Мроденъ-баро (великій духъ), что племя Ромовъ сгинетъ навсегда..." (This is ordered by the Mroden-baro (the great spirit) that the tribe of Roma will perish for ever...) (Krashevskij, 1900, p. 15; 1915, p. 17; 1996, p. 433). So, the translator spares incorrect den (which stands in the original instead of the stem devl-/devel- "God") and in the meantime propose his own interpretation inspired by "Wielki Bóg" (The Great God) in the original. The revised 1900 version adds somewhere an alternative, more authentic variant Мроденъ-оро: "Мроденъ-оро зналъ для чего онъ создалъ насъ!.." (God knew what he created us for!) (Krashevskij, 1900, p. 134) = " wiedział wielki Mroden-oro, na co nas na świat przysłał!" (The Great God knew what he sent us to the world for!) (Kraszewski, 1937, vol. I, p. 129).

29. (5) mutes, Mutes-oro "Death": "mutes zabrała mu nieprzyjaciela" (death has taken his enemy away) (Kraszewski, 1934, p. 66; 1937, v. 1, p. 48), and "Mutes" in the same context (Kraszewski, 1879, p. 71); "Mutes-oro (śmierć) nie przychodzi na zawołanie!" (Death (death) does not come by invitation) (Kraszewski, 1854, v. II, p. 126). Obviously, ł misread as t < mułes (acc.), muło "dead" (Klich, 1931, p. 207); "Śmierć, mules" (death) (Łepkowski, 1851, 54, p. 1; Serwatowski, 1851, p. 415).

30. (2) Nasua-oro, Nasuo-oro "disease": "ręka Nasua-oro (choroby)" (the hand of Disease (disease)) (Kraszewski, 1854, v. I, p. 98; 1879, p. 74); "na nasua-oro (chorobę)... klnę się" (I swear on... disease (disease)) (Kraszewski, 1854, v. II, p. 91) < adj. nasva[ł]-o "ill" + -oro–diminutive masc. (Klich, 1931, p. 208; Serwatowski, 1851, p. 415); "Choroba, nasua" (disease) (Łepkowski, 1851, 54, p. 1). St. Turowski treats Nasuo as a later mistake (Kraszewski, 1934, p. 69, note 1).

31. (1) Pechrał "brother": "chleb jałmużny jak psu rzucony, siostrze przez Pechrala" (alms bread thrown by the brother to his sister to as a dog) (Kraszewski, 1854, v. II, p. 25), later corrected: Pchrał < phral "brother" (Klich, 1931, p. 208; Serwatowski, 1851, p. 415); "Brat, pchrał" (brother) (Łepkowski, 1851, 54, p. 1).

32. (2) pfuf < phuv "earth": "Jak świat szeroki, jak pfuf (ziemia) wielka, wszystko to nasze królestwo" (Our kingdom is as large as the world, as big as the earth (earth)) (Kraszewski, 1855, v. III, p. 161), and loc. sing. with Polish ending: "Wy pójdziecie wędrować po szerokim pfufie (ziemi)" (You'll go to roam the great earth (earth)) (Kraszewski, 1854, v. II, p. 129) < "Ziemia: Pfuf" (earth) (Klich, 1931, p. 208-209; Serwatowski, 1851, p. 415); "Ziemia, pfuf" (earth) (Łepkowski, 1851, 54, p. 1).

33. (1) piri "pot": "piri (garnek) co rana i wieczora przy ogniu, a pełen" (my pot (pot) is at the campfire every morning and every evening, and it is full) (Kraszewski, 1854, v. II, p. 154) < "Garnek: Piri" (pot) (Klich, 1931, p. 209; Serwatowski, 1851, p. 416); "Garnek, piri" (pot) (Łepkowski, 1851, 54, p. 1).

34. (1) pochta "linen": "chciała białej pochty (płótna)" (she wanted to wear white linen (linen)) (Kraszewski, 1854, v. II, p. 82) < poxtan "linen" (Klich, 1931, p. 209; Serwatowski, 1851, p. 416); "Płutno, pochta" (linen) (Łepkowski, 1851, 54, p. 1).

35. (13) Raj "master / Mr.", in acc. sing.: "pójdę męczyć Raja Adama!" (I go to bother Mr Adam!), "Słyszysz Raj Adamie...!" (Do you hear me Mr Adam!) (Kraszewski, 1937, v. 1, p. 118; v. 2, p. 9) < raj "lord, master, gentleman"; "Pan, gentleman, raj" (lord, Mr) (Łepkowski, 1851, 54, p. 1). Missed by Klich.

35. Raj "master / Mister"|(1) Раи "master/Mr.": "здѣсь проходилъ здѣшній молодой раи [*Раи–баринъ, господинъ.]" (the young possessor of this village walking here [Rai–a noble man, lord]) (Krashevskij, 1900, p. 20; 1915, p. 20; 1996, p. 436). This Raj, though frequent in the original, in the translation is mostly replaced by the well known in Russian Polish exotic term Pan "Mister".

36. (6) Rakloro, raklora "girl": "Rakloro (dziewczyna) złowiła rybkę!" (The girl (girl) has caught the fish) (Kraszewski, 1854, v. I, p. 39); and vocative: "Dziewczyno Rakloro–odezwała się Aza–zawołaj psa swego" ("Girl, girl," Aza called, "take your dog aside") (Kraszewski, 1937, v. 2, p. 116) < rakloro–an artificial (as E. Klich suggested) vocative with the Polish inding -o, and derived from it a Polish fem. raklora "girl" < rakli, raklori "non-Romani girl" (Klich, 1931, pp. 209-210; Serwatowski, 1851, p. 415); "Dziewczyna, rakloro" (girl) (Łepkowski, 1851, 54, p. 1). Otto Boehtlingk also looked askance at Romani fem. vocative ending in unstressed -o: «ebenso verdächtig ist das o in биба <bíbo> Tante und да́йоро <dájoro> Mütterchen» (the ending -o in bíbo "aunt"

und dájoro "mommy, diminutive" is also suspicious) (Boehtlingk, 1853, p. 7). Nevertheless it is accurate.

36. raklora, raklor̲o|(2) раклори "girl": "<u>раклори</u> поймала рыбку... [*<u>Ракли</u> и уменьшительное <u>раклори</u>–дѣвушка.]" (The <u>girl</u> has caught the fish [<u>Rakli</u> and diminutive <u>rakli</u>–girl]) (Krashevskij, 1900, p. 20; 1915, p. 20; 1996, p. 435).

37. (5) rani "lady": "ja jestem stworzona <u>rani</u> (panią) do bogactw i dostatku" (I am created for being a <u>lady</u> (lady), for richness and prosperity), "jutro będę <u>rani</u>!" (I'll be the <u>lady</u> tomorrow) (Kraszewski, 1854, v. I, p. 41; 1879, p. 33; 1934, p. 33) < "Pani: Rani" (lady) (Klich, 1931, p. 210; Serwatowski, 1851, p. 415); "Pani, rani" (lady) (Łepkowski, 1851, 54, p. 1).

37. rani "lady"|(2) рани "lady": "я родилась на то, чтобы быть <u>рани</u> [*<u>Барыня, госпожа.</u>]" (I was born to be a lady [Lady, noble woman]); "завтра буду <u>рани</u>!" (I'll be the <u>lady</u> tomorrow) (Krashevskij, 1900, p. 22; 1915, p. 21; 1996, p. 437).

38. (1) rat-oro "night": "na <u>rat-oro</u> (noc) klnę się" (I swear on the <u>night</u> (night)) (Kraszewski, 1854, v. II, p. 91) < correct: fem. ratori "night (diminutive)" (Klich, 1931, p. 210; Serwatowski, 1851, p. 416); "Noc, rat" (night) (Łepkowski, 1851, 54, p. 1).

39. (24) Rom "Romani person, male": "zaraz w nim poznał wodza gromady, <u>Romów</u> (tak się zowią często Cyganie)" (he has immediately recognised the chief of <u>Roma</u>, as Gipsies often used to call themselves) (Kraszewski, 1853, p. 8; 1854, v. I, p. 15; 1879, p. 15; 1934, p. 16; 1937, v. 1, p. 6) < Rom "Romani person, male, husband" (Klich, 1931, p. 210; Serwatowski, 1851, p. 415); "Cygan, rom̲i" (Łepkowski, 1851, 54, p. 1), the word Romi (spelled instead of Rom) is not a sporadic error in this source, cp.: "<u>Romi, co ma znaczyć</u> po indyjsku <u>mąż</u>" (Romi, that has to signify in Indian hasband) (Łepkowski, 1851, 53, p. 2). It looks suspicious that Romi in the same context is Coptic, as Baudrimont suggested: "Voulant que les Bohémiens viennent de l'Égypte, on fait venir ce nom du copte: Rômé ou Romi, qui veut dire homme" (Considering the Roma come from Égypte, this noun is taken from Coptic: Rômé or Romi, which means "man") (Baudrimont, 1862, p. 6).

39. Rom|(9) Ромъ "Rom": "съ перваго взгляда можно было узнать въ немъ предводителя <u>Ромовъ</u> [Этимъ именемъ называютъ сами цыгане свое племя.]" (one can immediately recognise the chief of <u>Roma</u> [This name is used by Gipsies themselves to call their tribe]) (Krashevskij, 1900, p. 7; 1915, p. 7; 1996, p. 426). There is twice used adjective from Rom in a form of oblique case of both genders: (2) ромонэ-дчай "Romani <daughter>": "Ты настоящая <u>ромонэ-дчай</u> [*<u>Ромонэ-дчай</u>–цыганская дочь.]" (You are the genuine <u>Romani daughter</u> [<u>Romone-dčaj</u>—Romani daughter.]) (Krashevskij, 1900, p. 33; 1915, p. 33; 1996, p. 445); "отецъ дѣвки самъ-то <u>ромонэ-чаль</u>* [*<u>Ромонэ-чаль</u>–цыганскій сынъ.]" (the girl's father is a <u>Romani son</u> too [<u>Romone čal</u>—Romani son]) (Krashevskij, 1900, p. 33; 1915, p. 33; 1996, p. 445). 53.errumansell "Rom"|ромонэ-чаль "Romani son".

40. (1) Romni "Romani woman": "Czy <u>Romni</u>, czy <u>gadzia</u> (Cyganka, czy obca), wszystkie one jednakowe, jednej matki córki..." (Either a <u>Romani woman,</u> or a <u>Gadži</u> (a Romani woman or a stranger), all they are of the same kind, all are daughters of one mother <Eve>) (Kraszewski, 1854, v. II, p. 155) < "Cyganka: Romni" (Romani woman) (Klich, 1931, p. 211; Serwatowski, 1851, p. 415); "Cyganka, romni" (Romani woman) (Łepkowski, 1851, 54, p. 1).

41. (1) masc. row "weeping": "Dlaczego płakałaś? <u>Row</u> (płacz) nie przychodzi bez przyczyny!" (Why did you cry? <u>Weeping</u> (weeping) does not come without some reason!) (Kraszewski, 1854, v. II, p. 22) < mistakenly instead of imperative (2. sing.) row! "weep!, cry!", both forms are płacz in Polish (Klich, 1931, p. 212; Serwatowski, 1851, p. 415); "Płacz, row" (weeping, masc. noun) (Łepkowski, 1851, 54, p. 1).

42. (1) targimom "brandy": "wypij <u>targimom</u> (wódki), to ci serce rozpowinie..." (drink some <u>brandy</u> (brandy), it relaxes your heart) (Kraszewski, 1854, v. I, p. 67) < thard'i mol "brandy, lit.: burnt wine" (Klich, 1931, p. 213; Serwatowski, 1851, p. 416); "Wódka, targimom" (vodka, brandy) (Łepkowski, 1851, 54, p. 1), -l misread as -m, or Cyrillic -ль [l'] as -м [m].

42. targimo̲m "brandy"|(1) таргимо̲му (gen. sing.) "brandy": "глотни <u>таргимому</u> [*<u>Таргимомъ</u>–водка.]" (drink some <u>vodka</u> [<u>Targimom</u>–vodka.]) (Krashevskij, 1900, p. 35; 1915, p. 35; 1996, p. 447). Here the translator decision is not independent. He saved an author's error.

43. (1) Tłowawa Jag "I light a fire": "Nic, tylko byłem pod oknem dworu, kiedyś śpiewała: "<u>Tłowawa</u> Jag." ["Początek cygańskiej pieśni od słow: "Palić ogień"])" (Nothing, but I was standing at the window, when you sang "<u>Tłowawa</u> Jag". [The beginning of the Romani song, it means: "I light a fire") (Kraszewski, 1854, v. II, p. 159; 1879, p. 214; 1934, p. 196); and without this Romani song's title in the shortened version (1937, v. 1, p. 143) < thovava "I put" (Klich, 1931, pp. 204-213), Kraszewski ignored insufficient sources: "Palić ogień, tłowa jag" (to light a fire) (Łepkowski, 1851, 54, p. 2; Serwatowski, 1851, p. 417); here rare *tt- is misread as tł-. Function of geminate *tt is to signify relatively stronger articulation of aspirated [th]. Cp. Cyrillic тт (tt) used for [th] in the Kalderaš Romani folklore collection (Demeter & Demeter, 1981).

44. (2) towez "axe": "podarujcie choć starą <u>towez</u> (siekierę)" (then give me as a gift any old <u>axe</u> (axe)) (Kraszewski, 1853, p. 229; 1854, v. I, p. 74), corrected: tower (Kraszewski, 1934, p. 54), omitted: "starą siekierę" (Kraszewski, 1937, v. 1, p. 31); "Odbierzcie mu <u>towez</u> (siekierę)" (Take away his <u>axe</u> (axe) from him) (Kraszewski, 1854, v. II, p. 92) < tover "axe" (r misread as z) (Klich, 1931, p. 213; Serwatowski, 1851, p. 416); correct: "Siekiera, tower" (axe) (Łepkowski, 1851, 54, p. 1).

45. (1) trast "iron": "wszystek trast (żelazo) wykuty..." (all iron (iron) is finished) (Kraszewski, 1853, p. 223; 1854, v. I, p. 62; 1879, p. 49; 1934, p. 46), this Romani word is omitted in the shortened version: "wszystko żelazo wykute..." (all iron is finished) (Kraszewski, 1937, v. 1, p. 31) < "Żelazo: Trast" (iron) (Klich, 1931, p. 214; Serwatowski, 1851, p. 416); "Żelazo, trast" (iron) (Łepkowski, 1851, 54, p. 1).

46. (8) werden "wagon": "Werden (wóz) był już u końca wioski" (The wagon (wagon) has already reached the village border) (Kraszewski, 1854, v. I, p. 67), omitted in the shortened version: "Wóz był..." (Kraszewski, 1937, v. 1, p. 34) < "Wóz: Werden" (wagon) (Klich, 1931, p. 214; Serwatowski, 1851, p. 416); "Wóz, werden" (wagon, vehicle, carriage) (Łepkowski, 1851, 54, p. 1).

*46. werden "wagon"|(5) вурдэнъ "wagon": "Апрашевъ вурдэнъ былъ уже за селомъ" (Aprasz's wagon was alredy outside the village) (Krashevskij, 1915, p. 35; 1996, p. 447). Cp.: North Russian, Lithuanian, Latvian Romani urden. The revised 1900 version adds sporadically an alternative, Romani variant верденъ: "около вердена" (Krashevskij, 1900, p. 134) = "przy werdenie" (near the wagon), where in the first translation stands Russian "у телеги" (near the wagon) (Krashevskij, 1856, p. 287).

Appendix 2: Basque Romani Words

47. (2) Polish pl. bucaki "dresses" from fem. *bucaka "dress", nom. pl.: "Azaoro będzie miała bogate bucaki (suknie)" (Our little Aza will have rich dresses (dresses)) (Kraszewski, 1854, v. II, p. 82); gen. sing.: "chciała białej pochty (płótna), i krasnej bucaki" (she wanted to wear white linen (linen) and a red dress (dress)) (Kraszewski, 1854, v. I, p. 40) < Basque pl. boutça-c "vêtements" (dresses) (Klich, 1931, p. 196; Michel, 1848, last page).

48. (3) bukunia "hut": "nie będzie to khera ale bukunia" (it will not be a house, just a hut) (Kraszewski, 1854, v. I, p. 74) < ? "Maison isolée, vulgairement appelé borde, boucounia" (A separate house, commonly called borde, boucounia) (Michel, 1848, last page); either misunderstood Sinte bukuni "wart, verruca", or some Basque word (Klich, 1931, pp. 196-197; Libich, 1863, p. 129). Modern Romani butka "booth" stands far for phonetical reasons.

49. (1) fem. busta "face": "nie był szczęśliwy, mówi to blada busta twoja (twarz)" (you was not happy, your pale face (face) tells me that) (Kraszewski, 1854, v. II, p. 92) <"Visage, busta (ou moga)" (face), pl. vuštá "lips" [b = v] (Klich, 1931, p. 197; Michel, 1848, last page), mujá "faces, mouths".

50. (1) czuria "knife": "Odbierzcie mu towez (siekierę)–zakrzyczała–i czuria (nóż)" (Take away his axe (axe) from him, —she cried out, —and his knife (knife)) (Kraszewski, 1854, v. II, p. 92) < "Couteau, tchuria" (knife), pl. of čhuri (Klich, 1931, pp. 199-200; Michel, 1848, last page).

51. (1) dają (instr. sing.) of Polish fem. *daja "mother": "nie mam ochoty być dają (matką) Cyganów i niewolnicą mężczyzny" (I have no desire to be the mother (mother) of Roma and a slave of the man) (Kraszewski, 1854, v. II, p. 86) < daj "mother", "Mère, daja (j aspiré)" (mother) (Klich, 1931, p. 200; Michel, 1848, last but one page), "Matka, daj" (mother) (Serwatowski, 1851, p. 415; Łepkowski, 1851, 54, p. 1).

52. (18) egaszi "woman, wife": "cóż mi z niego zrobili gadziowie, i ta jasnowłosa egaszi, dla której romów i ich życie porzucił!" (what did they made from him, my Tumr, those non-Roma, and his blond wife, though for her sake he has left our Roma) (Kraszewski, 1854, v. II, p. 89) < e gadži [š < dž], "Femme, egachi" (woman) (Klich, 1931, pp. 201-202; Michel, 1848, last but one page).

*52. egaszi (woman), see 16.

53. (3) Errumansel "Rom": "ty już nie syn erumanselów" (you are no more a son of Roma) (Kraszewski, 1854, v. I, p. 40); "Bo to było dziecię Errumanselów (Cyganów)" (It was a child of Roma (Gypsies)), "ojciec dziewczyny sam podobno Errumansel" (the girl's father is also a Rom) (Kraszewski, 1853, pp. 216-224) < "Bohémien, Erroumancel" (Romani male, son) < *Rromano čhavo (Klich, 1931, pp. 211-212; Baudrimont, 1862, p. 101; Michel, 1848, last but one page).

*53. errumansell (Romani man), see 39.

54. (1) gasina "child": "Bynka gasina (diable dziecko)" (Devil's child!) (Kraszewski, 1854, v. I, p. 40) < "Enfant, gacina" (child), Basque (Klich, 1931, p. 202; Baudrimont, 1862, p. 103; Michel, 1848, last but one page)

*54. gasina (child), see 5.

55. (1) grami "horse": "Aprasz! zacinaj grami (konia)!" (Aprasz, hit the horse (horse)!) (Kraszewski, 1854, v. I, p. 69) < "Cheval, grami" < grasni "mare" (Klich, 1931, p. 203); "Cheval, grami ou marchoa" (horse) (Michel, 1848, last but one page).

56. (1) gweka "snake": "Egaszi jest tak gweka (kobieta jest jak wąż)" (A woman is like a snake (a woman is like a snake)) (Kraszewski, 1854, v. II, p. 154) < "Serpent, guekha" (snake) (Klich, 1931, p. 203; Michel, 1848, last but one page). Cp. sokha, urakha, phonetically correct should be Polish *gwecha.

57. (4) kakabia "kettle": "Widać było kociołek (kakabia) na trzech laskach zawieszony nad ogniem" (It was seen a kettle (kettle) hanging on three sticks over a fire) (Kraszewski, 1855, v. III, p. 242) < "Chaudron, kakabia" < kakavi "kettle" [b = v] (Klich, 1931, p. 204; Michel, 1848, last page).

58. (5) khera "house": "Jutro będę w <u>khera</u> (domu, pałacu)" (I will be in the <u>house</u> (house, palace) tomorrow) (Kraszewski, 1854, v. I, p. 41); "nie będzie to <u>khera</u> ale <u>bukunia</u>" (it will not be a <u>house</u>, just a <u>hut</u>) (Kraszewski, 1854, v. I, p. 74); "przykute do mizernej <u>khery</u> (chaty)" (chained to the miserable <u>hut</u> (hut)) (Kraszewski, 1855, v. III, p. 158) < "Maison, kera ou khera" < kher "house" (Klich, 1931, p. 205; Michel, 1848, last page).

59. (2) plasta "cloth": "kobiety zwijały <u>plasty</u> (kołdry, pokrycia" (women are packing <u>clothes</u> (clothes, bedspreads)), "przyodziać się <u>plastą</u> (kołdrą)" (to cover one's own body with a <u>cloth</u> (cloth)) (Kraszewski, 1854, v. I, pp. 65-82) < "Couverture, plasta" (Slavic) (Klich, 1931, p. 209); "Couverture, plasta, ou, suivant d'autres, yaprast" (Cloth, or, as others say, yaprast) (Michel, 1848, last page); cp. in 1597's source: "55.Plachta Linteus" (linen) (Vulcanius, 1901).

60. (1) sokha "skirt": "zdarta <u>sokha</u> (spódnica)" (a torn <u>skirt</u> (skirt)) (Kraszewski, 1854, v. II, p. 103) < "Jupe, sokha" (skirt) (Klich, 1931, p. 212; Michel, 1848, last page).

61. (6) szukela "dog": "lecieli za Azą jak gromada szukelów" (they pursued Aza like the haunds' pack) (Kraszewski, 1854, v. II, p. 94) < "Chien, choukela" < džukel "dog" [š < dž], cp. egaszi (Klich, 1931, p. 212; Michel, 1848, last but one page), "chien, shŏkela" (dog) (Baudrimont, 1862, p. 102).

61. szukela "dog". The Basque Romani szukela is grammatically changing in the original like the regional Ukrainian masc. term sobaka: "do budy przykuty <u>szukela</u>" (a <u>dog</u> chained to the kennel).|(3) джюкал "dog". Ср. "джюкэ́л м [<pl.> джюкэла́, джюклэ́] собака (кобель)" ("dog (male)") (Barannikov & Sergievskij, 1938, p. 36), [dž'ukə́l] where stressed [ə] could be identified with [a], cp. in a Russian jargon dictionary: "Джюка̲л–собака" (dog) (Potapov, 1927, p. 44), listed almost certainly in Ukraine (Shapoval, 2008, p. 511). The translator found the Romani word looks more real for that region than Basque Romani: shukel "dog" > джукал "dog". Polish original: "Bóg… dał nam węch jak staremu <u>szukeli</u> (psu) szukającemu sobie lekarstwa" (Kraszewski, 1879, p. 32; 1934, p. 32; 1937, p. 19). Russian translation: "Богъ далъ намъ чутье, какъ старому <u>джукалу</u>, что отыскиваетъ себѣ цѣлебную траву" (Thank God we have as good noses as an old <u>dog</u> looking for a curative herb) (Krashevskij, 1900, p. 20; 1915, p. 20; 1996, p. 435). Occasionally the translator uses more Romani words than the author: Polish addressing «Psi syn! krew gadziów!» (Son of a dog! Blood of Gadžos!) (Kraszewski, 1879, p. 52; 1934, p. 39; 1937, p. 34) is translated into Romani (probably for the sake of propriety): "Друкалескро-чалъ, гаджискри̲ратъ [*Собачій сынъ, чужая кровь.]" (Krashevskij, 1915, p.35; 1996, p. 447) = *Džukeleskro čha̲w, gadžéskr <o> rat (Dog's son! Gadžo's Blood!). Cyrillic ж [ž] misread as p [r]; rat (masc.) "blood" and rat (fem.) "night" were confused. With the corrected ж and a wrong space shifting in the revised edition: "Джукалескро-чалъ, гаджи скриратъ!" (Krashevskij, 1900, p. 35).

62. (3) urakha "coat": "w <u>urakha</u> (płaszczu) z prostego hasyka (sukna)" (wore an <u>overcoat</u> (overcoat) made of cheap wool fabric) (Kraszewski, 1854, v. II, p. 81); "weź na ramiona <u>urakhę</u>" (put her <u>coat</u> on your shoulders) (Kraszewski, 1855, v. III, p. 162) < ? from ur-av "I wear": «Nie znam tego wyrazu, należącego do czasownika uraf "ubieram"» (I don't know this noun derived from the verb uraf "to wear") (Klich, 1931, p. 214). This word belongs at the 2nd list, as kh for [x] demonstrates. "Cape ou manteau, urakha" (Mantle or topcoat) (Michel, 1848, last page).

63. (1) zycaj "cat", initial [s-] is doubtful: "Co to za życie? życie szukełi, życie zycaja (psa, kota)" (What is that life like? The life of a dog, the life of a cat (dog, cat)) (Kraszewski, 1855, v. III, p. 161) < sitçaya "cat" (Klich, 1931, p. 214; Michel, 1848, last but one page).

Standardization and Conventionality in Chinese-English Medical Translation[*]

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Medical English is a branch of EST (English for Science & Technology) characterized by highly professional and standard words as well as logic and concise structures. Medical translation, as a very important way for international communication among medical workers, has become increasingly important issue for language workers to study. So far, the research works on medical translation have been mainly on the understanding of single words and sentences, almost no work on the general principle of medical translation has been found. This paper attempts to search for the basic principle in the process of Chinese-English medical translation on the basis of stylistic analysis. The study suggests that standardization and conventionality is an important principle for Chinese-English medical translation.

Keywords: Chinese-English medical translation, principle, standardization, conventionality

Introduction

The perpetual expansion of medical science and technology has made international communication increasingly important, with the fact that medical translation is being performed by people at varied levels, from professional translators and language workers to medical professionals. In China, most medical translations are done from Chinese to English, with the purpose of official publication in English medical journals. These translation practices are mostly based on translator's translational skill with limited exposure to English medical writings, as in the case of professional translator or English language worker, or on the solid medical knowledge with limited English proficiency, as in the case of medical professionals. This situation leaves the quality of Chinese-English medical translation much to improve, and the researches on English-Chinese medical translation to be desired. The present paper intends to investigate a basic principle, a kind of guiding framework in the process of Chinese-English medical translation. As stylistics plays a very important role in translation studies, we would investigate the principle by analyzing the stylistic features of medical English.

Stylistic Features of Medical English

As a highly technical and formal written text, medical texts have been assigned to the field of discourse called EST (English for Science & Technology). Medical English as well as other branches of EST are aimed at conveying information and they are basically characterized by appropriateness, exactness, objectiveness, logic, conciseness, coherence, simplicity and standardization rather than artfulness of language (YUAN, 1987). EST translation studies have been done from various aspects, among which are researches from the aspect of

stylistics. In China, FANG's study represents more than any other fruits of this area of research, who stated that EST translation requires translators to translate in consistency with conventional practices on the aspects of style, writing process and sentence patterns (Y. S. LI, & N. Q. LI, 2000).

Medical literature contains various kinds of medical writings such as case report, review article, research paper, drug instruction, etc., which vary in purposes and reveal different methods of reasoning, patterns of organization, and stylistic features. However, a particular type of writings share many similarities in terms of language, content and format, which make the texts of this type standardized and form strong "inter-textual connections" with each other (YE, 2001). The knowledge of the well-established formats, the highly-recognized morpho-syntactic structures, and standardized and conventional words and phrases all help an easier and better job for the medical translator.

Standardization and Conventionality

Therefore, we put standardization and conventionality as the principle for Chinese-English medical translation. Convention means that "conformity and expectation, and when people use words they can normally be expected to use them in the same sense as other people do" (Kussmaul, 1997). For instance, a late phrase in surgery, "minimally invasive surgery", which has already had a unified Chinese equivalent as "   ". For Chinese translators who have never met with the English version of this phrase, they may present various kinds of similar interpretations, as we found when editing medical abstracts, such as "minor-injury surgery" or "no-wound surgery". These interpretations may not be regarded as wrong, because "minimally invasive surgery" itself contains no irreplaceable linguistic features, while the crux lies in that "minimally invasive surgery", as a whole, conveys a fixed concept in surgery and functions as a symbol for it, which means "surgery done with only a small incision or no incision at all, such as through a cannula or an endoscope". This English version has become well-established and accepted in medical field internationally, hence standard and conventional. In the following, we will further discuss standardization and conventionality in Chinese-English medical translation at lexical, syntactical and generic levels in the hope of clarifying the principle of standardization and conventionality.

Lexical Level

Medical English text distinguishes itself by the massive use of pure medical words, like cerebrum, hematoma, keratoconjunctivitis, etc., however, these words generally present no problem for the translator, as long as he/she is equipped with desirable Chinese-English medical dictionaries to select accurate and standard equivalents in translation as they are synonym-free. What is worth mentioning is translation of semi-medical terms, which leaves the translator with much more choices and often requires the translator to select among synonyms in different situations according to different medical contexts. For a standardized medical word, when it is used as such, there should be only one correct equivalent and it is completely synonym free provided it is used in the same situations. "   " equals to "malignant tumor", in which the word "malignant" means tending to produce death or deterioration; "   " is translated as "pernicious anemia", where "pernicious" means highly injurious or destructive; "   " is "vicious circle"; and "   " should be understood in English as "subtertian malaria", since in medical English "tertian" means recurring at approximately 48-hour intervals in the vivax malaria, and "subtertian" is used to indicate a more severe malaria with an interval less than 48 hours.

While it is indeed true that some sub-medical words in medical texts are not synonym-free, selecting among synonyms is never "free". Wrong choices for these synonyms would contribute to loss of meaning to greater or

lesser degree. Cite a group of phrases as additional examples: "　　　", "　　　", "　　　　　", "　　　　　", whose English equivalents are "full diet", "whole blood", "universal donor" and "total hysterectomy" respectively. Take another group for example, "　　", "　　", "　　" and "　　", all of which have established choices as "arrest bleeding", "soothe cough", "relieve pain" and "pain killer".

However, there are cases where different choices would not necessarily mean much to the meaning as well as style of translation, but there just exist the conventional ways of expressing. Therefore the translator should not take risk of impressing native professionals as a layperson. We often meet with these expressions in our reading: "there is pronounced correlation between…", "there is no significant difference between…", "no marked correlation (difference) was found between…". However, we found during our editing that some of the Chinese medical workers wrote as "there is obvious correlation between…", "no evident difference…" or "there is outstanding difference…". Therefore, extensive exposure to the native medical English writing is a prerequisite for Chinese-English medical translator.

Syntactical Level

As it is known that a specialized text is not just an accumulation of technical terms and phrases loosely strung together, but also the characteristic morpho-syntactic structures within a register, such as more non-finite verbs, especially participles, more prepositional phrases, nominalisation, "it" sentence pattern and complicated sentence structure, etc.. Knowledge of these syntactical structures would help medical translators, especially medical professionals, who may possess some English competence at the lexical level in their particular specialty but may not necessarily master the syntax or the pragmatics of medical English. There are some examples in the following (see Example 1).

Example 1: Chinese:　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　20~40%　　　　　　60%　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　10%　　　　　5%　　　55%

English version 1: The virus can spread particularly rapidly in care homes. Its attack rates range from 20-40% but potentially reach 60% of residents. Complications are common. The admission rates to hospital often exceed 10% and case fatality rates often exceed 5% and reach 55%.

English version 2: The virus can spread particularly rapidly in care homes, with attack rates ranging from 20-40% but potentially reaching 60% of residents. Complications are common, with admission rates to hospital often exceeding 10% and case fatality rates often exceeding 5% and reaching 55%.

Comment: Use of prepositional structures as well as present participle structures in version 2 make the two sentences logically and concisely connected.

Example 2: Chinese:　　　　　　　　　　　　2

English Version 1: For some patients of relatively healthy body, the surgery could be operated immediately after two-week anti-tuberculosis therapy had been taken.

English Version 2: It is recommended that surgical therapy should be performed on those patients with fair general condition after two-week anti-tuberculosis medication.

Comment: Use of "it" sentence structure makes the sentence more formal and conventionally accepted.

Standardization and conventionality at syntactical level are also embodied by use of patterned sentences. As it is known to all, it is not essential for medical writing that every word or phrase should be "new", "creativity" in medical writing which is much less important than clarity and readability. Just as readers are used to seeing research articles organized according to the standard format (abstract, introduction, methods, results and discussion), they are also accustomed to seeing certain sentence patterns and phrases, and they quickly understand the meaning of these phrases.

Patterned devices from introduction sections:

At present, little is known about…   ……

Recent studies have focused on…   ……

In this paper, we will establish…   ……

Previous studies have revealed…   ……

The mechanisms that underlie… remain unclear   ……

Patterned devices from methods sections:

… patients were randomly selected (assigned)

We used…   ……

We also measured…   ……

Patterned devices from results sections:

Our findings suggest…   ……

We found no clear relationship between… and…   ……   ……

We found a marked difference between… and…   ……   ……

Patterned devices from discussion sections:

This method can be used to…   ……

In the future, we will extend the present studies to…   ……

Our results indicate that…   ……

The experiments show that…   ……

We have demonstrated that…   ……

We have shown…   ……

These data suggest that…   ……

By means of looking for and using patterned devices, we are not encouraging the translator to copy someone else's writing. Rather, the translator is taking advantage of standard ways of expressing ideas, although the content of the ideas will differ in every research paper. Using conventional and standard phrases or structures will make the translation easily understandable and readily acceptable to the readers of English language journals.

Discoursal Level

Genre analysis is a fruitful area of research on EST, whose definition is best elaborated by Swales as follows:

> A genre comprises a class of communicative events the members of which share some set of communicative purposes. These purposes are recognized by the expert members of the parent discourse community, and thereby constitute the rationale for the genre. This rationale shapes the schematic structure of the discourse and influences and constrains choice of content and style... in addition to purpose, exemplars of a genre exhibit various patterns of similarity in terms of structure, style, content and intended audience. If all high probability expectations are realized, the exemplar will be viewed as prototypical by the parent discourse community. (as cited in Jordan, 1997)

A genre is embodied through two aspects: schematic structure and realizational patterns (ZHANG, 2001). Schematic structure is a step by step structure, while realizational patterns consist of specific language structures (ZHANG, 2001). We will discuss how genre analysis can affect translation by a case study on admission note, which is one of the primary English medical writings. The following includes the original Chinese, an English version lacking genre conventionality and standardization, and a standard English version.

Admission note is a class of communicative event, whose communicative purpose is to record information of the patient for audit trail and provide accurate, reliable, systematic and scientific support for consultation and diagnosis. These purposes are recognized by the physicians, because both the source texts and target texts share the same schematic structures: (1) General data (   ); (2) Chief complaint (   ); (3) History of present illness (   ); (4) Past history (   ); (5) Family history (   ); (5) Physical examination (   ); (6) Laboratory and aided examination (   ); and (7) Diagnosis (   ).

However, the same purpose and schematic structure may be realized by different patterns. The criterion to view a version as prototypical is, whether it has characteristic feature of style and form that are recognized by those who use the genre (Jordan, 1997).

The admission note is an expert-to-expert communicative event, which should be highly professional, and contain, first and foremost, highly specialized terms. Both English versions are faithful to the original content. However, all the italicized words or structures in the Table 1 characterize the standard medical English language and are readily recognizable by the "expert members of the native discourse community" (Jordan, 1997), while those equivalents in version 1 are not professional and standard.

Table 1

Comparison Between Translations of Two English Versions in the Respect of Standardization and Conventionality

Chinese	English version 1	English version 2
	Spit mucous sputum	A cough *productive of mucous sputum*
	Spit rusty sputum	A cough *productive of rusty sputum*
	Chest pain	*thoracalgia*
	Lack of strength	*weak*
	Nobody in her family had ever got tuberculosis	There is no tuberculosis in her *family medical history*
	Intimate contact with patients with this disease	Intimate *exposure* to patients with this disease
	Neck could move freely	*Neck soft and supple*
	Noise	*No murmur*
	Shadow	*Density*
	She was healthy and seldom went to doctors	She was *in good health* in the past and seldom *consulted* doctors

Admission note, like any other medical texts, should be written in formal style except the part of physical examination, which is written in short and simple sentences, even nominal phrases, preferably the latter, and in which "the" and "a" are generally omitted, "be" is often left out, and most typically the structure of understatement is employed (ZHOU, 2000). The understatement refers to negative words, not and without, plus words with negative prefixes or phrases with negative connotations. For example, skull a head organs not abnormal; superficial lymph nodes not palpable; skull a head organs not abnormal.

As for the rest parts of admission note, it is appropriate to use compound and complex sentence to

distinguish the major from the minor and fit for the style of the logic and conciseness of medical English. The feature is best represented in the opening sentence, which generally contains information about sexuality, age, admission time, present symptoms. Choppy sentence is not standard. To help clarify this structure, we give another example: "   6   3   2001 2 20   ". The standard and conventional translation should be "The patient, an unmarried adult female, was admitted to the hospital on February 20, because of a 6-year intermittent abdominalgia which has been worsening in the last three days". The opening sentence in English version 2 meets the conventional organization, featuring conciseness and logic.

The present case study showed that in translating a medical text, it is essential for the translator to recognize the genre and find out the distinguishing features of structure, style as well as content in order that his/her translation could be recognized and accepted by the target audience.

Conclusions

Chinese medical researchers have done lots of valuable medical work, but the official publications of their works in English are relatively few, the reasons of which are that they lack good command of Chinese-English translation or English writing skills. The present paper investigates a basic principle, a kind of guiding framework in the process of Chinese-English medical translation on the basis of stylistic analysis of medical English. The study has demonstrated that standardization and conventionality in terms of content, structure and style are essential in Chinese-English medical translation. Following the established way of expressions and conforming to the characteristic even exceptional structures of a specific genre would all contribute to best recognition of the target text by the native discourse community.

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Appendix

30		7	1996 8 3			
7			3			

39	107 /min	26 /min	110/70mmHg		

450 /mm^3	14.5g%	21,000/mm^3	19%	1%

15 /mm^3

English version 1

Admission Note

The patient is a 30-year-old married woman. Because she had fever and cough for 7 days, she was admitted to the hospital on August 3, 1996.

Seven days ago she began to have a fever, cough and spit mucous sputum, but she had not received any medical treatment up to now. In the past three days, she had a persistent fever, and the cough became serious. She spit rusty sputum. She felt chest pain and it intensified with respirations.

During her illness, she was lack of strength. Her appetite was poor. Her urine and stools were normal.

She was healthy in the past and seldom went to doctor.

Nobody in her family had ever got tuberculosis and she did not know of any intimate contact with patients with this disease either.

Physical Examination: the patient was normally developed and poorly nourished. She looked acutely ill but her mind was still clear. There was no cyanosis, no eruption, or purpura over skin. Superficial lymph nodes were not enlarged. Skull and head organs were normal and there was no jaundice on sclerae. The neck could move freely and thyroid glands were not engorged. Chest was symmetrical. Tactile fremitus exaggerated slightly over the right upper chest and a lot of small and moderate moist rales were heard. Heart beats were normal without any noise. Abdomen was flat and soft and free from tenderness. Liver and spleen could not be palpated. Bowel sounds were normal. There was no abnormality in spine or limbs. Knee jerks of both sides were active. There were no pathological reflexes.

Routine blood test: RBC 4,500,000/mm^3, Hb 14.5g%, WBC 21,000/mm^3, N 80%, L 19%, E 1%.

Platelet count: 150,000/mm^3.

Chest fluoroscopy: There was a big patchy shadow over upper right lung.

English version 2

Admission Note

A 30-year-old married female was admitted to the hospital on August 3, 1996, because of a 7-day fever and cough.

Seven days ago, she began running a fever and having a bad cough productive of mucous sputum, for which she has not taken any medical treatment up to now. In the past three days, she has been having a persistent high fever, an exacerbated cough productive of rusty sputum and a thoracalgia intensified with respirations.

During her illness, she has been weak and has had a poor appetite without specific urine or stools. She has been in good health and has seldom consulted physicians in the past.

There is no tuberculosis in her family medical history and she does not know of any intimate exposure to patients with this disease either.

PE T: 39℃; P: 107/min. R: 26/min.; BP: 110/70 mmHg.

Well developed, poorly nourished. Acutely ill-looking, still mentally clear. No cyanosis. No eruption or purpura over skin. Superficial lymph nodes not palpable. Skull an head organs not abnormal. No jaundice on sclerae. Neck soft and supple. Thyroid not enlarged. Trachea not deviated. No engorgement of jugualr veins. Chest not asymmetrical. Tactile fremitus exaggerated slightly over the right upper chest and a lost of small and moderate moist rales heard here. Heart beat regular with no murmur. Abdomen flat, soft and free from tenderness. Liver and spleen impalpable. Intestinal peristaltic sounds not abnormal. No abnormality detected in spine or limbs. Knee jerks of both sides active. No pathological reflexes elicited.

Routine blood test: RBC 4,500,000/mm^3, Hb 14.5g%, WBC 21,000/mm^3, N 80%, L 19%, E 1%.

Platelet count: 150,000/mm^3.

Chest fluoroscopy: A big patchy density over upper right lung.

Watching Cartoons With Subtitles Improves Children's Foreign Language Acquisition

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Exposing the EFL (English as a Foreign Language) learners to highly contextualized language input which involves the use of ICT (Information and Communication Technologies) is becoming fashionable and prevalent. Some argue that input modification can help comprehension. This longitudinal case study was designed to provide evidence about whether target language subtitles are effective in providing modified input to the learners. The participant was an Iranian 12-year-old boy, Morteza, who watched more than 20 cartoons enhanced with English subtitles in two years. He was just indirectly observed but not controlled by the researcher. After mastering each cartoon, he took the direct listening, pronunciation, vocabulary and comprehension tests orally. The testing sessions were followed by an oral interview regarding the usefulness of subtitles. The results indicated that his performance incrementally improved. First, he preferred to watch the cartoons without subtitles. Then, he used English subtitles as a crutch during the second viewing of the cartoons. And finally, he used Persian subtitles during the third viewing to get the exact meaning of the new words and expressions. Now he speaks English fluently and understands the original cartoons without any subtitle quite well after watching them two or three times. His pronunciation is native-like at the age of 12.

Keywords: information and communication technologies, modified input, subtitles, young learners, language acquisition

Introduction and Background

There have been quite a few discussions among people about how to teach their children a foreign language. When there are no foreign language classes where they live, they think about home-schooling. They do not know at what age to start and which method to use. They have heard that children's brains are geared towards acquiring language until the age of 10 or 12 and afterwards they lose this ability little by little.

Based on the interactionist SLA (Second Language Acquisition) theory, since interaction promotes negotiation of meaning between human interlocutors, it is believed to be a crucial factor for language learning (Long, 1996; Pica, 1994). Nowadays, the notion of interaction in CALL (Computer-Assisted Language Learning) includes human-computer interaction, too. According to this theory, the input can become beneficial, only if it is perceived. This implies that the instructional materials should have characteristics which strengthen input through modifications (Chapelle, 2003). The effectiveness of two types of input modifications, subtitles and transcripts, was investigated by Grgurović and Hegelheimer (2007). The results of their study revealed that learners preferred subtitles and used them more than transcripts.

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According to Winke, Gass and Sydorenko (2010), watching videos with subtitles is becoming more and more common for foreign language learning, because they are easily producible and accessible. Videos with subtitles are pedagogically important tools, because they provide a learning environment in which learners can integrate written and aural input. They argue that, in the 1980s, subtitles were introduced to increase learners' attention and motivation. Subtitles reduced learners' anxiety by giving them instant confirmation of what they had heard. But, following that period, some studies indicated that subtitles lead to superior performance on subsequent comprehension tests. For example, an experiment conducted by Bird and Williams (2002) confirmed the claim that subtitles are a beneficial language learning tool which aids comprehension by increasing the depth of processing. Mitterer and McQueen (2009) maintained that foreign subtitles help but native-language subtitles harm foreign speech perception. They argued that subtitles in the language of the film can help to boost lexically-guided speech learning, because they indicate which words are being spoken.

The results of past research regarding the level of proficiency required by learners to benefit most from subtitles are mixed. According to Markham (1993), subtitles are more helpful to intermediate and advanced learners when the video materials are abstract and difficult for them to understand. Yet, Guillory (1998) found that subtitles are beneficial for the beginning-level learners, especially if only key-words are presented on screen.

Two recent studies which have dealt with the effect of subtitles on foreign language learning belong to Markham (2001) who found that both background knowledge and subtitles contribute considerably to the learners' comprehension of the videos, and Grgurović and Hegelheimer (2007) who discovered that subtitles are used more frequently and for longer periods of time than transcripts by learners.

Chapelle (2003) claimed that the real and current challenge in language teaching is to find the most effective ways to help learners take advantage of the available electronic resources. According to Baltova (1999; 1994), EFL teachers and researchers know that there is no one guaranteed teaching method to be suitable for a variety of situations. But subtitled audiovisual material can be used as a powerful instructional tool everywhere to provide simultaneous exposure to spoken and written language as well as visual information that conveies the same message. Due to its rich context, subtitled audiovisual material has a motivational impact on viewers. It improves content and vocabulary learning, and facilitates auditory processing.

Since, up to now, the advantages of subtitling in EFL learning have not been observed in EFL contexts like Iran, very little audiovisual material with synchronized subtitles has been designed to promote this kind of language learning. This study investigates and reports a 12-year-old learner's use of subtitles while watching cartoons in English. Morteza, the author's son, is the boy whom this research is all about. The author taught him English at home before they moved abroad so he would have a head start at language class. He was six at that time. The author just bought him a lot of simple English books. They went to Japan in September, 2003. The author was very motivated to teach him English. To the author's astonishment, he found EFL in the Japanese context is as poor as the Iranian one. The author did not know how easy it would be to keep his kid motivated to speak English when he was not using it. The author did not motivate him to learn the language. Instead, he learned a little Japanese from the context. While the author was teaching English at the Iranian school in Tokyo, Morteza started his first grade in Persian there. Then, they lived in Malaysia for two and a half years then he went to an expatriate school run by non-native English speakers for one year. Although the author is fluent in English, he speaks Persian with him at home.

By the age of 10, Morteza was good at reading but weak at the other three skills as well as pronunciation. When the author found that subtitling may bridge the gap between the learners' reading and listening abilities

(Borrás & Lafayette, 1994) and that learners' incidental language acquisition or subconscious and implicit learning occurs even through passive regular exposure to linguistic phenomena (Saffran, Newport, Aslin, Tunick, & Barrueco, 1997), the author exposed him to age-appropriate English language that does not always find its way into classes from June, 2008 to June, 2010 while he was growing up. Little by little he got addicted to the *Lion King*, *Mulan*, *Hulk*, *Garfield*, *Ice Age*, *Shrek, Bolt*, *Tarzan*, *Home on the Range*, and other children's videos which were not at all surprising. What is surprising is that now he speaks English fluently and understands more than 90% of the original cartoons without any subtitles. He is very good at spelling and writing, too. Although he is 12, his pronunciation is native-like. The details of the study will be discussed in the following sections.

According to Taylor (2005), research has shown that subtitles distract lower-level learners, but both lower-level and upper-level learners' attitudes toward them are positive. It is now commonly accepted that audiovisual materials with subtitles are powerful pedagogical tools that facilitate language learning by helping the language learner to connect auditory with visual input, especially if the input is a little beyond the learners' linguistic ability (Danan, 2004; Markham & Peter, 2003; Borrás & Lafayette, 1994; Garza, 1991). However, both theoretically and pedagogically, it is not exactly known what young learners actually do with subtitles while watching cartoons. And finally, "a pedagogical question that has been raised by several researchers but has not been investigated is when learners should be exposed to captioning" (Winke, Gass, & Sydorenko, 2010, p. 67). Addressing the challenge, this paper tries to answer the following questions to shed more light on the young learners' use of subtitles based on a longitudinal case study: (1) Where is the young learner's attention focused while watching cartoons enhanced with subtitles? (2) How does he balance the intake of audio, video and text? (3) Should subtitles be used on the first exposure? (4) Which subtitles are more useful? Foreign or native language subtitles? (5) What order of subtitling is more effective? and (6) What level of proficiency is required to make subtitles beneficial?

Method

This study took place at home. Rather than using samples and following a rigid protocol, this longitudinal case study was based on an in-depth investigation of a single learner to explore the advantages of subtitling in EFL learning. Because of the repeated observation of a phenomenon within its real-life context at the individual level, such a research strategy seems to be more reliable than cross-sectional observational studies.

The participant was an Iranian 12-year-old boy, Morteza. After learning the English alphabet, basic words and simple sentences at home, he went to an expatriate school in Malaysia run by non-native English speakers for one year at the age of nine. The medium of instruction was English. He was good at reading but weak at the other three skills as well as pronunciation by the age of 10 when he left that school and was exposed to more than 20 cartoons with subtitles from June, 2008 to June, 2010 as he was growing up and attending Iranian schools. The medium of instruction in Iranian schools is Persian. He preferred to watch the cartoons without subtitles first. He saw English subtitles during the second viewing of the cartoons and Persian subtitles during the third viewing. He always preferred this learning strategy during the study. As suggested by Grgurović and Hegelheimer (2007), the learner was allowed to toggle subtitles on and off as he wished. He was just indirectly observed and not controlled by the researcher regarding the time he spent on watching the cartoons. After mastering each cartoon, he took the direct listening, pronunciation, vocabulary and comprehension tests orally.

The direct testing sessions were followed by an oral interview regarding the usefulness of subtitles. In the

interview, he was asked about his experience of watching the cartoons. His responses elucidated the direct test results. To learn how Morteza dealt with subtitles in the cartoons, he was asked the following questions: (1) Where do you focus your attention while watching cartoons enhanced with subtitles? (2) How do you balance the intake of audio, video and text? (3) Do you prefer subtitles on the first exposure? (4) Which subtitles do you think are more useful? English or Persian subtitles? (5) Do you prefer watching the cartoons with English or Persian subtitles first? and (6) What level of proficiency do you think is required to make subtitles beneficial?

Results

The outcome of this two-year-long study is Morteza now speaks English fluently and understands the original cartoons without any subtitle quite well after watching them two or three times. He is very good at spelling and writing, too. His pronunciation is native-like at the age of 12. His answers to the following research questions are presented with some modifications.

(1) Where do you focus your attention while watching cartoons enhanced with subtitles?

Morteza seems aware of his own needs for listening when he says,

> Subtitles affect my attention to the input. You know they help me double-check what I have heard before. I focus on the words and expressions that I couldn't get the first time I watched the cartoons without subtitles at the bottom. They are helpful when are on, but they sometimes really divert my attention away from the cartoons.

(2) How do you balance the intake of audio, video and text?

> I pay attention to certain things each time. During the first viewing of the cartoons when the subtitles are off, I pay close attention to the video. Then, I use the English subtitles during the second viewing and focus on the words and expressions and their spelling. Next, I use the Persian subtitles to check the meaning. And after that I enjoy watching the cartoon with subtitles off again and again.

(3) Do you prefer subtitles on the first exposure?

> No, I think they are distracting on the first exposure. Well, I just listen first. I prefer watching cartoons with English subtitles on the second exposure because during the first exposure many questions form in my mind and during the second and third exposure I can double-check their answers by using English and Persian subtitles, respectively.

(4) Which subtitles do you think are more useful? English or Persian subtitles?

> Both English and Persian subtitles are always useful in different ways. English subtitles help me learn and get familiar with the new words and their spelling, while Persian subtitles help me verify and make sure what I am learning is correct.

(5) Do you prefer watching the cartoons with English or Persian subtitles first?

> As I told you before, I prefer English subtitles first because it is easier for me to find the Persian meaning of the English words than the English meaning of the Persian words.

(6) What level of proficiency do you think is required to make subtitles beneficial?

> When I first began to use subtitles two years ago, I was very weak at listening. I felt it was very helpful but distracting at that time, because many of the words and phrases were high over my head. Little by little, I got more interested and found that subtitles are fantastic. I love them even now, because I do not need to ask you or use a dictionary to check the spelling or meaning of new words. Subtitles are always beneficial regardless of your level of language proficiency.

Discussions

This study set out to investigate whether a young learner's use of subtitles while watching cartoons facilitated foreign language learning. The results supported the benefit of subtitles as a type of modified input. Subtitles functioned as a sort of crutch or scaffold to aid the young learner. It appeared that the input modes (text and sound) reinforced one another. This finding is in line with the previous research conducted by Bird and Williams (2002). They discovered that a bimodal presentation led to better recognition and comprehension by increasing the depth of processing.

As argued by Gass (1997), interaction (in this case subtitling) serves as a tool which sets the stage for learning. When subtitling occurred during the second listening in this study, it drew the learner's attention to what he did not know. It provided additional evidence for confirmation. Subtitles were beneficial regardless of the learner's level of language proficiency, but the more the learner became proficient, the less he found the subtitles distracting. This result is in keeping with previous literature (Winke, Gass, & Sydorenko, 2010) that suggested subtitles may function similarly for a range of proficiency levels.

Since Morteza hated being taught English formally and the researcher was determined to set him up to succeed, different teaching methods were used by the researcher to find a solution to the problem. But teaching language for the sake of language as an end did not work in this study. Therefore, the researcher tried to be creative and finally learned how to do it informally. He provided Morteza with the framework and scaffold to succeed by exposing him to interesting cartoons and reinforcing his success by different rewards. Gradually, Morteza began to like the positive reinforcement and came along. Now, he is so proficient and motivated that he usually surf the internet in English to get supplementary information for doing his school assignments. This result confirms Larsen-Freeman's (2000) idea that the main duty of a language teacher is management of learning, that is, the teacher is expected to provide a friendly learning atmosphere by subordinating teaching to learning. The implication is that language teachers can improve their students' performance and motivation by focusing on language as an instrument for implicit and subconscious learning.

Conclusions

This longitudinal case study has shed more light on the use of subtitles. It confirms previous research that subtitles are beneficial, especially if cartoons without subtitles are followed by target and source language subtitles, respectively. In this study, the learner always preferred this learning strategy. When a young learner watches a cartoon in a foreign language with subtitles, two visual channels (one verbal and one non-verbal) seem to modify and facilitate the comprehension and learning of the auditory channel input.

The subtitled audiovisual material used in this study had not specifically been designed for the purpose of EFL learning. If learners are trained to use subtitles effectively (Taylor, 2005), we can expect better results.

In sum, the present study supports some of the findings described in the relevant literature. Minor discrepancies may be due to the different number of subjects and the type of material and testing procedure adopted. However, since there was only one participant in this longitudinal study whose performance was tested directly but informally, the obtained results cannot be generalized in any way. The use of subtitles will undoubtedly increase in the future. That is the reason why further research is in order to introduce an appropriate pedagogical tool in this regard.

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A Study on Teachers' Feedback of English Major Compositions

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The paper tries to explore the current English writing teaching situation with the focus on teachers' written feedback practices. Based on process-genre approach, a questionnaire involving 280 senior and junior English major students was conducted. It revealed that there was a mismatch between teachers and students in written feedback and it showed that process-genre approach can meet the needs of current English writing teaching.

Keywords: English major composition, process-genre approach, teachers' feedback

Introduction

Great importance has been attached to the learning and teaching of English writing in China, as is evidenced by the College English Curriculum Requirements (2004). Although the importance of English writing is generally recognized, the average score, however, even for key universities is far from satisfactory. Although researchers and scholars have suggested various possible solutions for writing improvement, the issue of how to improve students' English writing is still a topic for further exploration. It is widely known that teachers' feedback plays a very crucial role in college English writing class. However, in fact, a gap may exist between teachers and students concerning composition feedback. In China, very few studies are conducted on the teachers' written feedback, especially on students' attitudes towards teachers' feedback. With reference to teachers' feedback in China, most of them just presented opinions or lists of teaching suggestions rather than empirical research. Previous research on written feedback in China was mainly on discussions and thoughts, and the empirical research was severely scarce. Thus, the study is motivated to aim at how teachers treat their students' English compositions and how students respond to teachers' written feedback.

The paper, based on process-genre approach, carries out a survey study involving 280 students at Northwest Normal University to explore the real teaching and learning situation of English major students' writing and focus on written feedback between teachers' practices and students' expectations or needs.

Method

Subjects

The subjects in the study are 280 English major students from 10 different classes of Northwest Normal University in Gansu province, including 120 junior students and 160 senior students. The English writing course for them is one of the compulsive courses, and they have been taught by Chinese teachers and foreign teachers as well. Additionally, they hand in their compositions and receive handwritten feedback from both Chinese and foreign teachers.

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Questionnaire

In order to explore the individual student's opinion toward the English writing class and teachers' feedback, a questionnaire was handed out in the above mentioned 10 classes. When designing the questionnaire, the author referred to some relevant literature (Lee, 2004) and made some modifications so as to explore the current English writing teaching and learning situation in China for tentative results. For example, in order to see whether students are engaged in the active study or not, the author added an item: "I do the writing exercises in my spare time" (see Appendix Q9). The author combined some similar items about teaching methods to a more reasonable half-open one: "The specific ways of teacher's feedback I like are" (see Appendix Q22). The modified questionnaire is composed of 29 items, which fall into four categories: (1): The current English writing situation; (2) Students' preference on teachers' feedback; (3) Students' reaction to teachers' feedback; and (4) Students' suggestions on teachers' feedback. All the questions are on five-point Likert scale except five multiple-choice questions and three open-ended ones. All the items were written in Chinese when handed out to the students in case that the questionnaire in English might cause students' misunderstandings which may influence their choice and judgment.

Procedure

Measures were taken to ensure objective choices and valid results of the questionnaire. First of all, the students were chosen randomly. Second, the nature of the study and each item was explained to the subjects to avoid any misunderstanding. Third, the questionnaires were collected immediately after they were finished. Two hundred and eighty copies of the questionnaire were returned and the return rate was 100%. Data received were approached by statistical analysis and interpreted in order to detect the possible correlation between the data.

Results and Discussion

Results of the Current English Writing Situation

The first part of the questionnaire (Q1 to Q10) is about the investigation on the current English writing situation. The results, as it turned out, are not optimistic. Students have some difficulties in writing English compositions. They lack strategies and techniques in English writing, and therefore they are not satisfied with the current English writing competence. The two main problems were detected.

Students' difficulties in English writing. One of the main problems revealed from the first part of the questionnaire is that though 94% of students admitted they had paid much attention to their English writing, they found it is difficult to write English compositions. It means that most students regard English writing as a tough task. Some of the students owed this to their English levels. Others who have better command of English thought poor content leads to poor writing.

Lack of writing strategies. When asked whether or not they knew English writing strategies, only 17.5% of students agreed that they knew writing strategies; 69.6% of students held vague attitudes towards them and 12.9% of students even did not know what strategies are. Lack of writing strategies is one of the most important parts in hindering their improvement in writing.

Results of Students' Preference on Teacher's Feedback

The second part of the questionnaire (Q11 to Q22) is about students' preference on teachers' written feedback. In this part, several aspects were explored including the necessity of feedback, what kinds of writing teaching style they like, what aspects they believe should be paid more attention to, grammar or structure, etc..

The data of Table 1 showed that most of students believe that teachers' feedback is necessary and important, but there is insufficient communication with teachers. Consequently, there exists a mismatch problem between teachers' feedback practices and students' expectations. All the subjects believe that teachers' feedback is necessary, and hope that their compositions could be corrected and returned on time. More than 78% of students hold positive attitudes toward the writing teaching methods, including multiple revision yardsticks, comment on writing in class, model composition, common errors in class, and teaching writing skills for national exams. However, it does not mean that the writing teaching class is satisfactory. The analysis on the following two items can reveal the problems that exist in writing class.

Table 1

Students' Preference on Teachers' Feedback

No.	Factor analysis	Percentage of opinions (%)				
		Strongly agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Q11	Feedback necessity	27.5	56.6	15.9	0.0	0.0
Q12	Timeliness of feedback	31.9	56.6	11.5	0.0	0.0
Q13	Multiple revision yardsticks	26.2	55.1	13.0	4.3	1.4
Q14	Comment on writing in class	10.1	49.3	34.8	5.8	0.0
Q15	Model composition	2.9	37.7	37.7	18.8	2.9
Q16	Common errors in class	8.7	49.2	33.3	7.4	1.4
Q17	Offer feedback on every composition	17.4	47.8	27.6	4.3	2.9
Q18	Teaching writing skills for national exams	7.3	49.3	33.3	8.7	1.4

Student's desire for teachers' feedback. Q17 (I hope that the teacher could revise and comment on every composition of mine) revealed 92.8% of students did not deny their desire for teachers' feedback, but the fact is that teachers do not have enough time to correct the compositions of each student. Usually, they collect some students' compositions after class, and each student's composition has only a few chances to be corrected in the whole semester. If teachers cannot give feedback to every student, teachers should make an effort to improve students' skills and capacities for self-revision, so that students could make progress independently. Teachers can also encourage them to exchange their compositions and discuss in class. These methods can foster their writing performance and enable them to develop self-revision, peer-revision and student-teacher cooperative edition in order to achieve better skills in the output process.

Lack of communication between teacher and student. Q19 (Teachers may misinterpret our writing purpose) showed that four students chose "always", 20 students chose "often", 152 students chose "sometimes", 98 students chose "occasionally", but no one chose "never". That is to say, every student has the experience of being misinterpreted by the teachers. The figures obviously show that communication between teachers and students should be enhanced immediately. It suggests that in the teaching process, teachers should pay attention to students' opinions; meanwhile, students should also be active to express themselves to the teachers, so that a much better cooperation can be achieved to ultimately facilitate the output process.

Results of Students' Reaction to Teachers' Feedback

Since every student admits that teachers' feedback is necessary, what did students do after receiving teachers' feedback? The third part of the questionnaire aims at exploring students' reaction to teachers' feedback. Q26 in the appendix is about concrete students' revision strategies. It revealed that 18.8% of students

reported that they frequently revised their compositions according to the teachers' comments and 2.9% of students did no revision. The most frequently used strategies were looking up a dictionary, thinking alone and consulting teachers. Regarding other strategies such as referencing to grammar book, seeking peer feedback, revising and adding, consulting notes, and revising by comments, there was a distribution from "sometimes" to "rarely". On the whole, the students are lack of revising strategies. Although they admit that teachers' feedback affects their writing and they welcome feedback, they did not know how to treat the feedback appropriately in the revision process. This is the weak point in the writing teaching process. Teachers impart knowledge about writing skills to students and give feedback to them without teaching them how to treat the feedback to make progress. Students have no effective and systematic revision strategies, which are essential in the teaching process. Therefore, teachers should help them improve their revision abilities, encourage group discussions in class and tell them what the effective revision strategies are, so that students could get improvement independently. Meanwhile, the burden of teachers could also be eased.

Results of Students' Suggestions on Teachers' Feedback

This part contains three open-ended questions. The subjects were asked to give their own suggestions for written feedback. Their suggestions were more valuable as to the future implementation of a successful written feedback. They are summarized as follows: (1) Revision methods should be taught in English writing class; (2) Common errors interpretation in class is useful for students; (3) If time permits, face-to-face communication is necessary and effective; and (4) Encouraging comments are conducive to English writing study.

In summary, for one thing, students are not satisfactory with their current English writing levels and the current composition teaching situation in the classroom. Based on the data from the first part of the questionnaire, although students admitted teachers' feedback had positive impact on their compositions, they still found it is difficult to write good English writing compositions, and they lacked writing strategies in English. Therefore, they are not content with the present English teaching condition. For another, there is a mismatch between teachers' practices and students' expectations of feedback, which directly or indirectly demotivates students' writing interest. Teachers and students have no effective and sufficient communication, and students' capabilities of self-study and self-revision should be enhanced. Teachers should teach the students not only writing skills but also the ability for independent study.

Conclusions and Suggestions

The discrepancy observed in the study between teachers' practices and students' expectations on written feedback is the inefficiency of writing class and the unsatisfactory writing situation. From the students' perspective, if they are not satisfied with teachers' feedback, they may lose interest in written feedback. Once students form negative attitudes towards teachers' feedback, it is hard for teachers to arouse their interest in English writing practice, thus leading to the failure in their writing test or practice. From the teachers' perspective, they pay painstaking efforts on the written feedback only to find their students' indifference. The above conclusion suggests that teachers' practices of written feedback do not match students' expectations.

In order to solve this problem and achieve harmony between teachers' written feedback practices and students' needs or expectations, some suggestions are given. In the first place, teachers and students should have mutual understanding on the basis of cooperation so as to narrow their discrepancies on the written feedback. Teachers should know the students' needs, their English level and individual characters, and give them the wanted feedback. At the same time, students should be more cooperative and positive about their

written feedback. They should care about teachers' feedback and try to interact with teachers in or after class about their writing and revisions. By doing so, they can help teachers to know what kind of feedback they need and what problems they encounter in the English writing, thus teachers could readjust their feedback styles to meet students' needs and give effective feedback.

In the second place, teachers can use other effective aids such as peer feedback, face-to-face conference and computer conference to enhance the level of the teachers' written feedback. Peer feedback allows learners to gain a great sense of audience when they read other's writing. As Tribble (1996, p. 107) had suggested, when incorporating peer-conferencing sessions into a writing lesson, "Knowing that your peers will be evaluating your work provides a more motivating context in which to write than writing for an entirely factitious reader". Conference refers to a face-to-face oral interaction between the student-writer and teacher-reader so that students can ask for clarification of what they feel unsure in their own writing (Keh, 1990). It is regarded by some scholars as an ideal form of feedback (Zamel, 1985), because it allows "more feedback and more accurate feedback to be given per minute".

In the third place, students should be independent learners and take initiative in the correction and revision of their own writing. Students will benefit from the pursuit of their independent role in the improvement of their own writing. Lee (2004) said,

> It is also crucial that teachers adopt long-term measures to help students become independent editors, make expectations clear, and make error correction an integral part of teaching and learning in the writing classroom, so that students will not regard error correction as a mundane chore that has no direct relevance to their own writing development. (p. 302)

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Appendix

1				
A	B	C	D	E
2				
A	B	C	D	E

3
A   B   C   D   E

4
A   B   C   D   E

5
A   B   C   D   E

6
A   B   C   D   E

7
A   B   C   D   E

8
A   B   C   D
E

9
A   B   C   D _____ E

10
A   B   C
D   E
F _____

11
A   B   C   D   E

12
A   B   C   D   E

13
A   B   C   D   E

14
A   B   C   D   E

15
A   B   C   D   E

16
A   B   C   D   E

17
A   B   C   D   E

18
A   B   C   D   E

19
A   B   C   D   E

20
A   B   C   D   E

21
A   B   C   D   E

22
A   Sp   Spelling
B
C
D
E

F
G
H
I

23
A   B   C   D   E
24
A   B   C   D   E
25
A   B   C   D   E
26
A   B   C   D   E
F   G   H   I

27
28   ?
29

The Teacher of English in the Nigerian Schools: Analysis of a Diagnostic Test

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The English language in Nigeria is of immense value to Nigerians. It is the colonialists' language of many Anglophone nations in sub-Saharan Africa. The teaching and learning of English today receive enviable efforts of African nation's governments. In Nigeria, serious emphasis is on proficiency of English as a means of livelihood. This paper has looked into the quality of English teachers of junior secondary schools in Oyo State through the administration of diagnostic test in preparation for the State's Basic Education Commissions workshop held in July 2009. Analysis of teachers' performance confirmed the facts raised by the research questions on English teachers' competency in English sentence structure, pronunciation, common-errors, punctuation mistakes and inability to adequately provide good English expressions. A number of suggestions for enhancement of recruitment of qualified teachers with laudable commitment to their choice of professional career were posited.

Keyword: TESOL (Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Language), Oke Ogun, mentalism, testees, monopthong

Introduction

The teachers are that personality of great expectations. The nation jealously entrusts the faith and future of Nigerian citizens into their hands hoping for greater output of the products for the development of other aspects and the society as a whole.

Language teachers are the academic individuals involved in the teaching and learning of languages as native, foreign, national, international, second, alternative or modern languages. Language education in Wikipedia (2010) is the teaching and learning of languages. It involves improving on a learner's mastery of his/her native language.

For Wales (2010), the founder of Wikipedia, English learning and teaching have varieties of terms from nations to nations. There exist ESL (English as a Second Language), ESOL (English for Speakers of Other Languages), EFL (English as a Foreign Language), ELT (English Language Teaching), EIL (English as an International Language), ELF (English as a Lingua Franca), LEP (Limited English Proficiency) among others.

In Nigeria, English is an unofficially accepted lingua franca. Efforts to play down on the imperatives of English in the Nigeria setting are daily resulting in the promotion of the language's usefulness as medium of administration, entertainments, cultural promotion, commerce and religious propagation.

As in many African Anglophone countries, the teaching and learning of English have long been perceived

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as a delicate project. In Nigeria, admission into higher institutions is on the premise of having good grade in English in the terminal examinations, such as West African School Certificate and National Examinations Council. The choice of English teachers in Nigerian junior secondary schools is in line with the nations' policy on education, therefore decrees the possession of a minimum qualification of the Nigerian Certificate in Education or a good university degree in English. English teachers' qualifications are determined by each nation of the world. For instance, according to Wikipedia (2010), in Hong Kong, an English teacher must hold the Language Proficiency Assessment Certificate. In US, English instructors at community colleges must have M.A. (Master of Arts) in TESOL. Also, the US government supports the policy that teachers with two or more years' teaching experience who may want to stay in the profession and advance their careers can take the diploma course like that of Trinity Liencetriate Diploma in TESOL.

The South Korea educational policy also stipulates that an English teacher in the Republic of Korea must be a native speaker of English or of an English speaking country. The countries include the US, Canada, Australia, Newzealand, the UK, Nigeria, Jamaica, Ghana, South Africa and Ireland. In fact, such an English teacher must have B.A. (Bachelor of Arts) or M.A. in English and must have completed 10 years of education in any of the above-listed countries.

Based on Wales' (2010) presentation on English education, Power (2010) listed what we should expect in the preparation of a good English teacher including: (1) should have priorities and materials for teaching English phonology and phonetics; (2) must be able to specify the priorities for pronunciation teaching; (3) should be able to conveniently introduce the English vowel sounds, particularly the 12 monophthongs; (4) need to prepare the students in speech versus written English; (5) be able to effectively handle, the English idioms, diche, jargons, slangs, motto, phoneme, Anglophone and redundancy; (6) be conscious of ways of presenting grammar lessons; (7) know the techniques of teaching dialogue for grammar presentation or conversation facilitation; (8) should know the importance of concordances and corpuses in vocabulary teaching today; (9) should possess the technique of audio-lingual lessons i.e., drilling as habit formation; and (10) should always apply cognitive theory (i.e., awareness of the rules) mentalism (The submissions are not the verbatim presentations as in the published material supplied by the UK www.Amazon.co.uk).

The listed items above were presented in our own words to drive home expected messages especially for the Nigerian teachers of English in the junior secondary schools. Considering the enormous challenges on the teachers of English in the Nigerian schools, Oyo State Government Educational Agencies—Oyo State Universal Basic Education Board and Emmanuel Alayande College of Education, Oyo, organized a training workshop for English language teachers in Oyo State. The selected teachers of English for the junior secondary schools were therefore exposed to a diagnostic test that provides the result analysed and discussed in this empirical study.

Although the study holds the opinion that only one test may be inadequate to arrive at acceptable conclusion on the tested teachers' competence and performance in English, it justifies the fact that most of the teachers of English in the junior secondary schools in Oyo State have a lot to do in terms of commitment to their career, reading and research habits.

Methodology

Research Questions

(1) Are English teachers in Oyo State junior secondary schools good in English sentence structure rules?

(2) How good are English teachers of Oyo State junior secondary schools in English speech sounds? (3) Can English teachers of Oyo State junior secondary schools conveniently handle the teaching of English punctuation marks? (4) Are English teachers of Oyo State junior secondary schools competent in English education teaching methods? and (5) Does placement of stress and English stress patterns pose problems to an average English language teacher in Oyo State junior secondary schools?

Objectives of the Study

This study aims among others to ascertain the competency of the selected English teachers in Oyo State junior secondary schools. It is an empirical work meant to relate the English teachers' competency with their output in terms of quality of junior secondary school students preparation in the English language.

This study has the intention of exposing the selected teachers to impromptu self-assessment in their chosen career for which they daily seek for advancement in terms of promotion, increase in salary and other incentives from government. We propose to catch on areas in need of development through the given test and provision of advice to the teachers, governments and other stakeholders in English education project.

Population of the Study

A total of 91 English language teachers of junior secondary schools in Oyo State, Nigeria, constituted the subjects of this study. This population was made up of 49 female and 42 male teachers drawn from Ibadan, Oyo, Oke-Ogun and Ogbomoso zones of Oyo State Nigeria, Africa. The teachers' ages range from 35 to 50 years with no less than five years' cognate experience as English teachers in their respective junior secondary schools.

Instrument of the Study

A objective test with 60 questions which was prepared by a group of English education experts was administered. The experts are lecturers at the colleges of education where English teachers are trained along with other students of other disciplines. They are Dr. Opoola, Messers Obisesan Akinkunmi, Adetunji, Ojo, Foyewa, Tahir Adelakun, Ulocha, Mrs. Adebiyi, Dr. (Mrs.) Olatayo, Mr. Adegbite and an education technologist Dr. Afolabi.

Closely related alternatives were provided as a to d for questions 1-60. The questions were based on testing the teachers' English oracy skills, English sentence structure, punctuation marks, teaching methods, stress placement and simple expressions.

Procedure

At the commencement of the Oyo SUBEB (State Universal Basic Education Board) workshop in collaboration with Oyo State College of Education Consult on July 21, 2009, a diagnostic test was given to the conference participants, who are the selected teachers of English in the State's junior secondary schools.

Each of the 91 teachers was given one hour to work on the given objective questions. Answer sheets were given to the testees for shading the correct options of a to d alternatives of each question.

The test was properly invigilated by the team of experts that served as facilitators for the workshop.

In the end, the test papers were marked and given back to the participants before the workshop proper kick started. One mark for each was allotted to the choice of correct option, and the obtained marks were over 60.

Data Analysis and Discussion of the Findings

Tables 1 and 2 highlight the elicited data from the given test.

Table 1

Summary of Teachers Performance

Zones and local govt.	No. of teachers	Scored 30 +	Scored 40 +	Scored 50	Highest score per zone/LGA
Ogbomoso North	18	12	1	0	40/60
Saki West	5	4	1	0	42/60
Oriire	4	3	1	0	44/60
Atiba	3	1	1	0	40/60
Irepodun	1	1	0	0	34/60
Iwajowa	10	1	0	0	34/60
Oyo West	10	8	2	0	40/60
Afijio	3	2	1	0	32/60
Oyo zone	23	15	1	0	44/60
Oke Ogun zone	9	7	0	0	39/60
Ibadan zone	1	1	1	0	43/60
Ogbomoso zone	13	10	3	0	42/60
Grand total	91	65	12	0	44/60

Table 2

Teachers' Performance in Some Selected Question Items

Selected questions	Area of coverage in English education	No. of teachers with correct answer	No. of teachers with incorrect answer
1	English sentence formation	51	40
5	English sentence formation	53	38
6	English sentence formation	57	34
9	English sentence formation	58	33
10	English sentence formation	26	65
14	Punctuation marks	18	74
15	Punctuation marks	57	34
16	English paragraphs	62	29
17	English sentence structure	4	87
34	English education method	21	70
38	English education method	20	71
40	English speech sounds	14	78
41	English speech sounds	25	66
46	English speech sounds	36	55
48	English speech sounds	35	56
49	English speech sounds	6	85
51	Simple expression in English	41	50
53	Simple expression in English	78	14
59	Simple expression in English	61	30

Table 1 shows that the testees have a lot to do in developing their competency in English as English teachers in the junior secondary schools. Out of the 91 tested teachers, 65 scored 30 marks out of 60 marks. Twelve teachers out of the 91 participants had 40 out of 60 marks with no teacher with 50.

The highest mark scored out of 60 was 44. Two teachers from Oriire local government and Oyo zone scored 44 out of 60 marks.

Table 2 highlights the teachers' performance on 20 specifically selected questions out of the given 60 questions. It is a table of four horizontal columns meant for question item, areas of coverage in English, number of teachers with correct answers and number of those with incorrect answers. This study picked out these questions with the intent of directly assessing the competency skills of the testees. Some of these questions are quite simple for which we feel that a good English teacher in junior secondary schools ought not to have provided incorrect answers. The questions are as listed.

(1) Which of the following expressions is not correct:

a. Are they yours? b. Is it yours? c. They are yours? d. It is yours?

(5) Supply the missing word in the open space. In most structures in English____follow the nouns they modify:

a. adverbs; b. nominal; c. apostrophe; d. adjectives.

(6) The____is to the verbs, what adjectives is to the____.

a. pronoun and noun; b. adjectives and adverbs; c. adverb and noun; d. comma and tense.

(9) The ed suffix in most English verbs signifies past tense formation. It is therefore a____.

a. phoneme; b. auophone; c. morpheme; d. auomorph.

(10) "Blessed are the poor in spirit for theirs is the Kingdom of heaven. Blessed are they that mourn: for they shall obtain mercy". In the above paragraph, coherence is achieved through what means:

a. parables; b. parallelism; c. antithesis; d. paradox.

(14) Which of the following punctuation marks is suitable in expressing a change of thoughts?

a. the comma; b. the full stop; c. the exclamation mark; d. the dash.

(15) The comma is used:

a. to set up a direct speech from the rest of the sentence; b. to indicate words or phrases earlier omitted in constructions; c. in-between abbreviation; d. to indicate strong feeling or emotions.

(16) When there is a logical link between the sentences that make up the paragraph, such paragraph is said to contain some measure of:

a. unity; b. emphasis; c. coherence; d. agreement.

(18) The sentence "Mr. Olatayo is our principal and shorts" violates which rule of sentence formation:

a. Unity; b. Emphasis; c. coalescence; d. agreement.

(34) All the following are the sociological factors affecting the teaching and learning of English except one:

a. Multilingualism; b. Class size; c. Parental background; d. teachers' quality.

(38) One of the problems a pupil learning English in our society face is____.

a. calculation; b. generalization; c. substitution; d. discrimination.

From the words lettered a to e, choose the word that has the same sound as the one represented by letters underlined.

(40) Work a. port; b. talk; c. nurse; d. lock; e. card.

(41) Crew a. sew; b. who; c. pull; d. knew; e. cool.

In the following options lettered a to e, all the words except one have the same stress pattern. Identify the one stressed with the different stress pattern:

(46) a. despite; b. petrol; c. vomit; d. wardrobe; e. teacher.

(47) a. component; b. importance; c. distribute; d. revenue; e. delicate.

(48) a. benefit; b. deposit; c. difficult; d. prevalent; e. parochial.

(49) a. schedule; b. country; c. finance; d. fountain; e. curtail.

From the words or group of words labeled a to d, choose the one that best completes each of the following sentences:

(51) The team has suffered defeat____defeat.

a. by; b. with; c. over; d. after.

(53) I'd give up smoking if I____you.

a. am; b. were; c. was; d. are.

(59) ____had he entered when it started to rain.

a. hardly; b. nearly; c. almost; d. fairly.

The set of questions given to the testees and their performance particularly in the asterisk ones in Table 2 reflect the incompetency in some English teachers of the junior secondary schools in Oyo State Nigeria.

The summary of the findings of this study is that: Majority of the selected tested teachers that took part in the given test are weak in English sentence structure, punctuation marks, rules of English, sentence formation, teaching methodologies and English stress placement rules.

Recommendations

With regard to the diagnostic nature of this assessment exercise, we are of the view that teachers of English should be able to perform better in English test at any given time. The following recommendations are of interest in improving the teaching of English in Nigerian junior secondary schools:

(1) English teachers should be certified English teachers. We observed that a great number of the testees teach English in their respective schools without relevant degree or the Nigeria Certificate in Education in English. Graduates of other disciplines are engaged in teaching English probably due to dearth of qualified English teachers or non-availability of funds for teachers recruitment agencies;

(2) English teachers with good certificates or degrees in English are in need of expected commitment that will surely lead to self-development and better output in their chosen career. Majority of the tested English teachers are no longer with good reading habit. A lot of teachers are concentrating on their private commodities selling and buying, so that they no longer appear keen on their teaching responsibilities;

(3) The training workshops regularly conducted by Oyo SUBEB should be allowed to be on monthly basis. The workshop for English teachers should include frequent diagnostic and post-workshop tests. Value will be added to better performance if teachers' promotion and other laudable incentives are attached to obtained scores on the given tests of the workshop;

(4) English teachers' performance can be boosted if enough relevant English books are provided for teachers to read and teach their pupils;

(5) The education and culture of United Nations provide necessary support like the British Council to better handling of native and foreign language teaching-learning in the world, which is highly commendable;

(6) International workshops and conferences opportunities on effective teaching and learning of English in Africa should not be for the African universities alone. Colleges and primary school teachers should also be involved in participating in seminars aimed at improving their teaching-learning skills;

(7) In-house exchange of ideas using current methods of teaching English deserves a prime of place in the African junior and senior secondary schools' set-up. English teachers should examine themselves in the midst

of their senior colleagues within their school system. There should be in-house fortnight seminars for the English teachers in each school. The duration of the seminars on current trends in English teaching and learning can be worked out by each school's authority.

Conclusions

English is a key subject in the education of an African child. Therefore, the handlers of this sensitive world medium ought to have undoubting academic qualification and commensurate performance in the language. An English teacher is of equal status with a medical doctor whose mistakes can lead to the death of millions of people.

Therefore, it is imperative for the governments, the English teachers and international organizations to lend more weight on the development of good English teachers for African secondary school children. If a good credit in English in Nigeria and other African countries is a criterion for admission into tertiary institutions, better preparation of English teachers should be viewed as a task that must be done globally.

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Appendix

The diagnostic test questions:

(1) Which of the following expressions is not correct?
    a. are they yours?   b. is it yours?   c. they are yours?   d. it is yours?

(2) Select the correct option. The third person singular in English is____.
    a. I   b. you   c. they   d. he/she/it

(3) In English, all nouns take "s" in their plural formation.
    a. true   b. false   c. none of the above   d. all of the above

(4) A driver drives a car; a farmer farms. Therefore, a person who cooks food is a____.
    a cooker   b. cooks   c. cook   d. coke

(5) Supply the missing word in the open space in most structures in English____follow the nouns they modify.
    a. adverbs   b. nominal   c. apostrophe   d. adjectives

(6) The____is to the verbs, what adjectives is to the____.
    a. pronoun and noun   b. adjectives and adverbs   c. adverb and noun   d. comma and tense

(7) A good teacher of English language must be
    a. knowledgeable   b. professionally trained   c. quarrelsome   d. humane

(8) To ensure students have adequate vocabulary in English, they should be encouraged____.
    a. not to speak or write English at all   b. to always speak their first language
    c. to speak and write English at all times   d. to speak and write English only in the class

(9) The ed suffix in most English verbs signify past tense formation. It is therefore a____.
    a. phoneme   b. allophone   c. morpheme   d. allomorph

(10) "Blessed are the poor in spirit for theirs is the Kingdom of heaven. Blessed are they that mourn: for they shall obtain mercy". In the above paragraph, coherence is achieved through what means_____.

    a. parables   b. parallelism   c. antithesis   d. paradox

(11) The method which involves developing the main ideas of a paragraph by giving a composite picture and later stating each of its component unit is termed_____.

    a. picture square method of paragraph development   b. enumeration methods of paragraph development

    c. Comparison methods of paragraph development   d. Comparison contrast method of paragraph development

(12) The greatest position of emphasis in the paragraph would be_____.

    a. the middle of the paragraph   b. the beginning of the paragraph

    c. the end of paragraph   d. the beginning and the end of the paragraph

(13) The_____is the foundation of the paragraph.

    a. the participatory sentence   b. the topic sentence   c. the vocation sentence   d. the logical subject

(14) Which of the following punctuation marks is suitable in expressing a change of thoughts?

    a. the comma   b. the full stop   c. the exclamation mark   d. the dash

(15) The comma is used_____.

    a. to set up a direct speech from the rest of the sentence   b. to indicate words or phrases earlier omitted in constructions

    c. in-between abbreviation   d. to indicate strong feeling or emotions

(16) When there is a logical between the sentences that make-up the paragraph, such paragraph is said to contain some measure of_____.

    a. unity   b. emphasis   c. coherence   d. agreement

(17) The sentence "Mr. Olatayo is honest and short" violates which rule of sentence formation.

    a. unity   b. emphasis   c. coalescence   d. agreement

(18) The sentence "Mr. Olatayo is our principal and Short" violates which rule of sentence formation.

    a. agreement   b. emphasis   c. coalescence   d. coherence

(19) The sentence "dancing and dancing everyday in the village, her reputation became worse" violates which rule of sentence formation.

    a. agreement   b. unity   c. coherence   d. emphasis

Characteristics of a good English teacher

Instruction: Choose from the options lettered a to d one that is nearest in meaning to the underlined word or group of words as it is used in the sentence.

(20) The government has approved a new salary structure as an incentive for workers.

    a. a reward   b. a package   c. an encouragement   d. an advance

(21) The labour leaders were accused of being too obstinate about their demands.

    a. fearless   b. rigid   c. bold   d. brave

(22) The Law Enforcement Agents were amazed to see bullets concealed in loaves of bread.

    a. hidden   b. packaged   c. stacked   d. stored.

(23) They have tried to circumvent the restriction on the importation of scarce commodities.

    a. bypass   b. confront   c. challenge   d. oppose

(24) Constant industrial unrest can undermine the effectiveness of government's economic policy.

    a. weaken   b. worsen   c. strengthen   d. hasten

(25) Though there is no riot on the campus, the students are restive.

    a. restless   b. busy   c. quiet   d. chaotic.

(26) The Attorney General was accused of obstructing justice.

    a. interrupting   b. hindering   c. stopping   d. retarding

(27) The Dean insisted that I show her my credentials before I could be registered.

    a. qualifications   b. papers   c. identity   d. statements

(28) Segun Bucknor plays the piano with great dexterity.

    a. force   b. skill   c. pride   d. wisdom

(29) The teachers are discontented with his comments.

    a. dissatisfied   b. disinfected   c. dislocated   d. discouraged

(30) Using the child's mother tongue as the medium of instruction was supported by____.
    a. parents   b. the senate   c. the NPE   d. the judiciary

(31) The yardstick for measuring the effectiveness of teaching and learning English is____.
    a. learner's competence   b. teacher's quality   c. teacher's preparedness   d. teaching aids

(32) All these except____are the psychological factors militating against effective teaching and learning of English.
    a. environment   b. motivation   c. pupil's ability   d. pupil's attitude

(33) All the following are to be blamed for ineffectiveness of teaching and learning of English except one.
    a. government   b. parents   c. teachers   d. internet

(34) All The following are the sociological factors affecting the teaching and learning of English except one____.
    a. multilingualism   b. class size   c. parental background   d. teachers' quality

(35) The ideal class size should be____.
    a. 50-60   b. 30-50   c. 20-40   d. 1-20

(36) The status of English language in the curriculum is____.
    a. elective   b. optional   c. core   d. voluntary

(37) The time allocated to English is____.
    a. not adequate   b. adequate   c. very adequate   d. not adequately utilized.

(38) One of the problems a pupil learning English in our society faced is____.
    a. calculation   b. generalization   c. substitution   d. discrimination

(39) Exposure is one of the problems facing____.
    a. the learners   b. the textbooks   c. the government   d. the learning materials

i.   What are the general roles of English language in Nigeria?

ii.   Why do we need the teaching of English language in Nigerian schools?

iii.   Mention various problems militating against effective teaching of English in Oyo State schools?

iv.   How can those identified problems be solved.

From the words lettered a to e, choose the word that has the same sound as the one represented by letters underlined.

(40) W<u>or</u>k a. port   b. talk   c. nurse   d. lock   e. card

(41) Cr<u>ew</u> a. sew   b. who   c. pull   d. knew   e. cool

(42) fl<u>oa</u>t a. oven   b. hoard   c. who   d. poll   e. hop

(43) ba<u>ng</u> a. sand   b. singe   c. hung   d. bug   e. hug

(44) <u>Th</u>ese a. clothe   b. worth   c. thank   d. path   e. thin

(45) vi<u>si</u>on a. attention   b. repression   c. intention   d. illusion   e. communication

In the following options lettered a to e, all the words except one have the same stress pattern. Identify the one stressed with the different stress pattern.

(46) a. despite   b. petrol   c. vomit   d. wardrobe   e. teacher

(47) a. component   b. importance   c. distribute   d. revenue   e. delicate

(48) a. benefit   b. deposit   c. difficult   d. prevalent   e. parochial

(49) a. schedule   b. country   c. finance   d. fountain   e. curtail

From the words or group of words labeled a to d choose the one that best completes each of the following sentences.

(50) This is an improvement____your last essay.
    a. on   b. with   c. by   d. for

(51) The team has suffered defeat____defeat.
    a. by   b. with   c. over   d. after

(52) The pencil you____gave me yesterday is lost.
    a. whose   b. whom   c. that   d. who

(53) I'd give up smoking if I____you.
    a. am   b. were   c. was   d. are

(54) It is high time you____visiting that friend of yours.
    a. should stop   b. stopped   c. stop   d. must stop

(55) That uncle of____to see you through this.
    a. yours   b. yours   c. your's   d. yours'

(56) The government has a special programme for_____.

    a. the poor   b. the poors   c. poor   d. poors

(57) It was he who said he didn't fear death_____?

    a. didn't he   b. wasn't he   c. was he   d. does he

(58) _____university is_____institution of higher learning.

    a. an… an   b. an…a   c. a… a   d. a…an

(59) _____had he entered when it started to rain.

    a. hardly   b. nearly   c. almost   d. fairly

(60) _____is an example of possessive nouns.

    a. The chairmans' b. The chairman's   c. The chairmans   d. The chair's man

Sample answer sheet

Name in full: …………………………………………………….

Name of school: …………………………………………………

Class taught: …………………………………………………….

L.G.A. area: …………………………………………………..

Sex: Female (   ) Male (   )

Instruction: Shade your answers in the appropriate boxes

1. {A} {B}{C} {D} {E}	35. {A} {B}{C} {D} {E}	69. {A} {B}{C} {D} {E}
2. {A} {B}{C} {D} {E}	36. {A} {B}{C} {D} {E}	70. {A} {B}{C} {D} {E}
3. {A} {B}{C} {D} {E}	37. {A} {B}{C} {D} {E}	71. {A} {B}{C} {D} {E}
4. {A} {B}{C} {D} {E}	38. {A} {B}{C} {D} {E}	72. {A} {B}{C} {D} {E}
5. {A} {B}{C} {D} {E}	39. {A} {B}{C} {D} {E}	73. {A} {B}{C} {D} {E}
6. {A} {B}{C} {D} {E}	40.{A} {B}{C} {D} {E}	74. {A} {B}{C} {D} {E}
7. {A} {B}{C} {D} {E}	41. {A} {B}{C} {D} {E}	75. {A} {B}{C} {D} {E}
8. {A} {B}{C} {D} {E}	42. {A} {B}{C} {D} {E}	76. {A} {B}{C} {D} {E}
9. {A} {B}{C} {D} {E}	43. {A} {B}{C} {D} {E}	77. {A} {B}{C} {D} {E}
10.{A} {B}{C} {D} {E}	44. {A} {B}{C} {D} {E}	78. {A} {B}{C} {D} {E}
11.{A} {B}{C} {D} {E}	45. {A} {B}{C} {D} {E}	79. {A} {B}{C} {D} {E}
12.{A} {B}{C} {D} {E}	46. {A} {B}{C} {D} {E}	80. {A} {B}{C} {D} {E}
13.{A} {B}{C} {D} {E}	47. {A} {B}{C} {D} {E}	81. {A} {B}{C} {D} {E}
14.{A} {B}{C} {D} {E}	48.{A} {B}{C} {D} {E}	82. {A} {B}{C} {D} {E}
15.{A} {B}{C} {D} {E}	49. {A} {B}{C} {D} {E}	83. {A} {B}{C} {D} {E}
16.{A} {B}{C} {D} {E}	50. {A} {B}{C} {D} {E}	84. {A} {B}{C} {D} {E}
17.{A} {B}{C} {D} {E}	51. {A} {B}{C} {D} {E}	85. {A} {B}{C} {D} {E}
18. {A} {B}{C} {D} {E}	52. {A} {B}{C} {D} {E}	86. {A} {B}{C} {D} {E}
19. {A} {B}{C} {D} {E}	53. {A} {B}{C} {D} {E}	87. {A} {B}{C} {D} {E}
20. {A} {B}{C} {D} {E}	54. {A} {B}{C} {D} {E}	88. {A} {B}{C} {D} {E}
21. {A} {B}{C} {D} {E}	55. {A} {B}{C} {D} {E}	89. {A} {B}{C} {D} {E}
22. {A} {B}{C} {D} {E}	56. {A} {B}{C} {D} {E}	90. {A} {B}{C} {D} {E}
23. {A} {B}{C} {D} {E}	57. {A} {B}{C} {D} {E}	91. {A} {B}{C} {D} {E}
24. {A} {B}{C} {D} {E}	58. {A} {B}{C} {D} {E}	92. {A} {B}{C} {D} {E}
25. {A} {B}{C} {D} {E}	59. {A} {B}{C} {D} {E}	93. {A} {B}{C} {D} {E}
26. {A} {B}{C} {D} {E}	60. {A} {B}{C} {D} {E}	94. {A} {B}{C} {D} {E}
27. {A} {B}{C} {D} {E}	61. {A} {B}{C} {D} {E}	95. {A} {B}{C} {D} {E}
28. {A} {B}{C} {D} {E}	62. {A} {B}{C} {D} {E}	96. {A} {B}{C} {D} {E}
29. {A} {B}{C} {D} {E}	63. {A} {B}{C} {D} {E}	97. {A} {B}{C} {D} {E}
30. {A} {B}{C} {D} {E}	64. {A} {B}{C} {D} {E}	98. {A} {B}{C} {D} {E}
31. {A} {B}{C} {D} {E}	65. {A} {B}{C} {D} {E}	99. {A} {B}{C} {D} {E}
32. {A} {B}{C} {D} {E}	66. {A} {B}{C} {D} {E}	100. {A} {B}{C} {D} {E}
33. {A} {B}{C} {D} {E}	67. {A} {B}{C} {D} {E}	
34. {A} {B}{C} {D} {E}	68. {A} {B}{C} {D} {E}	

On Teachers' Language in the TEFL Class Regarding Students' Motivation

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In the TEFL (Teaching English as a Foreign Language) class, teachers' language is of great significance, because its proper use may help achieve fine teaching results with the students' motivation greatly stimulated. This paper analyzes some major defects of teachers' class talk and tentatively offers suggestions for improvement.

Keywords: TEFL class, teachers' language, students' motivation

Aiming at successful teaching results in the TEFL class, both teachers and students should make their own contributions. For teachers' part, carefully-designed teaching plan, well-organized in-class activities, and properly-applied teaching methods are commonly accepted as important factors. While language is the first and main medium for all of these, teachers' language deserve great emphasis as far as students' motivation is concerned. Despite continuous progress made over past decades in China concerning classroom teaching, there still exist some major defects in college English teachers' class talk.

Defects of Teachers' Language in TEFL Class

Ineffective Questioning

Questioning, one of the most commonly applied teaching techniques, constitutes an important aspect of class talk. Gall (as cited in YAN, 2002, p. 13) observed that over half of the class time is taken up with question-and-answer exchanges. White and Lightbown even recorded that a single TEFL teacher applied himself/herself to 427 questions in a 50-minute class (as cited in YAN, 2002, p. 13). However, defects in teachers' questioning tend to undermine the outcome of teaching.

Poorly-designed questions. Long and Sato drew a clear distinction between two major categories of teachers' questions: display and referential questions (as cited in WANG et al., 2001, p. 43). Display questions are those to which the asker knows the answers (e.g., "Are you a student?"). Referential questions are those with open answers (e.g., "What do you enjoy doing in your spare time?"). In many cases, display questions are more often delivered to ensure a uniform reply and a smooth pace in class. Some instructors carry them to the extreme by asking only "yes" or "no" questions, which are unable to trigger creative thinking, and soon wane the learners' enthusiasm.

Another problem lies in the difficulty degree of the questions. The questions are either too frustrating or too easy. The former may lead to silence even from the most daring students since they do not know what to say. For instance, "What do you think should be the essence of American culture?" may be too broad and difficult for college freshmen. Simplistic questions, such as "What is the capital of the USA?", on the other

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hand, insult the intelligence of the students who again may well prefer reticence.

Inadequacies in dealing with various student groups. Some teachers limit their nomination to those few active students, because they find them responsive and thus easier to cope with. In contrast, these teachers consider it a sheer waste of class time to wait for answers from those more introvert students. As a result, the class progresses only with the participation of a small number of students, and with the majority out of the game. It squanders class dynamics and the listeners' morale, which often proves hard to recover.

More problems arise when it comes to addressing those lesser achievers. To encourage more involvement, some teachers, without good reasons, address relatively simple questions to those less capable students. However, many teachers lack the ability of adjusting specific occasions. We once observed a scene in an intensive reading class for sophomores, where the teacher was lecturing on the text of Unit 7, Book 2, *College English*:

> Teacher: "WANG, which do you think is the topic sentence of this huge paragraph?"
> WANG: "The second sentence, I suppose".
> Instead of asking Wang to read the sentence, the teacher suddenly realizes that it is a good chance for a less capable student, LIU.
> Teacher: "LIU, would you read the topic sentence?"
> LIU: "… Sorry…" (even with nudge from his classmates).
> LIU refused to cooperate. He later told us that he felt humiliated by the teacher's questioning sequence. "Why did she ask me a question that WANG needn't answer?", he said.

Therefore, poor questioning sequence depresses weaker student rather than encourage them. On the other hand, weaker students are sometimes pressed by teachers' question shots. When pushed for answers, these students are likely to feel embarrassed and frustrated. This hurts their confidence as well.

Improper timing. Some well-designed questions may also meet with suspenseful silence, attributable to improper timing. Some teachers are inclined to deliver questions prematurely, e.g., a discussion on the writer's attitude in a text at the pre-reading stage. In this case, little response can be expected from the students since they have no idea about what to say.

The problem of timing also occurs during the process of real time question-and-answer. Some teachers often allow a short wait-time (the amount of time a teacher allows his/her students for shaping an answer). They frequently cut in and push for a quick answer, which curtails novel and valuable ideas and even students' initiative.

Ineffective follow-up remarks. Poor follow-up remarks fail to evoke more speech from the students. Some teachers' evaluative comments invariably consist of a simple "Good" or "Right". There is nothing wrong with these two words, but when they have become automatic, they sound meaninglessly perfunctory and insincere. Therefore, disappointed students naturally plunge into silence again, because they have not earned a true confirmation from the teachers.

Little Teacher-Student Interaction

Teacher-student interaction can help students practice and develop their language skills gradually. However, there is a shortage of interactive communication between the teacher and the students in many TEFL classes.

Dull atmosphere. Many TEFL classes are largely devoted to the teaching of grammar, and teachers often employ a seriously grim-faced style in class. In such dullness, students, feeling not relaxed or free enough to speak, are passive (and often inefficient) recipients rather than active participants.

Too much speech by teachers with little variation. Many teachers tend to plunge into a protracted monologue in class. The students' enthusiasm to speak is often curbed by the teacher's tendency to lecture

more. Some fluent teachers, in particular, are not aware that their fluid speech may also silence the listeners. Besides, these teachers talk with little lexical variety. Take greetings as an example, almost all teachers use "Good morning" or "Good afternoon", but very few say other typical greetings like "Hello" or "Hi", "Nice day, isn't it?" (CAI, 2003, p. 64). When a teacher steps into the classroom every morning with the same greetings, the students respond automatically with a surprisingly unanimous answer, "Fine, thank you. And you?". This way the teacher fails to create a favorable learning atmosphere with dynamic expressions.

Other widely-used set-phrases in class include "Class begins", "Turn to page 77", "What is the meaning of this word?", "Listen carefully" and "Class is over". Again, there is nothing wrong with these phrases. But when they are used times and again, their liveliness dies. Why not try other expressions with similar meanings, e.g., "Now class, do you think it's time to start?", "How do you understand this word in this particular context?", "Well, stopping being sleeping beauties in class" and "Well, very good. I'd like to call it a day, and until next week, goodbye".

Inadequacies in Teachers' Paralanguage

Teachers' paralanguage is another significant component of classroom teaching. However, many teachers neglect the influence by their pitch, stress and tone in class.

The teacher's volume may be either too high or too low. Some like to blast from the beginning to the end, audible even miles away. By contrast, some seem to be whispering in class. Either case encourages the students go absent-minded.

Defects in speaking tempo are another factor. Some fluent teachers are always machine-gunning so that certain key points are likely to misfire and slip away. The audience may give up halfway after they have tried in vain to follow. On the other hand, stretched-out sounds allow more doze-off students. Likewise, an even stress in speaking encourages sleep.

Not enough attention has been paid to the tone of the teachers' class talk either. Some teachers' tone is too monotonous or too Chinese-like, despite their correct pronunciation of individual words. A dull cadence persisting, the students lose the opportunity to enjoy the musical fascination of another language, and therefore, their interest and desire vanish.

Overflowing Pet Phrases

Pet phrases are sometimes overused in class. Largely attributed to their inadequate language proficiency as well as negligence or habit, some teachers apply pet phrases too often. The hottest phrases include "you know", "so", "yes?", "OK", "and something like that" and "well". Take "you know" first, some teachers use it so frequently that they start almost every sentence with a "you know". The teacher may not be aware of it while this sounds boring to the students. The overflowing of "so" is another problem and here "so" is merely a habit and indicates no cause and effect. When a teacher overuses pet phrases, students are more likely not only to feel bored, but may even suffer from logical misunderstandings.

Improving Students' Motivation by Proper Teaching Language

Proper class talk helps stimulate students' motivation in foreign language learning. Motivation in TEFL learning chiefly refers to long-term stable attitudes in the students' minds, particularly integrative and instrumental motivations (Cook, 2001, p. 115). Students learn the foreign language for successful exams, a possible future good job, chances to study abroad or competence in translation or interpretation propelled by the instrumental motivation. Some other learners who wish to integrate themselves into the culture of the

foreign language group, and to identify themselves with and become a part of that society are prompted by integrative motivation.

Such different motivations require teachers to deal with students as individuals rather than a homogeneous group.

Proper Teaching Language and a Favorable Foreign Language Acquisition Environment

A good relationship between teachers and students is important in reducing students' inhibition and negative anxiety in learning, which at the same time improve students' confidence.

Brown (2001) claimed that "all human beings, in their understanding of themselves, build sets of defenses to protect the ego" (p. 138). It is an undeniable fact that many introvert Chinese students are inclined to keep passively silent in the classroom compared with active American students. They are easily to set up defensive inhibition to protect their ego and to ward off feelings that threat their self-esteems. In question answering, for example, mistakes are common, but different feedbacks that teachers give will derive different consequences.

In the first situation, after the students make mistakes, the teacher pull a long face and say with a furious voice, "Absolutely wrong! How can you answer it like that? Let's see how others do it". Such feedback will threat students' ego, and it poses both internal and external threats to the wrong-doing students.

> Internally, one's critical self and one's performing self can be in conflict; the learner performs something wrong and becomes critical of his or her own mistake. Externally, the learner perceives others exercising their critical selves, even judging his very person when he or she blunders in a second language. (Brown, 2001, p. 140)

This kind of experience incurs defensive inhibition for students in learning and they may become very nervous to be asked next time.

In another situation, the teacher acts kindly and amiably saying "Good, your answer is a good try, but we may give… some consideration". By doing so, teachers give an impression that answering questions is a kind of rewarding adventure (intangibly), and students are encouraged to be more active in thinking, which helps motivate them in learning. Krashen, the psychologist, pointed out that performers with self-confidence and a good self-image tend to do better in second language acquisition and low anxiety appears to be conducive to second language acquisition, whether measured as personal or classroom anxiety (as cited in HU, 2003, p. 36).

Therefore, in order to reduce anxiety and enhance confidence in learning, teachers should not talk as a dictator. Instead of distancing themselves off students as a superior, they should show care to students' feelings, while delivering information.

Proper Teaching Language and Students' Interests in Learning

Cook (2001) said that,

> In an ideal teachers' world, students would enter the classroom admiring the target culture and language, wanting to get something out of the second language learning for themselves, eager to experience the benefits of bilingualism and thirsting for knowledge. (p. 118)

The process of creating learning interests which can spur high motivation can be under the teachers' control on their use of languages. Besides, interests and motivation are mutually affected. Students with great interests can be very motivated; students with high motivation can also develop great interests in learning.

To sum up, in order to improve students' motivation in learning the foreign language, teachers should first show their awareness on students' different motivations by adapting their teaching of language. Secondly, language is the primary means of empathizing, so proper teaching language helps to establish good relationship among them as well as to create a kind of favorable atmosphere. Such learning environment is conducive to

reducing inhibition and anxiety while building up confidence and interest in foreign language acquisition.

Improvement of Teachers' Language

Proper teaching language exerts a positive effect on learners' output, therefore the following methods are suggested: using plain expressions, using previously introduced words and expressions, asking proper questions, providing adequate feedback and carefully applying stress and intonation.

Use of Plain Expressions

Teachers' talk in TEFL class is an important language resource for students to imitate and absorb. Thus, the quality of the class talk itself influences the students' output. For this reason, TEFL teachers should pay close attention to their own utterances, namely, the proper choice of words and expressions.

Some teachers like to use the expression "in the midst of", but in classroom settings, this is far too formal. For another example, "How do you do" is less often used in English speaking countries except in formal situations, too. Another case is in Business English teaching, where phrases like "we are in receipt of", "attached please find" should be sparingly used in speaking because they are often considered pompous, obsolete and wordy. Instead, plain English, like "we have received", "enclosed is" is preferred (Thill & Bovée, 2002, p. 112).

Use of Previously Introduced Expressions

Foreign language learning is consolidated by frequent and even daily use of the words and expressions in real communication. Yet, learners often make special efforts to memorize words that they seldom use, so review should be a regular part in language teaching: teachers need to consider carefully how to reactivate and continue to work on previously introduced words and expressions as well as introduce the new ones.

Usually, textbooks provide exercises for review, and most TEFL teachers also design various activities for the same purpose. In addition to those specially designed exercises and activities, it is reasonable and effective for TEFL teachers to deliberately and properly apply those words and expressions in their own language. By doing so, students can be repeatedly exposed to those previously taught language items and also be motivated to practice them with consciousness, which helps students to incorporate what they have learned into a growing repertoire of the target language.

Take an English class the author once gave as an example. The lesson is about Text A, Unit 1, Book 3 in *21 Century College English*. In the previous class, students have learned the italicized words in the following sentences: (1) A common *misconception* among youngsters attending school is that... (2) Who else but a bookworm, with none of the normal kid's tendency to play rather than study, would grow up to be a teacher anyway? (3) The image they have of me as *an enthusiastic devotee* of books and homework during my adolescence was a bit *out of focus* (YANG, 2001, p. 2).

In the next class, the author asked students questions like "What do you think is a common misconception toward education/parent-children relationship/part-time job?", "What kind of people would you like to grow up to?", "Do you think you are an enthusiastic devotee of books?", "Do you think western's description of China is a bit out of focus?". These question-answer interactions may well remind them of what they have learned.

Later, the author elicited the text by saying,

> The author from the very beginning points out the misconception among youngsters. The fact is that, at his sophomore year, he met a girl named Debbie. He always gazes at her lovely face. He understands Debbie is the top student in his class so that he wants to arouse her attention by showing off his knowledge. This is his first bite on knowledge. Later, he falls in love with reading. Unfortunately, what he fails to perceive is that Debbie all this while is going steady with a

junior from a neighboring school—a basketball player with a C+ average.

The key words appear on and on, so that the students are frequently exposed to this language input.

Proper Questions

As mentioned above, display questions elicit specific responses, while referential questions seek information. Therefore, English teachers should not always ask simplistic general questions. On the other hand, if teachers always ask general questions bearing certain difficulty, students will not bother to think it over and they just answer it with a "yes" or a "no". In a word, general questions do not provide enough incentives for students to think and participate.

Teachers can increase the number of referential questions in that referential questions require longer responses, and students' language becomes complicated in terms of vocabulary and grammatical structures. In addition, responses to referential questions vary from one student to another. So interaction between students and teachers is enhanced, which will arouse students' interest in learning.

Even if teachers can use various types of questions in class, students' attention might stray away from the teacher occasionally. If some students fail to hear the question, teachers may simply repeat it. But if students have some difficulties in understanding the question, teachers should either rephrase it or provide them with clues. That will help them to maximize their comprehensible output. If one student fails to provide the desired answer, the teacher may redirect the same question to another student, e.g., "Can anybody help Mary to answer this question?" or "Brad, what do you think about this?".

However, if redirecting the same question to the second student is not conducted properly, it may humiliate the first student. This requires teachers to provide proper feedback to the first student. For example, if the teacher says, "What kind of English are you speaking, I can't even understand you. Let's hear what Brad will say"; "You are wrong. You should work hard after class. Brad may provide a correct answer" or something like "How can you be so naive to think this way. Now what do you think, Brad?". This way, the first student may never want to come to this teacher's class again. If the teacher instead redirects the question tactically by remarking "You have your good reasons for saying so, but with a second thought you may have a different idea. How about hearing others' voice first?". Now the student will not find humiliating shade in the comment.

Adequate Feedback

Giving feedback is one of the most important responsibilities of a teacher and can be classified as positive and negative feedback. Positive feedback is more effective than negative feedback in making students aware of their own success and progress, which is a crucial factor in learning process. Negative criticism (oral) and punishment for wrong answers make students lose confidence; dull teachers who do not encourage creativity or who are inactive cannot be heard clearly (SONG & PAN, 2000, p. 53). Positive feedback encourages and stimulates students. Even if the student's answer is not complete or satisfactory, the teacher should correct it after an appreciation is given, e. g., "I appreciate your first part of the answer, but…".

Positive feedback will not serve the purpose if it is not given promptly or not specific. Teachers should take account of students' individual differences to make the feedback specific and personal (DI, 2000, p. 346). General positive feedback is not as effective as specific ones. For example, if the teacher says, "Your pronunciation has improved a lot during this semester, you pronounce the sound /æ/ quite well now, congratulations" or " You are so creative, your idea is fantastic", it shows to the student that "my teacher has noticed me and my effort", and it helps solve the individual student's problems.

Application of Stress and Intonation in Teachers' Language

Teachers' pronunciation, intonation and stress in class have a crucial impact on class outcome. Intonation is presented as a system, which has an important communicative function in spoken interaction in class. Intonation indicates the teachers' mood, feelings or attitudes towards their subject or students in class. Intonation also conveys pragmatic information in marking whether a part of speech is new or given information, and in singling out important words in an utterance. In class, a teacher had better be aware of the communicative value of intonation and stress within sentences.

Take "repeat it" as an example, some teachers love to use it; several ways of expression are observed.

"Repeat it", loud, forceful and high pitched with obvious anger. Students may be intimidated and keep silent ever since. In this case, students can hardly be motivated.

"Repeat it", mild and absent-minded. Students may have kind of "you-don't-care-about-me" chagrin to the teacher. In this case, students can hardly concentrate in class.

"Repeat it, please", mild and serious looking, students will concentrate on one's class and try to cooperate with him/her.

Word stress and sentence stress are golden keys for speaking and understanding English. With sentence stress, some words in a sentence are stressed (loud) and other words are weak (quiet), which can help teachers emphasize something important and call the attention of the students.

Accurate and proper intonation and stress of class expression give students more opportunity to appreciate and enjoy the beauty of the language. Generally speaking, students intentionally or unconsciously imitate their teachers' intonation or stress. Therefore, teachers' accurate and proper intonation and stress can better help students grasp the intonation and stress of English. With improved pronunciation, students' confidence is built up, which further enhances their motivation in learning the foreign language.

Conclusions

Foreign language teaching in China is not an easy job. Students are getting more and more self-centered and teachers are facing an ever more challenging task. On the one hand, teachers have to exam students' motivation carefully and scheme the proper way to motivate them. On the other hand, teachers should avoid out-of-date expressions，apply previously introduced words and expressions repeatedly, ask proper questions, provide adequate feedback, carefully apply stress and intonation, and promote empathy between teachers and students. In this case, teachers and students may well interact in class, so that good teaching and learning results will be achieved.

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