

朝陽人文社會學刊

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Chaoyang University of Technology



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Do We Need English? National English Proficiency and the Economic Value of a Language

Chingpu Chiao

Department of Applied Foreign Languages
National Yunlin University of Science and Technology

Chen Chun-Hsu*

Department of Applied Foreign Languages
National Yunlin University of Science and Technology

Abstract

This study provides an economic rationale to explain National English proficiency. The researchers posit that the economic value of a language influences its users' motivation to learn English. National English proficiency is therefore predicted to be negatively related to the economic value of its official language. The researchers use two indexes to measure the economic value of a language: the GDPs of the countries that use the language as their official language, and the population of the language. The results show that English proficiency, measured by the global ranking of English proficiency, is indeed negatively related to the two indexes above. The findings suggest that if a language is economically strong, because its users can sustain a satisfactory life with their own language, the benefits of learning English may not justify their costs of learning it. Therefore, it is not economically efficient for a country trying to universally raise its people's English proficiency. It would be more efficient if policy makers can leverage market power to motivate selective people and provide them with more resources to improve their English.

Keywords: language leaning, economic value of a language, utility theory, economics, English proficiency

*Corresponding author

我們真的需要英文嗎？

國家整體英文能力表現和語言的經濟價值

焦錦濮

國立雲林科技大學應用外語系

陳俊旭*

國立雲林科技大學應用外語系

摘要

本研究以經濟學的觀點來論述一個國家在英文能力上的整體表現，我們認為一個語言所附帶的經濟價值會影響此語言使用者的英語學習動機。所以，一國人民的整體英文程度和他們官方語言所隱含的經濟價值應該是負相關的。我們使用兩項指標來衡量語言的經濟價值：使用此語言國家的國內生產毛額和該語言的全球使用人數。本研究結果顯示，這兩項指標的確與世界各國英語程度排名是負相關的。這證明了當一個語言的經濟價值是高的話，該語言的母語人士就可依賴此語言獲得相對滿意的生活（根據顯示偏好原理），對這些人而言，學習英文就不是件那麼值得投資的事情。因此，把金錢、心力放在提升整體國人英文能力的做法並不符合經濟效益。未來如何運用國家有限的資源來幫助真正需要優良英文能力的國民才是政策制定者和教育家應該審慎思考的。

關鍵字：語言學習、語言的經濟價值、效用理論、經濟學、英語能力

*通訊作者

INTRODUCTION

Ever since the end of the World War II, English, the official language of the most powerful country—the USA—in the world, has become one of the most important tools when conducting business globally. Consequently, improving the overall English proficiency of its citizens has also become an important educational agenda for every non-English speaking country. Policymakers of these countries have been trying to design the most effective approaches and curriculums to raise the overall English proficiency of its citizens. Many possible methods have been proposed to explain how to increase a person's English abilities. Most of them are based on pedagogical, cultural, historical or linguistic perspectives (e.g., Lado, 1957; Stern, 1983; Ellis, 199; Connor, 1996). Despite the plethora of studies on this topic, the results have been inclusive in explaining the differences of English proficiency between and among countries. This calls for a new perspective to explore the possible rationale behind the discrepancies.

Economics has long been employed to explain the incentives of human behaviors; after all, we refer to ourselves as “economic animals.” As Frank (2008) specifies, “Economics explains almost everything”, economic theories should also be able to explain English learning behaviors. However, there seem to be no empirical studies treating economic forces as the drive to English learning. Therefore, in this study, the researchers aim to use economic rationale to explain why people learn English and further predict national English proficiency.

The utility theory of economics indicates that every good or service has a utility assigned to it by an economic agent. Utility is a measure devised by economists to represent the value of a good, service or activity (Mankiw, 2014). According to economics, an agent makes decisions based on the utility attached to the action. By the same token, according to utility theory, every language is supposed to have a utility perceived by an agent. If the utility or economic value of mastering a language, perceived the agent, exceeds the opportunity cost to learn it, the agent will be motivated to gain it and vice versa.

Hence, the first purpose of this study is to explore possible indexes to measure language value. Secondly, the study is also aimed to investigate if this economic value will influence English proficiencies of different countries. In other words, this research is conducted to answer the following questions: (1), Is there an economic value attached to a language? , and (2), if yes, what is its relationship with a nation's English proficiency?

With the answers to the questions, policymakers will be able to allocate national budgets on language education more efficiently. Academic researchers from linguistics and economics will both benefit from the results since this paper may open a new portal for both academic schools, linguistics and economics, to expand their existing research into another territory.

THEORY AND HYPOTHESES

In this paper, the researchers aim to employ basic economic theories and principles to explain the differences of national English proficiency between countries. To present our arguments, we will use economics of language, utility theory, cost and benefit analysis, opportunity cost, the theory of revealed preference, and the fundamental law of supply and demand.

Economics of Language

Economics of language is considered a new research field examining the relationship between language proficiency and many other economic or social-economics factors (Gazzola, 2014). Various models and methodology were proposed applying economic principles to explore various determiners of language proficiency. A major portion of this line investigates the relationship between language proficiency and social and economic status (e.g., Chiswick, 2009; Peirce, 1995). Grin (1994) urges economic researchers with interdisciplinary backgrounds should be involved more in this research in order to benefit policy making for language related issues.

Utility Theory

Utility theory was first proposed by Bentham in 1789 (Bentham, 1996). Utility refers to the degree of "usefulness" that a person gains from consuming a product or service. In this study, the researchers treat language as economic goods to which utilities are tied. For example, an individual may perceive Chinese has greater "usefulness" than does English. Therefore, Chinese has more utility than English for this particular individual.

Cost Benefit Analysis and Opportunity Cost

When making decisions, economic actors usually go through a series of cost-benefit analysis consciously or otherwise. The analysis is a process of evaluating the gains and loss of an action (Boardman & Boardman, 2008). This is known as cost-benefit analysis. The cost and benefit may not refer to monetary goods only; they are, in fact, mostly measured by utilities. Consider our daily decisions. Making decisions usually involve the

mental processes that evaluate utility generated from an action. The utility is gained by losing that of the next best possible choice. This is the concept of opportunity cost (Wieser, 1914). Learning English has its own opportunity costs. The time and resources put into the learning may be used in other activities.

Revealed Preference

Samuelson (1938) indicated that the preference of an individual should not be judged by his words but by his action because the choice made by the individual revealed his/her true preference.

Market and the Law of Supply and Demand

Market is a group of buyers and sellers of a product or service (Mankiw, 2014). The law of supply and demand describes that interaction of supply and demand in a particular market. The general concept is if the supply has increased in a market, with other things remaining the same, the price will drop and, in contrast, if the demand has increased, the price will rise.

Combining previous theories, the researchers argue that a language is also a kind of economic goods that has inherent utility perceived by its different consumers. When learning English, an individual will conduct cost-benefit analysis evaluating the utility gained by learning English and the resources needed to invest in. If the perceived utility of better English proficiency cannot justify the costs to reach it, an individual will prefer to be engaged in other activities.

Language Population and English Proficiency

In a country with large language population, the markets for most products or services will also be large according to the definition of market. The language users will find it easy to participate in most markets without English. In other words, even without good English proficiency, they can still find a trade that sustains them. In other words, the perceived utility of better English proficiency is lower than the effort invested by an individual to reach it. Therefore, this individual will lose his motivation to learn the language. Hence, the researchers reach their first hypothesis.

H1: The population of a language is negatively related to English proficiency.

GDP and English Proficiency

Gross Domestic Product is defined by Organization for Economic Co-operation and

Development (OECD) as “an aggregate measure of production equal to the sum of the gross values added of all resident institutional units engaged in production (plus any taxes, and minus any subsidies, on products not included in the value of their outputs).” It has been frequently used as an index to measure the overall monetary value of a nation that has produced in one year (Boyce, Torsheim, Currie & Zambon, 2006). As discussed in the previous section, if an individual can live a satisfactory life domestically, the incentive to learn will diminish. Therefore, the bigger the domestic economy, the worse the national English proficiency is. Hence, the researchers reach their second hypothesis.

H2: The GDP of a language is negatively related to English proficiency.

Research Method

This study aimed to find out the relationship between anon-English-speaking country’s English proficiency and the economic value of its official language. Based on previous literature and economic reasoning, it was predicted that anon-English-speaking country’s English proficiency was negatively related to the economic value of its official language—the higher the economic value of anon-English-speaking country’s official language, the lower its English proficiency and vice versa. In order to examine the relationship between them, EF English Proficiency Index 2015 (EF EPI 2015) was used as the index for a non-English-speaking country’s English proficiency; Gross domestic product 2015 (GDP 2015) and language population 2007 were used to measure the economic value of a non-English-speaking country’s official language in this research. Then, the data was analyzed via correlation to figure out how the relationship between them was.

Samples

There were 70 nations on the list of EF English Proficiency Index 2015. In order to be fair and convincing, English-speaking nations and nations whose official language was English were excluded from the study. Singapore was the only one of the nations on the list whose official language was English. Therefore, the researchers deleted Singapore from the list, and the 69 non-English-speaking nations left on the list were the samples for the study.

Data Collection

In order to examine the relationship between anon-English-speaking country’s English proficiency and the economic value of its official language, there were three main

indexes for the research: EF English Proficiency Index 2015, Gross domestic product 2015, and language population 2007.

EF English Proficiency Index 2015 (EF EPI 2015)

EF Education First (EF), world's largest educational organization, has yearly announced "The World's Largest Ranking of Countries by English Skills" since 2011. It is also called EF English Proficiency Index. EF reported the ranking of seventy surveyed countries' English proficiency in 2015 from No.1(most proficient) to No.70(least proficient), which also meant this was a reverse index: the higher the index, the worse the proficiency. Therefore, EF EPI 2015 was used as the proxy for a country's English proficiency in this study. However, the researchers excluded Singapore from the study, so there were 69 countries left to be the samples for the study, and the reason was already explained before.

Gross Domestic Product 2015 (GDP 2015)

GDP is generally considered an indicator of a nation's economic health and an indicator of a nation's standard of living—the higher a country's GDP is, the richer the country is believed to be, and vice versa. Therefore, GDP was used as an indicator for the economic value of a country's official language in this study. The data of the countries' GDPs in 2015 were collected from the International Monetary Fund (IMF), which is the most prestigious economic organization consisting of 189 countries.

Language Population 2007

Language population means the number of native speakers of a language. In the researchers' opinion, if a language is used by a lot of people in the world, the language will naturally be used more whether in business or in many other fields. That also implies that the bigger the population of a language, the higher the language's economic value, and vice versa. Therefore, language population was used as the other indicator for the economic value of a country's official language in this study. The data of the language population was extracted from online sources including Wikipedia and official websites of sample countries. In Wikipedia, a table contained the top 100 languages based on the estimated number of native speakers in the 2007 edition of Nationalencyklopedin (NE), a comprehensive contemporary Swedish-language encyclopedia. The reason why the researchers used its data of 2007 was because it had the most complete data of the seventy sample countries in terms of language population. Moreover, language population and a

nation’s official language usually do not fluctuate wildly. Therefore, the data was still reliable enough for this study.

Data Analysis

EF English Proficiency Index 2015 (a reverse index: the higher the index, the worse the proficiency), Gross domestic product 2015, and language population 2007 were the crucial indexes and variables for the research. Due to the nature of this study, the degree of relationship between these variables was examined based on correlation. Those data were analyzed through the statistical software, Statistical Product and Service Solutions (SPSS), to see if the relationship between EF EPI 2015 and the 69 non-English-speaking nations’ GDPs; and if the relationship between EF EPI 2015 and the population of the 69 non-English-speaking nations’ official languages were both negatively related to each other.

RESULTS

Due to the nature of this research, Pearson correlation analysis was employed to examine the relationship between GDP, speaker population and national English proficiency.

The results showed that there was a positive significant relationship between English proficiency and language population ($r=.30$, $n=317$, $p<0.05$). Therefore, hypothesis 1 was supported.

The researchers took the logarithm of GDP and tested its relationship with English proficiency. The results showed that they were significantly and negatively correlated as shown on Table 1 ($r=-.30$, $n=317$, $p<0.05$). Therefore, hypothesis 2 was not supported.

Table 1: Correlation between GDP, language population, and English proficiency

	Mean	Std.	1	2
1. GDP	5.25	1.69		
2. Population	202.27	215.96	.25	
3. English	35.84	20.29	-.30*	.30*

*Note: N=69, * $p<.05$, population in million

The researchers then used multiple regression analysis to test if GDP and language

population could predict national English proficiency. Both factors were entered into the equation and the model showed significant prediction for national English proficiency ($F(2, 69) = 8.29, p < .01, R^2 = .20, R^2_{Adjusted} = .18$) (See Table 2).

Table 2: Summary of Multiple Regressions for Variables Predicting English Proficiency

MODEL		Unstandardized		Standardized	t	p	F	R
		Coefficients		Coefficients				
		B	SE	Beta				
1	Constant	50.84	7.33		6.93	.00	8.29	.20
	GDP	.41	1.33	.34	-3.08	.00**		
	Population	.40	.01	.34	3.07	.00**		

Note: * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

CONCLUSIONS

Summary and Discussion

The results indicate that the more the native speakers of a language are, the worse of their English proficiencies will be. This is consistent with the researchers' prediction. A large group of native speakers forms a larger market for most products and services. In other words, with larger markets, it will be easier for the language users to find a trade that can sustain them.

In contrast to the researchers' hypothesis, GDP is positively associated with national English proficiency. This result, against to our prediction, may be due to a possible reason. The total GDP of a country is not a good proxy to measure national English proficiency. Because of the increasing tie between GDP and global trade, a large portion of a nation's GDP could be generated by international trade which can only be made possible by better English proficiency of a country's business practitioners. Therefore, it is logical to assume that better national English proficiency may lead to better national GDP. Although the result is against our hypothesis, the logic is, in fact, consistent with our theory. Because of the great underlying economic value of English, a country with better national English proficiency will drive more value from it. In conclusion, the larger economic value of English leads to larger national wealth.

Implication

The findings suggest that if a language is economically strong, because its users can

sustain a satisfactory life with their own language, the benefits of learning English may not justify their costs of learning it. Therefore, it is not economically efficient for a country trying to universally raise its people's English proficiency. Our attempt to borrow theories and concepts from economics should also be noted that economic incentives may serve a good approach to motive people to increase their English.

Suggestions for Future Research

Based on the results of the study, we suggest that, in order to examine the domestic economic effects on national English proficiency, we should exclude the product of foreign trade from GDP. Future researchers interested in this topic should also attempt to use other indexes that may better reflect a nation's English proficiency.

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A study on the use of exchanging diaries in tertiary English writing classes in Taiwan

Sz-Huei Lai*

Department of Applied English
Chaoyang University of Technology

Hsiao-Tung Hsu

Department of Applied English
Chaoyang University of Technology

Chin-Ling Lee

Department of International Business
National Taichung University of Science and Technology

Abstract

Writing is a tool of thinking. It provides learners a means of manifesting their thoughts systematically, critically and deeply (Huang, 2003); it improves their collaborative and interpersonal development (Ede & Lunsford, 1990). Murphy (1994) pointed out that the writing process involves “social interaction”, which happens not only between writers and texts, but also between writers and readers. This study aimed to concentrate on the investigation of writers and readers' interactions. By exchanging diaries, students were set to review, revise, give feedback and share thoughts and experience with their peers. It tried to understand the effectiveness of exchanging diaries on students' English writing performance. The participants of the study were two classes of English major students in a university of technology and it lasted for approximately four months. One class of thirty two students exchanged diaries in pairs while the other class of thirty six students exchanged diaries in groups of six or seven. A combined quantitative and qualitative investigation, including an English writing examination (the TOEIC writing test) for pretest and posttest, a revised Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ) and student interviews, was conducted. Twenty nine learners in total were interviewed. The results showed an improvement of students' English writing performance in both classes. The findings not only analyzed students' perspectives on the use of exchanging diaries, but also provided valuable and helpful suggestions for enhancing students' English writing abilities.

Key words: exchange diaries, peer review, English writing

*Corresponding author

運用英語交換日記在台灣的大學英語寫作課程之研究

賴思惠*

朝陽科技大學應用英語系

許筱彤

朝陽科技大學應用英語系

李金鈴

國立台中科技大學國際貿易經濟系

摘要

寫作是一項思考的工具，它提供一個能讓學習者有系統、具批判性，並且深度地表露自己思想的方式(Huang, 2003)；以及增進學習者在人與人之間合作性的發展(Ede & Lunsford, 1990)。Murphy (1994)指出寫作歷程包含「社會互動」，社會互動不僅發生在寫者與文本之間，並在寫者與讀者之間。

本研究旨在探討寫者與讀者間之互動，藉由交換日記，同儕間著手複審、修改、給予回饋，並分享想法及經驗，進而試圖了解交換日記對學生英語寫作表現上的成效。研究對象為兩班一年級英語主修的科技大學生，研究為期約四個月。一班的 32 位學生進行兩人交換日記，另一班的 36 位學生以每組 6~7 人進行分組的團體交換。這是結合量化和質性的研究，研究方法以英語寫作測驗(多益寫作測驗)作為前測及後測，問卷為修改的學習動機策略量表 (MSLQ)。參與訪談的學生共 29 位。

研究結果顯示交換日記能改善兩班學生的英語寫作表現，該結果不僅分析學生對於交換日記的看法，並且提供改進學生英語寫作能力上助益性的建議。

關鍵詞：交換日記、同儕修改、英語寫作

*通訊作者

INTRODUCTION

Motivation and Background

The social element of writing is a significance factor that writers will be noticed by audience. Murphy (1994) reported that “social interaction” is a crucial element of the writing process. Social interaction occurs in two parts: writers and texts, and writers and writers (real audiences). In order to make learners become real writers, instructors should form room for learners to interact with (Lindemann, 2001). In accordance with Vygotsky (1978), owing to three crucial elements: messages, values and skills learners can absorb and advance language abilities.

Purpose of the study

The aim of this study is to investigate the effects of exchanging diaries on the writing abilities and improvement of students. The participants in this study are first-year English major students in two classes at a technological university in Taiwan who were observed for approximately four months. One class consists of 32 students who were randomly selected to exchange diaries in pairs. The students in the control group exchanged their diaries, gave feedback, and revised their diaries with the same person each week. The second class consists of 36 students who exchanged diaries in groups of six or seven. This experimental group exchanged and revised diaries but with different students every time.

Research questions

The study specifically addresses the following questions:

- (1) Does the experimental group outperform the control group and get more improvement?
- (2) Will the writing performance of the experimental group improves after the implementation of peer feedback?
- (3) What are reflections of students toward peer feedback?

Significance of the study

Firstly, the study attempted to provide valuable and helpful suggestions for enhancing students' English writing abilities. Secondly, this study explores an effective teaching method to help EFL undergraduate students improve their writing skills and cultivate interests in writing. It also believes that Taiwanese learners can improve their critical thinking abilities with the aid of peer feedback.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Writing

The ability of writing skill is essential for EFL learners in Taiwan. Writing teaching perception advances with time. Additionally, the major directions of writing process are often concentrated on by current researchers. Flower and Hayes (1977) claimed that owing to writing process and process approach developing widely in 1980s, planning-writing-reviewing pattern was accepted by L2 and EFL writing instructors. The process approach has grown into central focus in writing class gradually. Chang (2004) revealed that the process approach emphasize on learners' writing contents beyond form and stress on the different writing process beyond the terminal writing product. Teachers focus on improving the writing generalization of learners and their expression and correcting their ideas before writing (Zamel, 1985). Nold (1979) mentioned that the three procedures of writing are: (1) planning, (2) translating, and (3) reviewing.

Peer Review

Mendonça and Johnson (1994) mentioned that the learners have the tendency of positive beginning discussions in the process of peer review and assisted learners to pay more attention to their readers and inspired them to revise their written essay of peers' feedback. The result of the peer review process promotes the learners understanding what they write and get new information in their next reviewing. Moreover, Zamel (1985) found that peer review processes permit the learners to enhance reader awareness and permit them to revise their written essay to fit the needs of their readers. Talking about social effectiveness, Mittan (1989, p.209) mentioned that the learners frequently gain "reactions, questions, and responses from authentic readers during the process of peer revision".

Cooperative learning

In cooperative learning, members of groups assist, encourage, and improve their learning process one another to achieve their task. Learners also can use intentional and significant methods to achieve goals in the learning context of cooperative learning (Fathman and Kessler, 1993). Moreover, the approach upgrades learners' motivation, encourage members' interaction, improve the class learning atmosphere and decrease anxious learning condition. Both scholars (Forman and Cazden, 1985) pointed that peer feedback and cooperative behavior make learners build their own meaningful learning model in social interaction context of writing. Writing is regarded as a social interaction

behavior not an alone learning process anymore. Within peer feedback groups, every learner can give help and learn each other. As Bruffee (1984) addressed that the best way of learning is that communicate with peers. Through communication, learners receive peers' knowledge and experiences to digest most of the important points into their own thinking.

METHODOLOGY

Procedures

The procedures for data collection are individually described as follows: (a) pre-study in new TOEIC writing test, (b) exchanging diaries last four months, (c) post-test in new TOEIC writing test, (d) Post-test in Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ) and students interviews

Participants

The participants in this study are first-year English major students in two classes at a Taiwanese technological university who were observed for approximately four months. One class consists of 32 students who were randomly selected to exchange diaries in pairs. The students in the control group exchanged their diaries, gave feedback, and revised their diaries with the same student each week. The second class consists of 36 students of who were divided into six groups and with six to seven members each to exchange diaries with one person per week. This experimental group exchanged and revised the diaries but with different student every time.

Instruments

In this study included the English writing examination (TOEIC writing test) for pretest and posttest, a Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ) for quantitative research method and student interviews. The SPSS 17.0 analyzed differences and effectiveness in students' writing performance. Independent sample *t*-test compared means or more samples of experimental group and control group.

Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ)

The questionnaire of perceptions or motivations on writing English diaries was reprinted and adapted from the journal: Psychological Testing: Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ) Revision (pp. 64-65), by Wu and Cheng (1992). The statements in the 24 items employed the five-point Likert scale ranging from "strongly

agree,” “agree,” “neither disagree nor agree,” “disagree,” to “strongly disagree.”

New TOEIC writing test

The English writing examination was mainly chosen from TOEIC writing test, which was published by Cho & Han’s (2008) *Mega TOEIC Writing*. Examinees completed the tests within a limited time during the writing examination. They were asked to write five image depictions within eight minutes. Every examinee was also required to read two e-mails in ten minutes and then respond to the email, followed by the statements in the writing request exam. Finally, examinees were requested to draft, write, and correct an article in thirty minutes in the written task of article conception. Examinees are given 60 minutes to finish the whole writing exam.

Students Interviews

For the qualitative analysis, 13 learners from the experimental group were randomly sampled for student interviews and 16 learners from the control group. In order to understand learners’ perceptions and attitudes on exchanging diaries, the researcher adopted an individual interview which consists of eight questions.

RESULTS

The Effects of Exchanging diaries on Learners’ English Writing Ability

Table 1

The Post-test in Both Groups’ English Writing Examination

Group	N	Test	M (SD)	<i>t value (p)</i>
EG	36	Post-test	68.22 (10.64)	-2.23 (.02)*
CG	32		76.10 (11.25)	

* $p < .05$

The data of Table 1 revealed that the control group had better writing achievements on the examination that experimental group did. This result shows that the experimental group didn’t outperform the control group. For the qualitative analysis, several findings were explained as follows:

First, five students thought there were too many members in a team that resulted in delaying the schedule of exchanging diaries per week. Second, four interviewees tended to write formal, topical and paragraphic essay not daily diaries. Third, three learners worried about getting incorrect feedback from their team members and believed that a teacher’s

comment was more correct than peers. Both groups got progressed in their post-test.

The Effects of Exchanging Diaries on Learners' Perspective of English writing

In this section, the questionnaire was made up of five parts: (a) learners' task value in exchanging diaries, (b) learners' extrinsic goal of exchanging diaries, (c) learners' self-efficacy for exchanging diaries, (d) learners' anxiety of exchanging diaries, (e) learners' perceptions of peer feedback

Table 2

Learners' Perceptions of Peer Feedback

Statement	Group (N)	M (SD)	<i>t</i> value (<i>p</i>)
27. I prefer that peers revise my writing errors.	EG (36)	3.88 (.75)	-.45 (.32)
	CG (32)	3.85 (.72)	
31. I prefer exchanging diaries with same person.	EG (36)	2.55 (.98)	-1.87 (.03)*
	CG (32)	2.95 (.58)	

* $p < .05$

There was no significant between two groups in statement 27, but the means of both groups were higher and close. 17 students interviewed expressed that they got higher grammatical sensibility and revising abilities during the process. It could be explained that learners had positive perceptions on the peer feedback of exchanging diaries. There was a significant difference between the two groups in regard to their perceptions on Statement 31. As the learners from the control group who exchanged diaries with same person said, by exchanging diaries they could know each other deeply and write more contents in their diaries.

CONCLUSION

Some of possible factors might explain the results. Peer feedback of exchanging diaries was an interactive activity, in which learners acquired and practiced writing skills, raised grammatical rules and increased peers' interactive frequency. Because of this cooperative learning method, the participants with low English writing performance were trained reviewing ability of writing to enhance writing skills.

According to the quantitative analysis in the posttest, there was a significant

difference in the experimental group and the control group ($p < .05$). To contrast the pretest with posttest, both groups made progress in English writing achievement (pretest was 65.72 and 62.52, posttest was 68.22 and 76.10). It can be seen that the control group had higher progressed range than the experimental group.

With the result of interview, also the members of control group expressed higher willing to exchange diaries. Some interviewees of the experimental group explained not only too many members in a team that resulted in delaying the schedule of exchanging diaries every week but also tended to write formal, topical and paragraphic essay not daily diaries. Also, someone worried about getting incorrect feedback from their team members.

This study shows that the participants prefer exchanging diaries in pair than a group. To have 2 to 4 members in a team is more acceptable. It is suggested that in the revising process, the teacher sometimes can give feedback or directions. This result of interview reflected the reasons why the experimental group's progressed range was lower than control group.

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Overt and Covert Strategies for Translating a Gothic Horror Novel: A Comparison of Two Chinese Translations of *The Vampyre: A Tale*

Yang, Tsu-Yen^{*}

Department of Applied Linguistics and Language Studies
Chung Yuan Christian University

Abstract

John William Polidori, the author of *The Vampyre: A Tale*, was born in 1797. *The Vampyre* is one of the most important works in the Gothic genre, because Polidori for the first time allowed readers to experience the visceral qualities of horror through what is called “vampirism” – the tales of vampires and their victims. Hence, Polidori became a well-regarded writer and one of the originators of vampire fiction. However, in analyzing the simplified Chinese translation produced in China, the researcher found some sections of *The Vampyre* would not convey to Chinese readers the visceral experience of terror and death as originally written in English. The present study combines and applies Juliane House’s theories of overt and covert translation strategies for translating *The Vampyre* in conveying the feelings and ideas of vampirism from the original work. Previous studies on House’s theory suggest that successful translations of texts not only re-create source information but also provide richly detailed background information for readers’ understanding. Readers tend to respond more emotionally to overt translation, fully understanding the context; conversely, covert translation relies on lexical meaning to make the text comprehensible. The present study elaborates on three steps in the textual analysis. First, two versions of translations will be categorized and analyzed: a simplified Chinese translation produced in China and sourced from the website Yeeyan.org; the other work is translated by the researcher into Traditional Chinese. Second, the translation texts will be compared to see whether overt or covert translation strategies were adopted. Finally, the researcher will provide suggestions and comments for future translators and researchers. The researcher expects that future translators will apply overt and covert strategies to the translated texts.

Keywords: Overt translation, covert translation, vampire

^{*}Corresponding author

超額與隱性翻譯的策略應用：

哥德恐怖小說吸血鬼中譯本之比較研究

楊祖炎*

中原大學應用外國語文學系

摘要

小說作者約翰·威廉·波里道利(John William Polidori)出生於 1797 年，在作者歷屆作品中，最著名的作品是《吸血鬼》。作者成功利用吸血鬼創造話題。藉由生動的文字描繪，讀者能深刻體會到吸血鬼超越自然與無法抗衡的能力。《吸血鬼》在哥德小說中是著名的代表作，作者也被稱為吸血鬼之父。然而，張逸夫與夏雨在 1997 年所出版的大陸譯文，無法呈現原文所帶來的恐怖風格。本翻譯運用豪斯 (House, 1977) 所提出的超額(overt translation)與隱性翻譯 (covert translation)，致力重現原文的恐怖風格給中文讀者。過去有關超額翻譯 (overt translation)與隱性翻譯(covert translation) 的研究建議，品質良好的譯文能重現原文文化背景與知識給目標讀者，譯者能利用超額翻譯 (overt translation)，立志保存原文的文化，再提供額外背景知識，得以讓讀者清楚了解譯文並能融入其中；同時譯者能使用隱性翻譯(covert translation)，透過修飾讓句子更加淺顯易懂。文本分析會依台灣與大陸譯文做比較，接著以超額翻譯與隱性翻譯進行譯文的歸納比較。最後本研究會給予翻譯建議，希望對將來的譯者或相關研究有所幫助。

關鍵字：超額翻譯、隱性翻譯、吸血鬼

*通訊作者

INTRODUCTION

John William Polidori, the author of *The Vampyre: A Tale* (also known simply as *The Vampyre*), was born in 1797 in London. When Polidori was a medical student in the University of Edinburgh, he tried to write stories. Polidori, in addition to being a writer, was also a physician, and at age 21 was hired by Lord Byron to be his personal physician. Polidori read an incomplete story idea by Lord Byron, and, having been inspired by Byron's ideas, wrote what would become *The Vampyre*. The novel became Polidori's most significant work, as he redefined vampires; that they are not always transformed from human to animal, but instead could remain human in vampire form (Mutch, 2012). His first work was an autobiography, *The Diary of Dr. John William Polidori*, published in 1816, followed by two novels in 1819, *Ernestus Berchtold; or The Modern Oedipus* and *The Vampyre: A Tale*. Polidori's poetry was published in *The Wreath and Other Poems*, in 1819, and one poem *The Fall of the Angels: A Sacred Poem* was published after his death, in 1821 (Macdonald & Kathleen, 1994).

Prior to Polidori, vampire stories were mostly told in folk tales. *The Vampyre*, published in 1819, was the first novel to tell a vampire story in a printed narrative. *The Vampyre* is one of the most important works among Gothic fiction, in which Polidori perfectly showed Gothic horror through vampirism (Mutch, 2012, p. 7). Gothic fictions are classified into two categories: terror gothic and horror gothic. Terror gothic and horror gothic are similar to each other, but they are used in different contexts. Terror gothic is the feeling of being in immediate danger, as if one's life is being threatened. Horror gothic involves more than a looming threat; death is also a prominent aspect conveyed to the reader. In other words, the audience will feel terror when reading about characters who are simply in danger; horror when reading about characters who are being killed (Cavallaro, 2002; Lloyd-Smith, 2004). Because horror gothic involves terror gothic (but not vice versa), horror gothic fictions are greatly favored by writers as they can emphasize the aesthetics of horror from both death and terror through imagery of the monstrous (Hogle, 2002; Kilgour, 2013).

For this thesis, two Chinese translations of *The Vampyre* was analyzed. This version was translated into simplified Chinese in 2013, and found on the website Yeeyan, a part of Project Gutenberg, which offers over 53,000 free e-books for anyone to translate without permission from the authors or needing to pay copyright royalty (Walter, 2013). The translators, as listed on the book's cover art, are 张逸夫 (Zhang Yifu) and 夏雨 (Xia Yu).

The translators' names on the Yeeyan website are Zhangif and Chocogateau, respectively. Whether their Chinese names are also pseudonyms is not clear.

When reading *The Vampyre* in simplified Chinese, the researcher found that some parts do not adequately convey horror from death and terror through vampirism. The researcher believes that a great translated fiction in Gothic horror should encourage readers to feel a sense that something feared that can be conquered, a quality not conveyed in the above-mentioned translation. If readers do not get such a feeling from Gothic horror fiction, it is not considered a good translated work of this genre.

To demonstrate the well-written translation in the Gothic horror genre, the researcher will translate a portion of *The Vampyre* (approximately 7,000 characters) as vividly as possible. In other words, the researcher's aim is to re-create a version of the story that will allow Chinese readers to experience the story as originally written in English. Then, Chinese readers would like to share the story to others. The researcher will use overt and covert translation strategies to re-create vampirism from the original work. By definition, an overt translation strategy conveys knowledge from the source culture more deeply in the translated text (House, 1977). A covert translation strategy uses the target-language readers' understanding to explain the source culture in the translated texts (House, 1977). To convey vampirism in Chinese from *The Vampyre*, the researcher will employ overt and covert translation strategies together in translating certain passages into traditional Chinese. The two Chinese versions – the researcher's version and the simplified Chinese version – will be compared and discussed in Chapter 3.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The theoretical background of House's (1977) overt and covert translation strategies and other studies related to overt and covert translation strategies on novels and the poetry will be introduced in the following sections.

Theoretical background of House's overt and covert strategies

When translating the source texts to other languages, translators must be responsible for whether the cultural factors within the source are connected to those depicted in the target language (Braunmüller & House, 2009). The method or strategy of translation helps translators reconstruct the content of the source texts, making the texts semantically equivalent as much as possible during the process of translation, which is called functional equivalence (House, 2001a). To adopt functional equivalence in translation texts, House

(1977) proposed the overt translation strategy and the covert translation strategy, and translators use them together.

Overt translation strategy might be thought of as preserving a source culture or a source culture's features in the translation texts (House, 1997, p. 67). Translators would not use target culture to interpret source culture in the translation texts, instead translators further explain information which is related to the source culture (House, 2006, 2015). If the source culture is both interesting and well known to other communities, most translators use an overt translation strategy in their target texts (House, 2006). However, overt translation strategy needs to be performed carefully with regard to statements about cultural gaps, as translators should preserve the original features for readers (House, 1997, p. 145). Hence, overt translation strategy focus on the lexical meanings can result in a serious blunder between the source texts and the target texts because an overt translation strategy must follow the source culture with certainty (House, 2003b). The following examples identify why an overt translation strategy was used in certain situations, to the readers or audiences who were interested in the topic. The first example is a Second World War political speech by Winston Churchill in Braford, U.K., which was overtly translated, from English into any other language, a particular culture, time, and historical event, making target audiences whose family experienced in the history of Second World War recall their memory (House, 2014b, p. 55). The other example of the overt translation strategy is from a timeless source text, about a type of art and aesthetic. For example, the 19th-century German author Johann Peter Hebel, who is a missionary and a writer, describe daily life and dreams hardly approached together during that time through stories (House, 2014b, p. 55).

By contrast, covert translation strategy refers to how the source text matches the translation texts in terms of functional meanings and lexical meanings (House, 2003b). It is saying that covert translation strategy is helping readers understand the original culture, by using the target culture own understanding and frame of reference to describe and explain source culture (House, 1977). According to House (1997), when adopting covert translation strategy, translators use the cultural filter to modify cultural elements in the work. The cultural filter is referring to modify source cultures to the target cultures in the translation texts (House, 1977). Edmondson and House mention (1981) that translators often adopt a covert translation strategy in the target text to address sensitive issues while corresponding with meaning in the source text. In other words, if source texts contain sensitive language; translators must be mindful of the functionality and equivalence

between TT and the ST when using covert translation strategy. Therefore, translators need to fully understand the local culture and the target culture, which the translated text in the functionality and equivalence is original as possible.

When using overt and covert translation strategies together in the translation texts, translators must be aware of which strategy making target audiences fully comprehend the text and willing to share the article to others (House, 1997, p. 66). Therefore, translators had made the decision of what kind of situation overt and covert use before they started to translate the text (House, 2014b). On the other hand, when adopting overt and covert translation strategies, translators need to pay attention to whether the source text and target text match in their functional and lexical meanings (House, 2009, 2001b). If a translated text in the lexical and functional meaning are not corresponding to target text, this translated text will not receive positive feedback from target readers.

Although covert translation strategy only achieves functional equivalence in target texts, it does not mean translators can do this easily, for two reasons. First, when re-creating the source culture into the target culture, translators need to make sure the target culture is closely related to the original culture in the translation texts, which would prevent misunderstandings of the original culture (Gutt, 1989, p. 77). The second, when translators use a covert translation strategy, they also need provide some details about target cultures, such as annotations, in the translated texts in case some target readers would not understand their own cultures (Williams, 2004).

The application of overt and covert strategies in the translation texts

In this section, the researcher is looking for other studies that applied overt and covert translation strategies. The researcher just found out few articles, which reviewed two translation languages works by using overt and covert translation strategies together, such as a text-function essay (Rodrigues, 1996), a horror novel (Hsieh, 2008), Tang-era poetry (Jiang, 2010), and a romance-fiction novel (Chang, 2013).

If translators want readers to fully and easily understand the original story while evoking interest in the subjects among some readers, translators must employ an overt and covert translation strategies together to the target texts (Rodrigues, 1996; Chang, 2013). Rodrigues (1996) and Chang (2013) points out that translators should apply overt and covert translation strategies to translated texts because overt and covert translation strategies is an interrelated strategy which uses different approaches depending on the situations in the target text. For example, to avoid a situation where narrative and dialogue are

incomprehensible in a covert translation strategy, translators must make sure the target culture becomes connected to the source culture in the translation. On the other hand, the subjects and the story can become of great interest to some readers when using overt translation strategy to convey understanding from the story. When readers receive clear knowledge of overt translation strategy from translators, they can better understand original fiction (Rodrigues, 1996; Hsieh, 2008; Jiang, 2010; Chang, 2013). However, Hsieh (2008) found that translators in China put an emphasis on conveying culture information with an overt translation strategy; they want to evoke interest in readers. Translators in Taiwan, however, primarily filter out cultural perspectives while focusing on lexical meanings.

In conclusion, the above literatures are relevant in the analysis of overt and covert translation strategies in two Chinese translation texts of the work *The Vampyre*. Overt and covert translation strategies are an interrelated strategy which cannot be independently employed on the translated texts. For example, covert translation strategy fixing a dialogue in the translated texts can be a main tactic. Nevertheless, overt translation strategy is like to assist in conveying a story, it makes people are willing to spend money on it, and they would like to share it with other people.

The application of overt and covert translation strategies in the Gothic story

In this chapter, the researcher is going to give an explanation on overt and covert translation strategies to translate the Gothic horror novel *The vampyre*.

The researcher tries to retain Polidori's style of vampirism by using an overt translation strategy to convey the ideas from the original source. Because Polidori brought new ideas to the vampire genre, he became a well-regarded writer of vampire fiction (Mutch, 2012). In his novel *The Vampyre*, Polidori aimed to make vampires human; before this, vampires in fiction were animals (Macdonald & Kathleen, 1994). Another aspect, Polidori's vision was to reader identify with or admire the vampire by emphasizing the vampire's high status, metrosexual and stronger body.

The researcher applies covert translation to fix a narrative passage, making it as understandable as possible in the translated text. Covert translation strategy requires a thick translation strategy, which provides deeper background information by way of annotations, such as a connection to the culture and/or linguistic content for target readers to understand the original story with background information (Appiah, 1993, p. 417).

TEXTUAL ANALYSIS and DISSCUSSION

In this chapter, the researcher analyzes two versions of translation: a simplified

Chinese version by translators from the website Yeeyan; the other is translated by the researcher in traditional Chinese. The researcher will elaborate on two points. First, the researcher categorizes the translation texts depending on whether the texts providing the sense of terror or horror. Secondly, the researcher compares and explains these two translated versions with the purpose of suggesting four techniques that perform overt and covert strategies in the Gothic fiction of *The Vampyre*.

The sense of terror in the novel

Table 1 *Terror Experience*

Source Text	its echoing thunders had scarcely an interval of rest
China version	雷雨交加，几乎不给人喘息的机会
Traditional Chinese version	迴盪的雷聲從未短暫休息

In the middle of passage in *The Vampyre*, the leading character Aubrey planned to pass through a forest in Geeks to find antiquities. The female character Ian the suggested the male character Aubrey leave the forest no later than sunset, because there is a story about the forest where vampires live. Vampirism will gain power in the sunset and kill human being who are in the forest. But that Aubrey was recovering the antiquities, he would leave the forest by the sunset. As soon as he wanted to leave the forest, the terrible weather forced him to difficultly leave it. The author Polidori provided terror details for the vampirism. For example, vampirism is in forests. (Hogle, 1988). To re-create thunders to perform the terroir fact with echoing in the passage of *The Vampyre*, the researcher believed by use the technique literal translation to retains the original words.

In the full English sentence, “its echoing thunders had scarcely an interval of rest” that the author Polidori deal the forest by the echoing thunders to strengthen terrifying feeling in the passage of *The Vampyre*. China version focus on re-create the terrifying feeling by describing the bad weather in the forest as “雷雨交加，几乎不给人喘息的机会” to for the target readers. Ultimately, then, the researcher’s goal is to recreate the terrifying feeling by the thunders in a raw in the forest to the target readers. To put in another way, the researcher took House’s (1977) overt strategy to retain the forest smells of terror by literal translation technique as “迴盪的雷聲從未短暫休息”. Because the researcher fully describes the thunders never stopped in Chinese just as completely show the terrifying forest as the original source texts, transitional Chinese version would provide more terrifying feeling than China version.

In conclusion, the similarity between the traditional Chinese version and the China version was describing the forest is terrifying. The researcher's point, though, is not identifying the thunderstorm in the forest, but charactering the thunders is non-stop to master the terrifying feeling to the target readers. The literal translation technique assists translators to fully perform overt strategy so that target readers would feel more terrified in the traditional Chinese version than the China version.

The sense of horror in the novel

Table 2 Horror Experience

Source Text	upon her neck and breast was blood, and upon her throat were the marks of teeth having opened the vein:— <i>to</i> this the men pointed, <u>crying, simultaneously struck with horror</u> , "A Vampyre! A Vampyre!"
China version	她脖子和胸膛上都是血，喉咙上有血管被咬开的齿痕。人们指着齿痕，不约而同地惊声尖叫道：“吸血鬼！吸血鬼！”
Traditional Chinese version	她整個脖子與胸膛都是血漬，喉嚨上有血管被咬開的齒痕。村民指著齒痕，瞬間起雞皮疙瘩，崩潰的又哭又叫：『是吸血鬼殺的！是吸血鬼！』。

After he got lost in the forest, he found the house in the forest. In addition, he heard someone who was scrambling from the house. Aubrey wanted to know what was happening in the house, so he encouraged himself to enter the house. When Aubrey came into the house, Aubrey was suddenly attacked by the stranger. He failed in his attempted to defense until other people saved him. As soon as Aubrey wake up, he saw the female character Ianthe who was dead next to him. The author Polidori addressed the horrifying when people are seeing teeth marks on the dead will get mad. Polidori well-addressed on the relationship between crying and horror motion which character the horrifying people. To center on the horrifying people, the researcher will use amplification, conversion and division.

In the phrase, “crying, simultaneously struck with horror” that the author Polidori provided the horrifying cannot be handle by anyone so people release the feeling by crying. China version identify that the everyone would felt horrified at the same time as “不约而同地惊声尖叫道”. Ultimately, then, the researcher's goal character people feel horrified in vampires. To put in another way, the researcher applied amplification, conversion and division technique“瞬間起雞皮疙瘩，並且崩潰的又哭又叫”.The amplification, conversion and division techniques in the covert strategy would be just as completely re-perform the horrifying villagers.

To sum up, what the researcher is trying to get here is that the people encountered looming death or conflict, they will not control their emotion bursting out crying. The translators applied the techniques of conversion, division and amplification to wholly perform covert strategy so that target readers would have the understanding of people in the story are feel horrified in vampires

CONCLUSION

In this chapter, the researcher has so far applied overt and covert strategies for translating a Gothic novel, *The Vampyre*, into Chinese. *The Vampyre* demonstrates Polidori's original contributions to the Gothic genre through his unique concept of vampirism. However, the Simplified Chinese version does not convey Polidori's concept of vampirism. The researcher applied overt translation for retaining Polidori's intentions. Covert translation is applied to fix a narrative passage which makes the translated texts understandable and comprehensible to target readers. Hence, target readers are able to experience something feared and then conquered through *The Vampyre*.

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On the Use of the E-book *Sing Kids* by Kindergarteners for Reading Comprehension

Hui-Hsuan Cindy Kung*

Department of English Language, Literature, and Linguistics, Providence University

Chun-Lin Luo

Department of English Language, Literature, and Linguistics, Providence University

Abstract

The electronic books have become more and more popular but research investigating their effect in comparison with the effect of printed books on learners has been scarce. The purpose of the study was to explore whether electronic books could increase Taiwan's pre-school learners' reading comprehension than printed books. The participants' ages were between four to five years old. They were divided into the experimental group (e-books) and the control group (printed books), and the experiment lasted for one month in 2016. *Sing kid 2* (both electronic version and printed version) published by East and West Book Co. Ltd in Taiwan was used as materials in class. Pre-tests and post-tests were conducted. In the pre-tests there was no significant difference between the two groups, and there was significant difference in e-book group and printed book group in the post-tests. The former outperformed than the latter. This study demonstrated that electronic books are beneficial to kindergarteners' reading comprehension and thus serve as an important option of learning devices in the twenty-first century.

Keywords: e-books, kindergartener, reading comprehension

*Corresponding author

將電子書: Sing Kids 融入課堂中

用以加強幼兒的閱讀認知

孔蕙萱*

靜宜大學，英國語文學系碩士班 研究生

羅春琳

靜宜大學，英國語文學系 教授

摘要

電子書在研究領域越來越興盛，但是少部分在探討電子書及紙本課本對於學習第二外語的幼兒的影響。本研究旨在探討台灣幼兒英文電子書之使用對其閱讀認知的影響與增進。研究對象為四十二位幼稚園學童，年齡介於四到五歲，就讀於中班。將這四十二位學童分別分成實驗組使用電子書上課及對照組使用紙本課本上課。研究設計是使用東西圖書事業股份有限公司所出版的 Sing Kid2 紙本課本及電子書。研究時間為 2016 年 11 月至 12 月。測驗的設計分為前測和後測。根據前測，實驗組及對照組沒有任何顯著差異，但是兩組在後測時都有顯著差異。前者較後者為優。本研究證明在教室中使用電子書能夠提升幼兒英文閱讀認知，且電子書學習在二十一世紀更是一大重要的學習策略。

關鍵詞：電子書、幼兒、閱讀認知

*通訊作者

INTRODUCTION

Background

The current generation of young children is growing up in a digital media-saturated environment in which they receive daily exposure to a variety of technologies (Hirsch & Blanchard, 2009). Computer-assisted learning has been found to promote children's language and literacy development (Plowman and Stephen, 2003). Young learners today have many opportunities to use technology to learn with and to play with. One of those technologies to young learners is electronic books.

Children of today who live in a highly technological area may be exposed to books not only through an adult's reading, but also by independently activating electronic storybooks (e-books) which are available on the internet or on CD-ROMs. E-books represent the combination of the advantages of printed books with the capabilities of computer technology, and this can be helpful to children who do not respond well to traditional print media or who are reluctant to read (Maynard, 2010).

Motivation

There are some of kindergarteners who are hard to concentrate more than 10 minutes and also hard to focus on printed text books. For four to Five year-old children, their cognitive, linguistic, and motor-skill levels also affect their willingness and ability to concentrate. If an activity is too challenging in any one of these areas, children may either choose not to participate or may stay with the activity only for a short time. In order to find an effective way for young learners to be more concentrate on second language learning, many teachers use e-books to attract kindergarteners.

In recent years there has been a growing trend toward the use of digital versions of books in early childhood classrooms (Unsworth,2006). The International Reading Association (2009) highlighted the importance of integrating technologies, including digital texts such as e-books, into current programs. Research has found that exposure to educational e-books can enhance children's language and literacy development (De Jong & Bus, 2004; Maynard & McKnight, 2001).

E-books usually include multimedia effects such as oral reading, written text, music, sound effects, and animations. Most e-books include optional hidden hotspots, which are devices embedded in screen locations and provide additional information about the characters, repeat or elaborate text, explain a word, duplicate a sound, or provide entry into games and other activities meant to promote understanding. Clicking on a glowing word in

the text will sometimes give the children the sound of the word. Built-in dynamic visuals may also elaborate on the story content beyond what appears in the original text and may support better story comprehension. For example, in the e-book *Sing Kids* unit 1 “Merry go round and round”, when kids click on the “merry go round”, it will sing the song “merry go round”, and read story to them.

Purpose

In addition to traditional printed storybooks, e-books are currently used in some Taiwan pre-school classrooms due to the availability of computers in those classrooms. Therefore, this study was carried out to investigate the effect of e-books on the development of reading comprehension for Taiwan pre-school children. The purpose of this study was to examine whether preschool children in Taiwan advance more in their reading comprehension when they engage with e-books than when they engage with traditional books.

Research Questions

To address the issue already outlined and to begin to fill the gaps in previous research, the present study was designed to address the following research questions:

- (1) Can the use of e-book *Sing Kids* be used to improve kindergarten’s reading comprehension?
- (2) Are there any significant differences between children using e-books (experimental group) compared with children who were exposed to regular printed books (control group)?

Literature of Review

Definition of e-books

Electronic storybooks assist learners to construct messages and connect information by presenting a reading environment and process that extend beyond what is offered in traditional storybooks (Ertem, 2010). In particular, electronic storybooks provide a customized learning environment for the learners to explore at their own pace (Adam and Wild, 1997). With the development of technology and the popularity of multimedia, electronic storybooks provide animation and sound effects beyond what is available in traditional storybooks and may support better reading motivation (Chen et al., 2003, Ciampa, 2012, Grimshaw et al., 2007, and Korat, 2010).

E-books in kindergarteners' reading

Reading e-books could be an activity that supports young children's knowledge on print, including their word reading. One of the dynamic options included in many e-books is text tracking, namely a printed text that changes by highlighting and coloring as it is narrated. According to Ehri and Sweet (1991), children's orthographic knowledge might be supported by pointing to the text while reading. Indeed, some evidence has been presented that word reading of school beginners (Lewin, 2000; Miller, Blackstock, & Miller, 1994) and of kindergarten children (de Jong & Bus, 2004) improved following reading highlighted texts in e-books. Some e-books allow the reader to follow the text tracking in each screen as many times as they like and tracking of text appears in units of sentences, phrases or separate words. De Jong and Bus (2004), who researched children aged four to six, found that those who had higher level of letter knowledge and word recognition improved their word reading level following the activity with an e-book (six times) more than others. That is, e-books can affect kindergarteners' vocabulary in reading, and also influence their later reading comprehension. Moreover, electronic storybooks that incorporate oral reading, sound effects, dynamic images, highlighted text, and interactions can improve an individual's reading comprehension by decreasing cognitive overload, burden of decoding words or grammar, and usage of working memory (Ciampa, 2014, de Jong and Bus, 2004, Pearman and Chang, 2010). It is urgent to develop appropriate learning aids for children to improve their reading comprehension and reading motivation by using this type of media.

METHODS

Data collection

The data collection took place between November and December 2016. The activity is held twice a week, 30 minutes a time. During the instruction, their classroom teachers helped reviewing the vocabulary and sentence patterns once a week.

Research Participants

A total of 42 kindergarteners between four and five years of age participated in this current experiment. Participants are from Taiwan primary school, Sun's Nursery. They had English classes two times a week and 30 minutes each time. They were divided into two groups, an e-books group (experimental group) and a regular paper books (control group). The experiment lasted 4 weeks between November and December in 2016.

Research Instruments

Three instruments stated as below would be used to collect the data.

1. Reading comprehension test— Both the e-book group and the printed paper book group took the same story comprehension test after the treatment (Appendix A).
2. Song in the picture-- Ask kindergarteners to sing the song in the picture, and described what they see in the pictures (Appendix B).
3. Vocabulary test-- testing kindergarteners' vocabulary reading; answers would be recorded (Appendix C).

Procedure

First, two groups had pre-test before the treatment. One group used E-books as the treatment for one month, and the other group used regular printed books as the materials used in class. Over a month of treatment, both groups took post-test.

After the treatment, both groups took a reading comprehension test individually. Then researchers discussed the differences between two different groups through statistics. Vocabulary and picture describing are tested individually through recording.

Data analysis

After Reading comprehension and vocabulary test was finished, SPSS was used as a statistic tool to analyze the scores of the pre and posttests. The independent t-test was used to examine the differences between the group means on the pretest and posttest. The pair t-test was used to investigate the differences between the pre-test and post-test of paper books and E-books. EXCEL statistical software were also used to analyze the tables in this research.

RESULTS

Pre-test result

An independent sample t test was conducted to evaluate the hypothesis that participants had no differences in pretest. As the result, there was not any significant difference between two groups ($p=0.137 > 0.05$, Table.2), but the standard deviation of E-book group was higher than the paper book group ($SD= 26.19 > 20.22$, Table.1).

Table.1 Descriptive statistics of Pretests

Pre-test	Numbers	Mean	SD	Std. Error Mean
Paper books	21	79.04	20.22	4.41
E-books	21	68.09	26.19	5.71

Table.2 T-tests of Pretests

	Independent t-test					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
				Lower	Upper			
Pre t-test of paper books and E-books	10.95	-5.97	-1.297	-3.64	25.5	1.517	40	0.137

Post-test result

An independent sample t test was conducted to evaluate the hypothesis that there are significant differences between paper book group and E-book group. But, according to the statistic result, both groups had no significant differences ($P=0.561 > 0.05$, Table.3, 4).

The E-book group had extremely significant ($P=0.000 < 0.001$, Table 6) improvement than the paper book group which was only marginally significant ($P=0.029 < 0.05$, Table 5). Based on the statistic result, the use of e-books *Sing kids3* does improve kindergartener's reading comprehension.

Table.3 Descriptive statistics of posttests

Post test	Numbers	Mean	SD	Std. Error Mean
Paper books	21	87.19	11.98	2.61
E-books	21	89.09	8.81	1.92

Table.4 T-tests of posttests

	Independent t-test					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
				Lower	Upper			
Post t-test of paper books and E-books	-1.9	3.17	0.69	-8.46	4.658	-0.587	40	0.561

Table 5: Paper book Group progress

	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
				Lower	Upper			
	Paper books pre-Paper books post	-8.14	15.91	3.47	-15.38	-.89	-2.34	20

Table 6: E-book Group progress

	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
				Lower	Upper			
	E-books books pre-E-books post	-21.00	21.85	4.76	-30.94	-11.05	-4.40	20

Discussion

To look at those two research questions, first, can the use of e-book *Sing Kids* be used to improve kindergarten's reading comprehension? According to the result of scores, the E-books group's students mostly have made a progress (Mean=89.09, SD=8.81), only four of them had the same scores as their pretest. Stander deviation also decreases from 26.19 to 8.81. To look at the paper group, six students had lower scores than their pretest (M=87.19, SD=11.98). Due to the result, the E-book *Sing-kids* can improve kindergarteners' reading comprehension.

Second, are there any significant differences between children using e-books (experimental group) compared with children who were exposed to regular printed books (control group)? There are much the same scores in the first part of the posttest, but in the second part, vocabulary reading, the kindergarteners with e-books have apparent differences (M=32, SD=5.69) than traditional printed books (M=30. SD=7.83). Accordingly, the group with e-books has better achievement on vocabulary comprehension as shown in Figure 1 below.

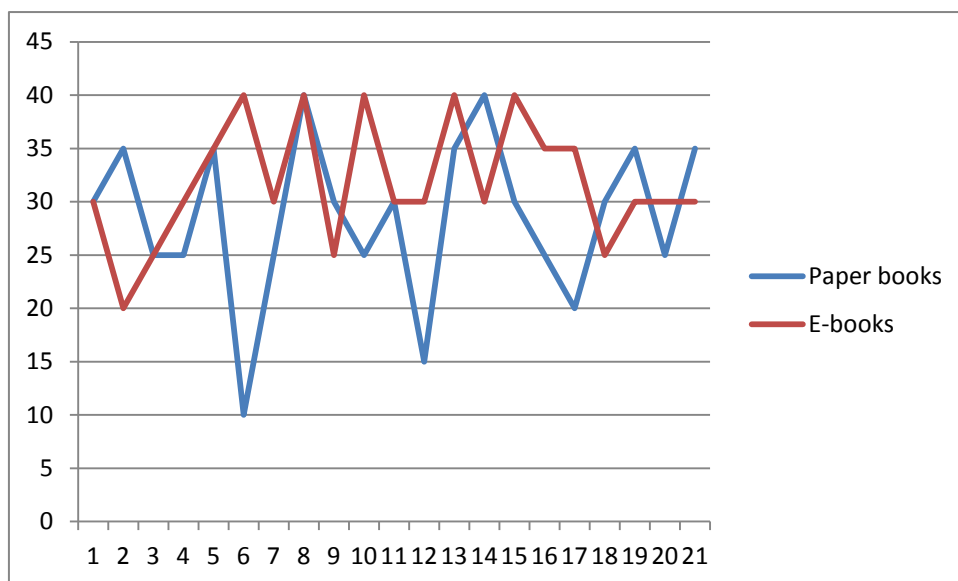


Figure 1: Vocabulary comprehension of post-tests

(Printed books (M=30. SD=7.83); E-books (M=32, SD=5.69))

Conclusions

The purpose of this study was to investigate the effect of E-books on the development of reading comprehension for Taiwan pre-school children. According to previous studies from Pearman and Chang (2010), Shamir, Korat and Barb(2008), De Jong, and Bus (2004), and Shamir and Korat (2008), electronic books benefit learners' literacy

levels, such as word meaning, recognition, writing, letter naming, and comprehension. Pearman and Chang (2010) suggested that electronic storybooks and interactive texts have features that support vocabulary growth, fluency, and comprehension in young learners. Using e-books in class, researchers found that kindergarteners are more attracted by the sound and the visual stimulation in it, which can improve kindergarteners' reading ability. De Jong and Bus (2004), also researched children aged 4-6 and found that those who had higher level of letter knowledge and word recognition improved their word reading level following the activity with an e-book more than others. However, electronic books had potentially distracting features as well. This research implies that pre-school teachers should use electronic books in class to improve kindergarteners' reading comprehension.

Limitations of the study and further suggestions

The study was to investigate the use of the e-book *Sing Kids* by Kindergarteners for reading comprehension. There were some limitations, as follows. First, the reliability of the test needs to be tested. Second, with the limitation of time, the treatment was implemented for a short time. For this reason, the outcome might be affected. Third, it was limited by participant's age range. Working with older, more independent students may have different result of using e-books as a teaching material.

Despite the limitations, this study demonstrates that electronic books are valuable tools to be used in the classroom to promote literacy skills as well as skills to help students succeed in our technological society.


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Appendix A







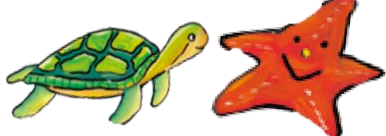


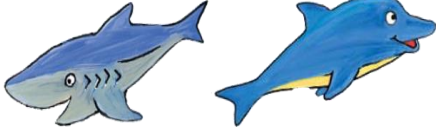
Pretest Vocabulary Test (100%)

Appendix B- Posttest

Reading Comprehension Test (40%)

1. Listen & Circle

1. 	2. 
3. 	4. 
5. 	6. 
7. 	8. 
9. 	10. 



2. What is the song in the picture? What do you see? (20%)

Appendix C

Vocabulary Test (40%)

 <p>sailor</p>	 <p>see</p>
 <p>sailor sea</p> <p>bottom</p>	 <p>elf</p>
 <p>master</p>	 <p>shelf</p>
 <p>boys</p>	 <p>girls</p>

An Analysis of Vocational College Students' English Listening Comprehension

Lee, Ian-Yinian *

Assistant Professor

Department of Applied English, Overseas Chinese University

Abstract

The purpose of this study is to explore the correlation between English listening level, learning attitude toward English listening and English listening comprehension strategies for students in vocational college. College Student English Proficiency Test (CSEPT) was adopted as this study sample for the analysis of listening assessment. 1170 freshmen in advanced and intermediate groups of Overseas Chinese University were selected subject. The quantitative analysis and discussion were then used to investigate learner's learning attitude as well as the degree of English listening comprehension level among 970 students through questionnaire. Finally, 58 students were interviewed for the qualitative results to cross-analyze listening difficulties and listening comprehension strategy used in their processes. The results showed: 1). Compensation strategy was the most frequent used by OCU students among the six listening comprehension strategies; 2). Student's learning attitude would affect examination results; 3). The degree of English listening comprehension level was close between advanced and intermediate groups; 4). The average score of listening was lower than that of reading in both groups. This study raised proposals in accordance with the results for the references of English listening teaching that teachers could improve the above weaknesses, assisting student's English listening comprehension to effectively apply listening comprehension strategy and improve English listening competence.

Keywords : Listening Comprehension Strategy, English Proficiency Level, CSEPT
(College Student English Proficiency Test), Learning Attitude

*Corresponding author

台灣技專校院生之英語聽力能力之研究

李宜年*

僑光科技大學應用英語系

摘要

本研究旨在探討技專校院學生的英語聽力程度，與英語聽力的學習態度，以及聽力策略與程度的相關性。其中聽力評量之分析採用目前各技專校院最常使用之英文檢定考試大學校院英語能力測驗(College Student English Proficiency Test, CSEPT)為研究樣本。而研究對象為僑光科技大學大一優、中班學生，共 1170 人，並以 CSPET 的英語測驗作分析，以瞭解學生聽力的落點，再透過問卷調查 970 位學生，探討學習者的學習態度、程度落點，做量化的分析和討論，最後由訪談 58 位學生之質性結果，交叉分析學生所遇到之聽力困難和所使用之聽力策略。本研究結果得知：1). 英語聽力六大策略中最常使用者為補償策略，2). 學生的學習態度會影響考試成果，3). 優、中班學生的聽力程度落點相當，4). 兩班的聽力平均比閱讀低分。本研究根據結果提出建議，以供英語聽力教學上的參考，且教師可針對這些弱點加以改善，幫助學生對於英語聽力的理解，及有效運用聽力策略，藉此有效提升英語聽力之能力。

關鍵字：聽力策略、英語程度、大學校院英語能力測驗、學習態度

*通訊作者

Introduction

Language learning always starts with “listening”. Listening is a difficult skill for ESL/EFL learners as they are usually affected by disturbance of their mother tongues. Teachers should instruct and guide learners to learn how to use listening comprehension strategies to reach listening comprehension to increase their listening competence besides the basic listening courses. It's believed that learners would expect to learn a new language quickly if they could learn with no pressures and in a pleasant mind. Showing strong interested in learner's comprehension and learning is a key of success for listening comprehension. Especially in learning a foreign language, students with accuracy and positive attitudes could effectively assist their English listening learning.

The purposes of this study are 1). To explore English learning strategies was used by vocational and technological college and university students in terms of their English listening comprehension, and to see whether they improve their skills of English listening comprehension or not. 2). To understand students' English listening learning effectiveness through CSEPT.

Literature Review

A completely listening process consists of hearing, understanding, remembering, interpreting, evaluating and responding (Brownell, 1994). Brownell proposed a mode of listening conveys the process that it would go through listening filters including organize role, attitudes, previous experiences, values and bias, etc. to understand the contents of hearing. Listening is the first step to perceive the sound in its physical process.

Many scholars used to define language learning strategy. Among Oxford (1993) proposed a complete definition for language learning strategy that “Learners adopted specific behavior to make their learning behavior much easier, faster, happier, more aggressive, more efficient and more likely to transfer to new learning situation.” She advocated that teachers must emphasize learners' learning portfolios on the teaching. Furthermore, the focus of teaching research is not only how teachers taught, but also in consideration of learners' learning portfolios, also meaning teachers should help students to develop effective English learning strategy to make them become spontaneous and self-responsible learners.

The relationship between foreign language learning achievement and learning strategies used has become the focus in the field of language learning strategy research. The investigation indicated that most successful learners tended to use applicable strategies

and connected with these effective strategies to achieve the demand of language learning; oppositely, the little poor learners show the tendency that they were not good at using strategy (Chamot & Kupper 1989; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1993; Green & Oxford, 1995). Take University of Puerto Rico for instance, most successful language learners use more learning strategies (Green and Oxford, 1995).

Oxford (1993) indicated six main parts in listening strategy, including memory, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive and affective as well as social strategy. Orme (2009) also mentioned there were at least four parts in listening strategy: 1). Metacognitive, 2). Cognitive, 3). Social, and 4). Affective strategy. O'Malley & Chamot (1990), Chamot & Küpper (1989) and Young (1997) stated that six listening application strategies, including 1). Inference: guess the meanings from voices, oral language or vocabulary information in the book, 2). Elaboration: made active or connected with the new theme or previous knowledge to understand the missing information, 3). Self-monitoring: check whether the mission you engaged in is accurate, verifying or correcting someone's listening comprehension proficiency, 4). Summary from the beginning to the end of the listening: summarize the current information in mind or in word, 5). Self-assessment: assure your concentration in or focus on the assessment of a person's strategy use, and 6). The tolerance of ambiguity (uncertainty): try to accept unclear or inaccurate facts and not allow it to frustrate you. Thus it could be seen metacognitive, cognitive, social and affective strategy were four strategies the most commonly used by university students.

Methods

This study used research methods, including literature review, questionnaire survey, data analysis and interview. Based on 2015 CSEPT certification test, students' performance was analyzed, and the levels of research subjects and the degrees of answers for question types were simultaneously used for grading accordingly. Research subjects of this study were 1170 OCU freshmen in advanced and intermediate groups. 970 students were conducted questionnaire. Also, there were 58 selected students participated this project's interview. Finally, researcher conducted and integrated the analysis of questionnaire and interview to precisely see OCU students' opinions and attitudes about English listening comprehension.

Results

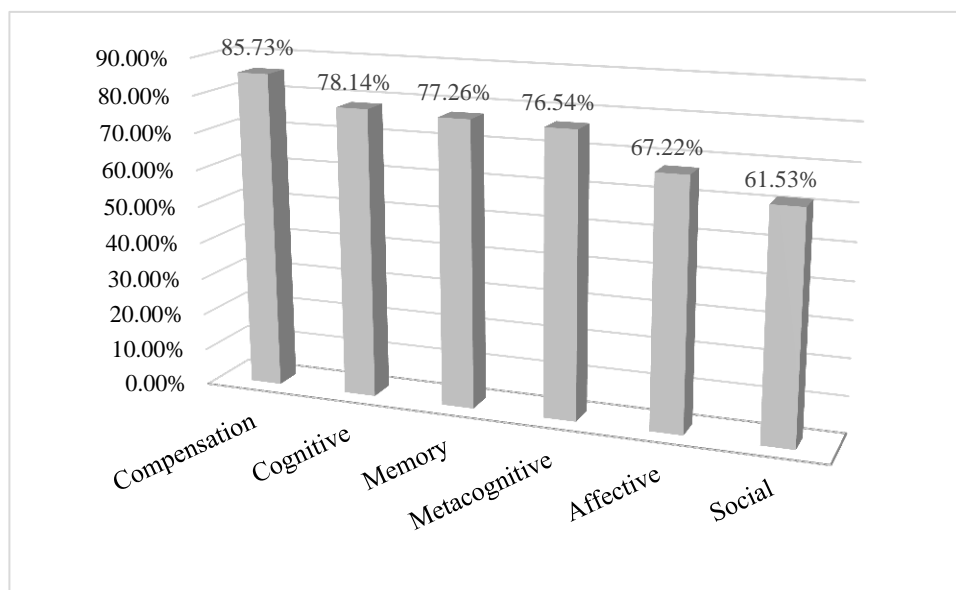


Figure. 1 Usage Rate of Six English Listening Strategies

The compensation strategy accounts for the highest percentage 85.73%. The students who thought they didn't really catch the points should use compensation strategy to answer the questions instead of guessing or directly abandonment. While speaking speed is normally fast in the listening comprehension test, students could hear from prefix, suffix or carefully listen to verb and wh-questions to identify new words. Using this strategy could help students to recall or memorize. They would answer the questions easily without making errors. Representing most of students agreed with this compensation strategy. This strategy could help students to easily determine the correct answers and quickly answer the questions without affecting the next question. Hence, compensation strategy was the most common listening learning strategy and more useful strategy used by OCU students.

The second ranking strategy is cognitive strategy, accounting for 78.14%. The students could answer the questions quickly within limited time in environment of their familiar mother tongue (Chinese). In general, the majority of students knew what the listening contents were as soon as they heard questions, but they wanted to translate the contents into Chinese to deepen the memories and made the sentences understand much easier before quick answer. They assumed their familiar language could help them understand listening contents more and increase confidence in answer the questions correctly.

Social strategy, the last one accounted for 61.53%. Students though environment was important for learning language other than interest. Not all students dared to communicate

with foreigners, not to mention experiencing their cultures. Thus, the usage rate of social strategy became the last one.

Table 1 CSEPT Passing Rate for Advanced and Intermediate Groups

	B1		A2		Total		Fail	
Advanced Group	281	80.97%	58	16.71%	339	97.69%	8	2.30%
Intermediate Group	325	37.44%	326	37.55%	651	75.00%	217	25.00%
Total	606	49.88%	384	31.60%	990	81.48%	225	18.51%

This study used CSEPT scores to evaluate English learning effectiveness for freshmen and analyzed the degree of their passing rate according to the ratio of passing rate shared by advanced group, intermediate group, A2, B1 and fail. Table 1 showed that the passing rate was 97.69% (339 students) of advanced group. The numbers of fail were only 8 students and the fail rate was just 2.3%. The passing rate was 80.97% of advanced group to pass B1 Threshold and the A2 Waystage 16.7% (58 students), meaning the highest degree of most advanced students was located in B1 level. It explained that OCU advanced freshmen could handle CSEPT level I very well.

The total passing rate was 75% for intermediate group students. It still contained a high passing rate. In details, B1 Threshold was only 37.44% and A2 Waystage was 37.55%, they both quite close, only 0.11% (1 student) of difference. The fail rate was 25%. The passing rate in intermediate group B1 threshold was 37% and same as A2 Waystage. Although total passing rate in intermediate group at B1 threshold and A2 Waystage was 75%, the data displayed the proportion of B1 threshold and A2 Waystage students was almost same in intermediate group but fail rate was as high as 25% showing 1/4 students didn't pass the certificate test in CSEPT. It explained that intermediate group needed to improve more to achieve B1 Threshold.

Regarding total passing rate and the scores in CSEPT Level I, total B1 passing rate for freshmen in English advanced and intermediate group was 49.88%; total A2 passing rate 31.60%; total passing rate 81.48% for both levels. The fail rate was 18.51% included 8 students in advanced and 217 in intermediate group. The total passing rate of both advanced and intermediate groups was 81.48% because OCU adopted CSEPT Level I with easier questions in the question bank.

Conclusion

The highest usage rate of six main listening strategies was compensation strategy and followed by cognitive strategy, memory strategy, metacognitive strategy, affective strategy and social strategy, the last one. Using compensation strategy to answer the questions with quick speaking speed could help the students to easily determine the correct answer without affecting the next question within time limit. And thus, compensation strategy was the most commonly used strategy while social strategy as the last one always took long time to cultivate and still could miss the answer opportunity in the test if students didn't study hard and preserve.

The degree of student's English proficiency level was analyzed on the basis of Level ICSEPT Certificate. The degrees of most of the advanced group students were in B1 Threshold, only few in A2Waystage and much less no pass. The intermediate group students even displayed their degrees in A2 Waystage with 1 person difference from the numbers in B1 Threshold, but more fail resulted in total passing rate of both clearly behind B1 Threshold.

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Cramming for English: who benefits?

Yu-Yuan Lee*

Nan-Kai University of Technology

Aaron Clode

Nan-Kai University of Technology

Abstract

As an increasing number of students in Taiwan attend English Cram schools to prepare for all kinds of English tests, the question-Who benefits from tutoring in English cram schools?-demands more attention. The purpose of this exploratory study is to examine how students with different attending motivations and achievement levels differ in their view of cramming for English. A survey questionnaire was designed and administered to 67 (male=32; female=35) junior high schools students in five English cram schools in Caotun township. Results of independent t-tests indicated that participants differed significantly in their viewpoint of helpfulness. There was no significant gender difference in the students' viewpoints of attending English cram schools. However, participants who voluntarily attended English cram schools perceived a higher level of helpfulness than those who were forced to. They opined that attending English cram schools was helpful for their English learning. Moreover, students with different achievement levels perceived the level of helpfulness differently. Students with higher achievement tend to believe that cramming is helpful to them. Cramming helped them better understand the learning content in regular school, thereby improving their English grades. Based on the results, further studies and implications for education are provided.

Keywords: English learning, English cram schools, learning achievement

*Corresponding author

國中生對補英文的看法：誰覺得比較有幫助？

李鈺媛*

南開科技大學

墨亞倫

南開科技大學

摘要

越來越多的臺灣學生利用課後時間上英語補習班以準備各種各樣的英語測驗。然而，探討哪一類的學生會認為補習英語獲益較多的研究並不多。因此，本研究想了解補習動機及成績對國中生補習英語的看法有無差異性。本研究採用問卷調查法，受訪對象共有 67 位來自 5 個草屯地區英文補習班的國中生，其中男生有 32 人，女生有 35 人。獨立 t 檢驗結果顯示，受訪者對補習英語的看法有顯著差異。雖然男、女學生在補習英語的看法上沒有顯著的性別差異，然而，自願參加補習與被迫參加的人，對補習英語的看法有顯著性的差異。自願參加英語補習的學生比那些被迫參加的人，感受到補習是有幫助的。他們認為英語補習有助於他們的英語學習。此外，不同學習成就的學生對補習英文的看法也有顯著性的差異。成績較高的學生認為英語補習是有幫助的。英語補習有助於他們更瞭解正規學校的學習內容，並且提高他們的英語成績。根據此分析結果，本文最後提出了進一步的研究方向及對教學上的一些建議。國中生之

關鍵字：英語學習、英語補習班、學習成績

*通訊作者

INTRODUCTION

Supplementary education is prevalent in Asia. “Receiving supplementary education (tutoring)” is a common daily activity among students, especially in many East Asian countries (Dierkes & Bray, 2011). The institutions which provide supplementary education are called “cram schools” or “Buxiban” in Taiwan. With a large number of students seeking academic improvement, some of these institutes have even become huge enterprises, with national-wide chain schools generating multi-million revenues in some Asian countries (Chou & Yuan, 2011; Dierkes & Bray, 2011).

Although the issue of fewer children has impacted on regular school recruitment, the number of cram schools has been increasing in the past ten years in Taiwan. According to a statistical report from the Minister of Education, there were nearly 1900 cram schools in Taiwan in 2017 (教育部, 2017; 2012). The majority are academic-oriented and nearly 24% (4,500) are foreign language learning cram schools. From 2007 to 2017, the number of cram schools has increased nearly 5% (by 900 schools); among them, the academic-oriented ones focusing on school subjects like Chinese and English languages and Science have the highest growth rate, approximately 15% (by 1403 schools). The number implies that although cram schooling is still prevalent in Taiwan, students’ test and academic pressure is still high.

Cram schools provide supplementary educational services for both students and parents in different ways. Students go to cram schools for many reasons, mostly for improving their test scores or getting into good universities. Although research has demonstrated the effectiveness of supplementary education in cram schools, few studies have investigated students’ general view of attending cram schools. Who can gain more progress and who can achieve a higher level of performance in cram schools? Very few studies address this issue. Therefore this pilot study focuses on investigating students’ views of attending cram schools for English learning.

Literature Review

Supplementary education or cram education or so-called shadow education (Stevenson, & Baker, 1992) is a type of educational activity that is pursued after school hours for the purpose of supporting students’ education in preparing for school tests and entrance exams (Stevenson, & Baker, 1992; Lowe, 2015). Supplementary education or cram education is extremely prevalent in Asian countries (Chou & Yuan, 2011; Dierkes &

Bray, 2011; Entrich, 2015; Lowe, 2015). Cram education has existed in Taiwan for decades and is still prevalent among all ages of students. The institutions which provide supplementary education are called “cram schools” or “Buxiban (補習班)” in Taiwan. According to their functions, crams schools are mainly categorized as academic cram schools and non-academic ones, which offer talent and skills classes. There is another type of supplementary education institutions known as “An-chinban (安親班)”, which also provides after school study but focuses more on looking after children and helping them with checking homework (Chou & Yuan, 2011). In both academic oriented cram schools and An-chinban (安親班), English tutoring is provided.

The existence of supplementary education / cram education is attributed to parents' expectations and the pressures of high competition for access to desired high schools and universities (Chou & Yuan, 2011; 隋學華, 2010; 劉國兆, 2013; Lowe, 2015). Cram schooling plays an important role in Taiwanese students' learning experience and educational activities. It has become part of the high school students' life (劉國兆, 2013). As an increasing number of cram schools in Taiwan, the effects on students' learning achievement have been extensively studied (Hsieh, 2001; 于若蓉、羅淇, 2003; 江芳盛 2006; 林大森、陳憶芬, 2006; 黃毅志、陳俊瑋, 2008; 銀慶貞、陶宏麟、洪嘉瑜, 2012; 隋學華, 2010), including the effectiveness of learning achievement and the relationship between students' attitudes toward cramming and learning achievement. Nevertheless, research still holds different views regarding who benefits from cram schooling.

In general, cramming is found to be helpful in improving students' academic achievements and entrance examinations(江芳盛, 2006; 黃毅志、陳俊瑋, 2008; 郭蕙禎, 2012; 劉國兆, 2013; Lowe, 2015). Studies indicated that cramming is helpful and has a positive influence on students' academic performance (郭蕙禎, 2012; 劉國兆, 2013; Chen, 2007) and entrance examinations(于若蓉、羅淇, 2003; Lowe, 2015). Students who attend cram school have a better chance to get into their expected high schools and universities. In addition, students who continuously attend cram schools make significant progress in their academic performance; however, as long as they stop cramming, their academic performance decreased (郭蕙禎, 2012).

However, another study by 林大森 and 陳憶芬(2006) has a different view. They argued that cramming did not necessarily improve students' overall scores on entrance examination. The effectiveness depends greatly on what subjects the students' were

cramming for and what grades students were in. In addition, weekly attendance hours and the number of cramming subjects (Math, English, Biology, etc.) could also affect the effectiveness of cramming. 黃毅志 and 陳俊瑋(2008) argued that too much academic cram schooling may worsen students' academic performance. The same results also can be found in 隋學華(2010)'s study. He posited that junior high school students' academic achievement started to decrease when the cramming time surpassed twelve hours per week.

Other factors such as students' attitude toward attending cram schools and the discrepancy between students' initial abilities were found to be crucial to the effectiveness of cramming (Hsei, 2001; 隋學華, 2010; 黃健倫, 2008; 銀慶貞、陶宏麟、洪嘉瑜, 2012). According to Hsei (2001), students' motivation in learning is highly correlated with their academic performance. Students' attitude toward cram schools and their attending motivation have a positive effect on students' mathematics scores. Students with a positive attitude toward cram schooling and a higher level of attending motivation achieve higher mathematics scores. Similarly, 林朝源 and 黃怡美 also found that students who voluntarily attended cram school had better attitudes and strategies for learning math (2012). In 隋學華(2010)'s study, he found that students' self-expectation is an important factor in predicting students' participation of cramming and academic achievement(隋學華, 2010). Students with a higher level of self-expectation tend to achieve higher academic achievement.

Furthermore, students' initial abilities might be another important factor needing to be discussed when examining the effects of cramming. A study done by 銀慶貞、陶宏麟、洪嘉瑜 (2012) found that without considering students' initial ability, the total effects of cramming tend to be overstated. Students with better initial abilities might not make as much progress as those who have lower initial ability in cram schooling. On the other hand, students who have selected their way to reinforce their academic performance would have higher academic performance no matter whether they attend a cram school or not. Therefore, when examining the effectiveness, learners' initial ability and motivation for learning should be taken into consideration.

Methods

Research design

To give a clearer picture of who benefits from English tutoring, a survey research design was adopted in this study. A (quantitative) questionnaire was designed to collect data. Factors such as gender, different attending motivation levels, and different

achievement levels were analyzed to determine how they affect students' views of attending cram schools. The research questions were: (1) how do students with different attending motivations differ in their view of cramming for English? (2) how do students with different achievement levels differ in their view of cramming for English?

Instrument

The instrument used in the present study was a Five-point Likert scale survey questionnaire. It was designed based on concepts from previous studies (Hsieh, 2001; Dong, Wu, & Cho, 2011). The survey questionnaire covered demographic information and scales testing students' views of attending cram schools. The questionnaire was in English for the first stage, and then it was translated into Chinese by the researchers. The reliability of the questionnaire was calculated before analyzing the data. The Cronbach's coefficients alpha were acceptable (Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.87$).

Participants and Data collection

The participants answered this survey were 162 elementary and junior high school students selected from a convenient sample of seven cram schools in the downtown area of Caotun Township. Only junior high school students' data were selected for analysis for this study. A total of 67 junior high school students, both males (32) and females (35) were included. They have been learning English for more than three years. To avoid confusion, the participants were given Chinese translated version of the questionnaire. The survey questionnaire was administered by the volunteer English teachers in the institutions (cram schools). The participants completed the questionnaire before they started the English class. An independent t-test was conducted to answer the research questions.

Results

Question 1: How do students with different attending motivations differ in their view of cramming for English?

Students' attending motivation was divided into two groups: the voluntarily attending group ($n = 32$) and the compulsory group ($n = 35$). An independent t-test was run on the data to determine whether attending motivation affected the view of cramming for English. The independent t-test result was statistically significant ($t(63.438) = 2.082, p = 0.05$), indicating that different attending motivations affect the participants' views. The mean scores and standard deviation of the view were given in Table 1. As can be seen in Table 1,

the voluntarily attending group ($M=17.28$, $SD=2.654$) showed a significantly higher level of helpfulness to their English learning than the compulsory group ($M= 15.94$, $SD=2.569$) with a difference of 1.34.

Table 1 Mean Score of the views for different attending motivation

Questionnaire Items	Attending motivation	
	compulsory (n=35)	voluntary (n=32)
1. Attending English cram schools is helpful to my English learning.	4.09 (.658)	4.50* (.665)
2. I think I can learn a lot of English in English cram schools.	4.06 (.694)	4.25 (.851)
3. After attending English cram schools, I have a better understanding of the learning content in regular school.	4.03 (.707)	4.25 (.792)
4. My English grades have improved after attending English cram schools.	3.83 (.985)	4.28 (1.039)

* $p < 0.05$

Question 2: how do students with different achievement levels differ in their views of cramming for English?

Again, an independent t -test was conducted to compare students' views of cramming for English in different achievement levels. Students' achievement level for this study was categorized as high (above 90) and low (under 90) levels. The result of independent t -test was statistically significant ($t(63.502) = -2.828$, $p = 0.006$). These results suggested that different achievement levels have an effect on students' views of cramming for English. The mean scores and standard deviation of the view are given in Table 2. Students with higher achievement levels ($M=17.50$, $SD= 2.341$) tend to perceive that cramming is helpful to them than those with lower achievement levels ($M=15.735$, $SD= 2.722$).

Table 2 Mean Score of the views for different achievement levels

Questionnaire Items	Achievement levels	
	low (n=34)	high (n=32)
1. Attending English cram schools is helpful to my English learning.	4.12 (.686)	4.45* (.617)
2. I think I can learn a lot of English in English cram schools.	3.97 (.758)	4.34* (.745)
3. After attending English cram schools, I have a better understanding of the learning content in regular school.	3.91 (.793)	4.36* (.603)
4. My English grades have improved after attending English cram schools.	3.74 (.864)	4.36* (.929)

* $p < 0.05$

Discussion and implication

The purpose of this study was to examine students' views of cramming for English. The study results showed two main findings. First, attending motivation has a positive effect on their views of cramming for English. Students who voluntarily attended cram schools showed a significantly higher level of helpfulness to their English learning than the compulsory group. That is, students with stronger learning motivation demonstrated a higher level of satisfaction and higher expectations from cramming. This observation support the study by 隋學華(2010), which showed that students with a higher level of self-expectation tend to achieve higher academic achievement (隋學華, 2010). As mentioned in 銀慶貞 et al (2012)'s study, students' learning performance is better when they are given the opportunity to select their favorite way to learn.

Second, among the attendees, students with higher achievement levels were more likely to perceive that cramming was helpful to them. They tend to believe that cramming helps them improve test scores and have a better understanding of the learning content in regular school. These observations can be explained by the rationale that high-achieving students may have gained benefits from cramming, such as making progress in test scores or improving their learning strategies. For this reason, high-achieving students continue their cramming because they want to maintain certain academic attainment. Although 銀慶貞 et al (2012) indicated that students with better initial abilities might not make as

much progress as those who have lower initial ability in cram schooling, this does not mean that students' views of helpfulness of cramming is weaker. This, we believe, calls for further study.

In conclusion, the observations from this study suggest that students' learning motivation plays an important role in learning performance and positive view of cramming. Self-motivated students will seek more opportunities to learn outside regular schooling. It is an important impetus to attain academic achievement.

Despite the evident limitations on students because of the sizes and the regional sampling, by understanding how cram school attendees view cram schooling, teachers in both regular schools and cram schools can reasonably analyze their own classroom practices. The issue of how to maintain students' learning motivation and encourage them for persistent learning is very important.

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Old Dogs Learn New Tricks – The Case of Senior Employees’ Adopting Cloud English Written Communication Learning

Yu-Jia Chou*

Graduate Institute of Human Resource Management National Changhua University of
Education

Judy F. Chen

Language Center of Overseas Chinese University

Abstract

As the Internet accessibility increases, cloud training may offer an effective medium of enhancing employees’ communicational competence. Due to the tightness of the manpower supplying Taiwan, the average age at retirement has been postponed over years. It is critical that senior employees who are becoming the main force in a workplace need to possess with good international oral and written communication skills to enable companies to employ effective global logistics and expand overseas. Because of employees’ working-time constraint, cloud learning may provide a good solution to increase their English written communication skills. Accordingly, this study conducted a three months computer-assisted feedback teaching experiment with total twelve English written assignments to examine senior employees’ cloud learning adoption. The results indicated that seniority is positively related to persistency and performances which showed senior employee learners were more studious and persistent on finishing every assignment, comparing to junior employee learners. It showed that the senior employees were good at adopting cloud English written communication. The findings of this study provide an important reference resource to human resource departments for planning trainings for different employee types at workplace.

Keywords: Senior Employees’ Training, Cloud Learning, English Written Communication Skills, Human Resource Management

*Corresponding author

老狗學新把戲—

以中高齡員工採用雲端學習英文書面溝通能力為例

周鈺家*

彰化師範大學人力資源管理研究所

陳富美

僑光科技大學語言中心

摘要

台灣面臨人口老齡化及少子化的現象，退休年齡之後延是台灣人力運用的趨勢，人力部署方式亦需隨之調整，中高齡員工亦將是了企業推展全球化的主力部隊，國際語言溝通能力，也就是，英文書面溝通能力，為企業推展全球化的重要工具，故如何有效的增進員工的國際語言溝通能力，是人力資源發展之重要議題。隨著網際網路之普及，有限資源及時間的運用上，雲端訓練的模式亦漸為企業訓練之選項，也同時提供企業節約訓練成本的模式。一般的觀念認為中高齡員工相對於資淺年輕員工，對新科技新技術的學習模式接受度較低，效果也較差。有鑑於此，本研究調查台灣企業中高齡員工採用雲端學習英文書面溝通能力之實際狀況，針對參與員工進行為期 3 個月的雲端實驗教學，本研究結果顯示中高齡員工相對於資淺年輕員工，更有毅力地運用雲端學習平台來學習，年資與學習毅力及學習成效呈現正向關係，研究結果也呈現出中高齡員工在雲端英文溝通能力有良好表現。本研究除了驗證雲端英文溝通能力的訓練為有效訓練模式之一外，本研究結果更可做為未來中高齡員工國際溝通力訓練的課程規畫之參考依據。

關鍵字：中高齡員工企業訓練、雲端訓練、英文書面溝通能力、人力資源發展

*通訊作者

INTRODUCTION

McLuhan (1964) brought out the concept of global village, which means the globe has been contracted into a village by electric technology and the instantaneous movement of information from one place to other places at the same time. Under the circumstance, the synchronization of electronic media makes the human society form a close relationship. The economic globalization is concreting into business strategies, which the productive resources of countries, such as goods, services, technologies, information and capital are through cross-border movements to achieve optimal portfolio. As a consequence, written English becomes a necessary tool in workplace to communicate globally via emails, Twitter, Skype, Line, and so on. Therefore, the competence of English written communication skill has become one of corporate training programs that help prospective owners launch new businesses efficiently (McKenzie & Woodruff, 2014). Because of the importance of English written communication skill, many English training programs having been introduced into many industries. However, requiring employees to sit in the classroom to learn, right after a long day work, may not be efficient. Consequently, digital learning has grown in popularity as a learning model in these years. The design of an e-learning system can fulfill the needs of globally distributed work for their converting and negotiating business matters (Paretti, McNair & Holloway-Attaway, 2007).

Based on the survey of Ministry of Labor in Taiwan, senior aged labor force participation rate has been increasing in recent five years, meaning that people are postponing retirement. Furthermore, aging society coupled with low birth rate cause tightness of the manpower supplying. The longer they stay in workplace, the more effort they should contribute to their organizations. Since many individuals are facing the reality of working longer, they are supposed to make every effort in adapting to rapidly changed working conditions. Information and communication technology as well as the Internet are the driving force behind many new e-applications adopted by businesses and the government in this era (Iddris, 2012; Alghamdi & Beloff, 2014), while these researches did not support the aged employees can adopt new learning technology like e-learning well. The success of e-learning projects depends on users' adoption and attitudes, based on the technology acceptance model (Davis, 1989). Some may think that the senior employees could secure their job positions due to their tenure and experiences, lacking of modern technical skills and interest. The senior employees may neither perceive usefulness nor ease-of-use, which affected their attitudes toward using and behavioral intention to use of adopting new learning method. Therefore, new technology style training program might not be easy to be

adopted by senior employees who would only have their daily routine, leading to limited contribution at work.

Contrast to employers’ thoughts, there are real benefits to keeping people on the job later in life. Older workers offer a balance to younger workers in terms of work style, expectations and institutional knowledge (Leopold, 2016). Therefore, considering some strategies for keeping your employees healthy and engaged at any age has become the importance of management. In the current study, followed by the concept of the technology acceptance model (Davis, 1989), the senior learners can easily adopt cloud English written skill communication learning by perceiving ease of use and usefulness.

LITERATURE REVIEW

English Written Communication Skill

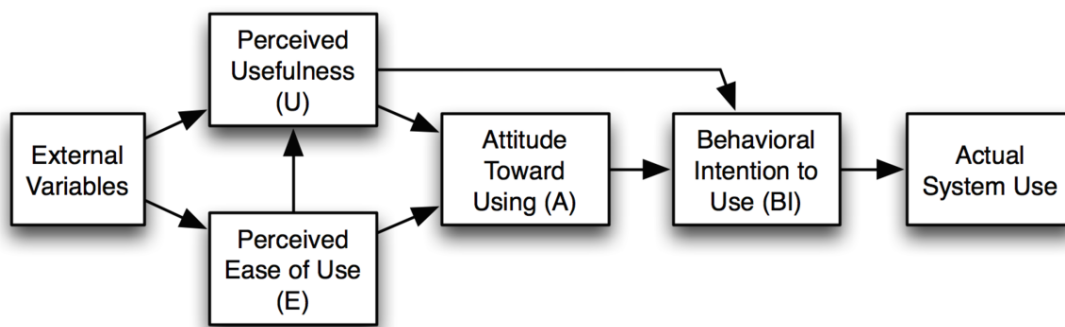
Information and communication technology as well as the Internet are the driving force in a competitive global market. With the rise of Internet accessibility and smartphones in the majority of countries, instant communication is now a global phenomenon. In order to have dominant strategy of superiority in the market competition, international enterprises need to have employees with a good command of international language, i.e., English. Also, with the common uses of mobile messaging apps like Facebook Messenger, Twitter, Line, WeChat and WhatsApp, one has more intentions to communicate by written communicating. To obtain the latest information in the rapidly changed market, employees have to be equipped with not only professional skills but also their English communication skills. English oral and written communication skills have become a powerful medium to better fit their job requirements (Schulz, 2008). According to opinions of international supervisors, they commonly agree that their subordinates’ ability in international language communication is lower than their expectation (May & Strong, 2006). In a study from Silicon Valley, employers believed that oral and written communication skills need improvement. It also pointed out that employers prefer their employees with stronger writing skills and have more training on professional uses of emails (Stevens, 2005). Regretfully, in engineering education, technology-oriented discipline tends to offer specialized subjects instead of offering effective technical communicating skills (Wojahn, Dyke, Riley, Hensel& Brown, 2001). Therefore, for the better usefulness of these technical talents, English written communication skill is one of urgent tasks in corporate training programs.

However, a generally acknowledged fact is that cultivating English written skill takes effort and mastering a foreign language takes years’ practice. Without proper

guidance or environment, it is quite difficult to master oral and written communication skills. A proper English writing training includes base grammar using, eligible social language using, composition constructing and patterned language (Canale & Swain, 1980; Canale, 1983). Furthermore, maintaining learners' motivation and satisfaction for building written communication skills effectively has also come to the attention of human resource development field. Organizations achieve their objectives and strategies through the use of several channels to provide better trainings, reduces cost and efforts, make employees feel more convenient, and empower them to effectively participate in the workplace. Although there has been a boom in the e-learning industry leading to an increase in the number of studies on electronic educational technology in Taiwan, which either focused on performance evaluation (Hung and Zhang, 2012; Wu et al., 2012) or development of evaluation method (Shee and Wang, 2008; Yu, Chang & Chen, 2016). Therefore, in the current study, we use a computer-based English written training program to find out how employees adopt Cloud English Written Communication Learning Program among different age brackets. We also try to evaluate the persistency and performances of learners through the discrete, integrative and objective assignments in the English written training program.

Technology Acceptance Model in Cloud Learning of English Written Skill

Technology Acceptance Model (TAM), proposed by Davis (1989), suggested how users come to accept and use a technology. The model suggests that some factors influence users' decision about how and when they will use it, when users are presented with a new technology (Davis, Bagozzi & Warshaw, 1989), as Figure 1. Ease of use and usefulness are two technology acceptance measures, which form an intention to act (Davis, Bagozzi & Warshaw, 1989). The TAM provides the basis for predicting the level of use of new technology, where external factors influence internal attitudes and intentions, which in turn influence use. The employees who perceive usefulness and ease of use to the digital based training programs would actually use the training system. Accessibility and knowledge are major determinants that support the success of digital employee training. Digital employee training is based on educational technology, in which web-based learning or online learning is another common name of e-learning or cloud learning. It is a practice of facilitating learning and improving performance by creating, using, and managing appropriate technological processes and resources (Richey, 2008).



The Technology Acceptance Model (Davis, Bagozzi & Warshaw 1989)

Because of the advanced computer technology, training courses or services can pass on to the learners through computer-assisted programs, featuring distance learning, nonsynchronous / synchronous learning and digital resource transmitting via the Internet (Almala, 2006). Cloud English written communication skill learning provides mobility and allows altered timing, location, accessibility and context of learning. With accessibility of Internet and various portable electronic devices, learners are able to learn online. Three basic models of digital training are self-paced independent study, asynchronous interactive, and synchronous learning (Ryan, 2001). Synchronous interactive online training features live broadcast teaching and immediacy of interaction, which gathers trainees and trainers from different locations. Asynchronous interactive online training employs learning management system to assign and evaluate the tasks while trainers upload teaching materials and trainees undertake self-paced independent study. Most of digital trainings incorporate asynchronous interactive with synchronous learning (Ryan, 2001). Since cloud English learning program fits the needs of the learners through synchronous or asynchronous interaction, learners can solve their instant problems, get immediate feedbacks and enjoy flexibility in learning. Learners may find it both effective and convenient, this way they perceive usefulness. Amid digital training, employees buy their time of plowing thoughts (Karayan & Crowe, 1997) and to avoid embarrassment of asking questions in face-to-face classes. Asynchronous online programs encourage employees to actively control and participate in classes and to ask questions through online messages or emails. Combined with appropriate guidance, digital training can be more effective (MaGrath, 1998). Altogether, these soothe the learners’ pressure on learning English. Learners will find it free and easy while taking digital training classes, and then they perceive easy to use.

Some researchers pointed out that e-learning was beneficial to those learners with positive and independent learning attitudes enjoy self-learning on their time schedules. Most important of all, they only need to possess basic computer skills (Souder, 1993; Shaw, 1996). In light of the TAM, the learners’ attitudes toward using

depends on if they consider the cloud English written learning program useful and easy to use. When they find out the advantages of cloud learning, employees are more willing to take practice in digital training models.

Senior Employees Adopt Cloud English Written Communication Learning

Lack of acceptance of digital training is the main hindrance for employees from attaining a successful adoption process. Some people might enjoy the advantages of computer-assisted programs while some might not be suitable for web-based learning due to the peculiarity of educational technology (Golonka, Bowles, Frank, Richardson & Freynik, 2014). Age was an important demographic variable that had a significant impact on behavioral intention and acceptance of technology (Porter & Donthu, 2006). It was expected that the senior employees would have less skill and motivation to acquire and use of digital training models. The young are more likely to visit commercial websites and utilize their services than older generation. It does not mean that some experienced employees are technology-averse. Nonetheless, it is perceived that aged people no longer want to learn new things and grow (Leopold, 2016).

With the rise of Internet accessibility and smartphones in the majority of countries, instant messaging is now a global phenomenon. There are booming users hooked on messaging apps, such as Facebook Messenger, Twitter, Line, WeChat and WhatsApp. These on-line communication apps have becoming popular in interpersonal interaction in disparity of age brackets. Information overflows among cellphone users through messaging apps. In fact, The Huffington Post showed that half of online users are seniors (Emling, 2013), with 78 percent of them using the Internet and many of these individuals describing themselves as heavy users (Emling, 2013). Not only do the Internet serve as a way of encouraging business (Iddris, 2012), but also do some business education. If the apps are designed to be easy to use, they may be widely accepted by most aged brackets. The senior employees who only equip with basic computer skills (Souder, 1993; Shaw, 1996) can easily access to use cloud database. Their willingness to learn and to find new ways to seek information is a great factor to adopt the digital English written training (Leopold, 2016).

It is unavoidable that it may take a bit of extra effort to get the older workers up to speed when an enterprise has new software or equipment upgrades or new online tools to deploy in the workplace. Giving clear messaging about benefits and targets are appealing to senior workers. With a user-friendly interface of a cloud English written learning program, the senior employee will perceive the usefulness and ease of use. It will promote the acceptance of cloud English written communication skill learning and then enhance their behavioral use. Senior employees who have deep industry knowledge and understanding of how the company has evolved could be the

main force to organizations. Alhassan (2012) pointed out that friendship and congruence with the institution were important factors in a decision to persist in learning. Therefore, we propose that the senior employees will have better persistency and performance once perceiving usefulness and ease of use in digital learning program. The current study focuses on the senior employees’ adoption of cloud English learning in organizations.

METHODOLOGY

Sample and Measure

We conducted this study by employing observational method and qualitative interview, as age and tenure is one of demographic factors that affect the intention of senior employees to adopt cloud English learning. We offered three months digital English writing skill training in sampled enterprises, including a semiconductor company, a testing certification company, an international tourist hotel, and a joint venture manufacturer. The participants recruited were volunteers who got the training information through human resources departments in four sampled companies. Afterwards, qualitative interviews were employed. We provided every participant with a set of online learning account and password, which is sponsored by QBook Writing Center (<https://writingcenter.qbook.org>). The sample enterprises had been providing English training programs. To avoid bias of results in the current research, the participants who were not taking any English training class during the experiment were selected. None of the participants had experience in online learning but had basic computer operating skills and Internet accessibility. In this digital teaching experiment, the trainer and trainees only use online messages and emails to communicate each another.

Procedure

The trainer gave an introduction of process of the digital English writing skill training via emails. It took two weeks to see if there were problems of using the online system. Total of 55 participants from four different types of enterprises participated in taking the 3-month digital English writing skill training. We gave a first quiz and graded it as a valuation of pretest. The trainer gave a writing assignment each week and requested trainees to complete the assignment in seven days. Each participant had 12 assignments in total. All the assignments have been carefully examined and checked by the experienced corporate English teachers. Participants have been given computer-assisted feedback combining with teachers’ comments on their homework before next assignment is given. In the meantime, we conducted a

qualitative interview survey on participants to investigate how they view the teaching material, teaching methods and the difficulties of writing skill training. At the end of the experiment, we gave a final quiz and graded it as a result of posttest to testify if participants perform better by comparing the grades of pretest quiz and posttest quiz. We also assessed the progression from each assignment if learners had better grades by using the computer-assisted program.

DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

This research is based on qualitative results where survey is only limited to systematic observation. After this 3-month period of digital English writing skill training program for 12 assignments, we analyzed the demography of the participants. The demographic data of the sample is shown in Table 1. After carefully monitoring the progression of every learner and collecting empirical information, we found that 55 learners completed 309 assignments. There are 20 male learners and 35 female learners. Male took up 36.4% completed 39.8% assignments while female learners took up 63.6% completed 70.2% assignments. It indicated that female learners showed higher percentage on finishing every assignment and performed better comparing to male learners. And also female learners had better performance than male learners. Focused intentions to the senior employees' adoption of cloud English written communication skill learning, the age is the most important observed variable. The research results revealed that 13 (age 41~50) senior learners completed 102 assignments, which means 23% of them yielded 33% of total assignments. Especially, their average performance reached 92.4. It showed that the senior employees were good at adopting cloud English written communication skills. In comparison, 17 (age 21~30) learners completed 62 assignments, which indicated 30.9% younger employees only finished 20% assignments. As for education background, employees with bachelor degree have more interest in digital learning; 35 of 55 learners took the training and also completed 65% assignment.

TABLE 1 DEMOGRAPHIC FREQUENCY STATISTIC

Gender	Number (%)	Number of Assignment (%)	Average Performance
Male	20 (36.4%)	88 (39.8%)	85.87
Female	35 (63.6%)	221 (70.2%)	89.95
Total	55	309	
Age	Number (%)		
21~30	17 (30.9%)	62 (20.0%)	92.9
31~40	25 (45.5%)	145 (47%)	90.28
41~50	13 (23.6%)	102 (33%)	92.4
Total	55	309	
Education	Number (%)		
High School & diploma	2 (3.6%)	14 (4.5%)	87.5
Bachelor	35 (63.7%)	201 (65.0%)	87.6
Master	17 (30.9%)	90 (29.2%)	90.3
Ph.D.	1 (1.8%)	4 (1.3%)	92.0
Total	55	309	

CONCLUSION

The results of the current study had showed that the aged employees completed more assignments and better performance. Indicating that seniority is positively related to persistency and performance, which showed senior employee learners were more studious and persistent on finishing every assignment, comparing to junior employee learners. The results also showed that the senior employees were good at adopting cloud English written communication skill learning. According to TAM (Davis, Bagozzi & Warshaw, 1989), the senior employees consider the cloud English written learning program both useful and easy to use. Consequently, they adopted digital training well and also revealed their perseverance and diligence in workplace. Furthermore, we also conducted qualitative interview randomly to our participants inquiring about their e-learning feedback. Most learners expressed that they have improved their skills in self-directed learning, mobile application using, cloud learning accepting and information searching. As for English written

communication, they indicated that they had learned basic grammar using, eligible social language using, composition constructing, and patterned language approaching in English. Overall, the senior learners developed their self-educational styles by active learning, monitoring assessing, and regulating.

Senior employees are not white elephant in organizations; in fact, they are eager to keep abreast of the trends. To gain talents' competitive edges, corporates devote every effort to cultivate employees' competency in English written communication skills. An effective model of business English writing skill training is necessary for enterprises. Presently, digital training has become a common trend. Promoting digital business English written communication skill training is important for the need of corporates. Considering trainees' differentiation in learning attitude of different age brackets, customized design of writing skill e-training could be possible for reaching learning efficiency. The preliminary research contributes some available data for constructing strategy of management level training. Senior learners seem to be more self-motivating, self-regulating, and self-developing. These research findings provide a reference for human resource departments in optimizing online business English training programs.

This study only focused on the adoption of cloud learning in English communication written skill, which is just a beginning of training program in HR. For the future research, one can try the acquisition of digital model training as an organizational level judgment, the process of knowledge assimilation, and the integration assessment in terms of the user behavior within the organization. In the future, by merging the organizational adoption and user acceptance of digital model training, enterprises could fully expand aged employees' potentials.

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“Tintern Abbey” and the Formation of a Poetical Self

Tzu-fu Wang

Department of Applied Foreign Languages
National Yunlin University of Science and Technology

Mei-yun Ko*

Department of Applied Foreign Languages
National Formosa University

Abstract

This article attempts to interpret William Wordsworth’s poem “Tintern Abbey” in relation to his development as the poet of *The Recluse*. The article argues that after his disappointment with the French Revolution, Wordsworth turns to Nature for consolation as is manifested in the poem “Tintern Abbey.” The poem “Tintern Abbey,” a crisis poem in nature, serves for Wordsworth as a poetic restoration in the growth of a poet. This poetic restoration helps the poet find his real identity as the prophet poet of *The Recluse*. Arguing from this perspective, this article discusses Wordsworth’s poetic restoration when he turns to Nature, the human heart, and creative imagination for his poetic development.

Keywords: Wordsworth, British Romanticism, Tintern Abbey

*Corresponding author

“亭潭寺”與詩人自我的形成

王子富

國立雲林科技大學應用外語系

柯美雲*

國立虎尾科技大學應用外語系

摘要

本論文探討“亭潭寺”一詩在華茲華斯作為詩人身分認同的重要關鍵點。華茲華斯在他對法國大革命失望後，一直渴望寫出一部鉅作『隱士』作為時代道德的指引，而“亭潭寺”這首詩為華茲華斯發展方向重要的轉捩點。詩人由政治狂熱轉而投向大自然、人性的善良、及想像力的懷抱中尋求詩的慰藉。

關鍵詞：華茲華斯、英國浪漫主義、亭潭寺

*通訊作者

Introduction

What is commonly known as the poem entitled “Tintern Abbey” is hardly about that ruin, which, at the time when Wordsworth composed the poem, had become a dwelling place of beggars and the wretchedly poor. Its full title is “Lines Written a Few Miles Above Tintern Abbey, on revisiting the banks of Wye during a tour, July 13, 1798.” Because of this, Levinson in her study of the poem points out the fact that there is no mention of Tintern Abbey in the poem. This becomes her deconstructive fulcrum to argue that Wordsworth has deliberately left out what she calls “the life of things,” that is, the actual presence of the poor people huddled in the actual edifice of the abbey and the historical and socio-economic situation of the Wye River Valley. Levinson concludes, “whatever interpretation we choose, we are bound to see that Wordsworth’s pastoral prospect is a fragile affair, artfully assembled by acts of exclusion” (32). Levinson’s approach to Wordsworth’s poetry represents that of the New Historicism which deliberately digs out absences in the text to support its deconstructive Marxist interpretation.

However, the reason that there is no mention of Tintern Abbey in the poem is that the poem is not about the edifice Tintern Abbey, but about Wordsworth’s poetic restoration after his disappointment with the Revolution. The cure Wordsworth has found in feeling, sympathy, and the human heart enables him to become a poet of human suffering, listening to “The still, sad music of humanity” (*Tintern Abbey*, L. 9). Wordsworth’s emphasis on feeling, especially those simple forms of feeling he experienced in “low and rustic life,” implies some political significance. By saying that all human emotions matter, Wordsworth is advocating his republic ideal that all human beings have rights. Through feeling and sympathy, the difference between human beings dissolves and all human beings become universal brotherhood. On January 14, 1801, Wordsworth sent the two-volume *Lyrical Ballads* to Fox, the Wig Leader of the opposition, and claimed that the poems, “Michael,” and “The Brothers,” intended “to show that men who do not wear fine clothes can feel deeply” (*Letters* 1984: 43). In “The Old Cumberland Beggar” Wordsworth believes that kindness to other people is natural to us because “we have all of us one human heart” (L. 153). Therefore, the universal benevolence Wordsworth and other reformists have envisioned is to be realized not through the abstract reasoning of Necessitarianism, but through this “one human heart.”

In the following pages we will trace the development of Wordsworth’s poetic restoration in “Tintern Abbey” by arguing the poem, a crisis poem in nature, actually serves for Wordsworth as an poetic restoration which starts the formation of his

identity as the prophet poet of *The Recluse* when he turns to Nature, the human heart, and creative imagination for his poetic career.

Poetic Restoration after Political Disappointment

Wordsworth’s poetical, as well as moral and spiritual, rehabilitation begins during his days at Alfoxden (1789-99), where Nature, the affections and supports from Dorothy, and intellectual guidance from Coleridge all have helped him find confidence in himself and new faith in his election as a poet-prophet. The poem “Tintern Abbey” is in fact a celebration of Wordsworth’s newly found faith in Nature as well as his creative imagination; nevertheless, the poem is not without its uncertainties and doubts. In this sense, *Tintern Abbey* represents an important milestone in Wordsworth’s poetic development. It is “a coda to the months of mutual influence and creativity Wordsworth had shared with Dorothy and Coleridge since mid-1797, when most of the *Lyrical Ballads* were written” (Roe 268). Wordsworth’s restorative power in *Tintern Abbey* is the strength drawn from the remembered landscape with the aid of creative imagination. This restorative power in turn enables Wordsworth to write the two-part *Prelude* at Goslar in the following winter out of which Wordsworth developed his full length *Prelude*. Harold Bloom remarked, “*Tintern Abbey* (July 1798) is a miniature of the long poem Wordsworth never quite wrote, the philosophical and autobiographical epic of which *The Prelude*, the *Recluse* fragment, and *The Excursion* would have been only parts. As such, *Tintern Abbey* is a history in little of Wordsworth’s imagination” (*The Visionary Company*, 131). From the perspective that *Tintern Abbey* describes how Wordsworth turns his political disappointment to his poetic gain, the poem indeed is a history of Wordsworth’s imagination.

The revolutionary millennium Wordsworth had hope for with his generation-- “a time when Europe was rejoiced / France standing on the top of golden hours/ And human nature seeming born again” (*The Prelude*, VI, 552-4) -- had failed to realize. And “it was failure that made Wordsworth a poet” (Roe 275). The idea of *The Recluse* for Wordsworth and Coleridge is to offer a philosophical consolation for his generation after the collapse of the Revolution in France and the associated failure of reform in England. Similarly, Wordsworth’s *Tintern Abbey* is to cope with the crisis of a disillusioned generation and to turn the experience of defeat to “food/ For future years.” How does Wordsworth manage to turn loss into gain? Wordsworth turns political loss to creative gain by the new strength he finds in Nature and the sublime Imagination inspired by Coleridge’s One Life philosophy. The history of Wordsworth’s imagination is thus presented in a loss and gain narrative, or a narrative of despondency and despondency corrected. In other words, it is a conversion story of

how one has gone astray and then finds the right way again, a mode of writing we may call a narrative from crisis to restoration.

Tintern Abbey juxtaposes the Wordsworth of 1793 and the Wordsworth of 1798. For Wordsworth there is difference between the former self of 1793 and the present self of 1798. In 1793 Wordsworth was depressed and very much in need of moral support. France and England were at war and as a consequence he could not possibly return to France to see Annette and his daughter. A literary career seemed very far away from him while a career in politics was hardly possible for a devotee of Republicanism and a defender for regicide in 1793. In all respects, the prospects for Wordsworth at that time were bleak. In July Wordsworth left with his friend William Calvert for the Isle of Wight, where they saw the British fleet preparing to sail against the French. It is no doubt that Wordsworth was brooding morbidly on the current political situation during the tour, and this made him an unpleasant traveling company. As a result, Wordsworth and Calvert soon parted company. Wordsworth therefore set off on a solitary walk across Salisbury Plain. This solitary travelling experience across Salisbury Plain was a major formative experience in his literary life. When Wordsworth arrived in Bath, he walked on to Bristol, crossed the Severn and followed the Wye Valley past Tintern Abbey, making his way on into Wales to Plas yn Llan, the home of Robert Jones, his companion on the walking tour of 1790 (Williams 45-49). The Wordsworth of 1793 was a person beset with personal uncertainty and indecision. This period was for Wordsworth “a time of intense personal dislocation, and of social and political turmoil” (Ibid. 13). Not only did the Wordsworth of 1793 reveal his early revolutionary self but the dates in the subtitle of *Tintern Abbey*, “July 13, 1798,” also touched deep memories and significant associations for Wordsworth. The significance of the date, “July 13,” is meticulously discussed by Levinson, who finds that the date “July 13, 1798, marked almost to the day the nine-year anniversary of the original Bastille Day (the eight-year anniversary of Wordsworth’s first visit to France), and the five-year anniversary of the murder of Marat, also the date of Wordsworth’s first visit to Tintern Abbey” (16). From the implications of the date we can infer that *Tintern Abbey* is connected with France and the Wordsworth of 1798 is continuous with his revolutionary self of 1793.

From Love of Nature to Love of Man

In 1798 at Alfoxden imaginative strength was restored to Wordsworth by Nature, Dorothy, and Coleridge. He regained his confidence through a reciprocal influence with Nature and therefore he dared to pursue his great career as the poet of *The Recluse*. The Wordsworth of 1798 had a definite goal for himself and the

prospect was hopeful despite of the fact that there were still some uncertainties in his life. The Alfoxden lease could not be renewed because of their neighbors’ suspicion of their being anti-government Jacobins. In the spring of 1798 they were ready to depart. Before the Wordsworths left for Germany in September, they went on a sentimental tour to the valleys and hills of Wales where Wordsworth had visited on his first return to England after his traumatic days in France. On July 10, 1798, they went on their walking tour from Bristol up the Wye Valley and back. The tour took four days, from July 10 to 13, 1798. With Dorothy for company this time, Wordsworth was in an elevated mood, completely different from the first visit five years earlier when he was alone and in an agitated mood. When the Wordsworth of 1798 looked back to the Wordsworth of 1793, it seemed almost an experience of conversion, or a story of despondency corrected. The difference between the Wordsworth of 1793 and the Wordsworth of 1798 can also be seen in the different ways of treating Nature in *Descriptive Sketches* (1792) and *Tintern Abbey* (1798). Both poems are about remembered landscapes. In *Descriptive Sketches* the remembered landscape acts as an effective vehicle for social comment in the tradition of loco-descriptive poetry; and the poetry of Nature is executed as an act of memory. It is a series of re-visiting when the past memories confirm the restless and painful fluidity of the present:

--The mind condemn’d, without reprieve, to go
O’er life’s long deserts with its charge of woe,
With sad congratulation joins the train,
Where beasts and men together o’er the plain
Move on, -- a mighty caravan of pain. . . (ll. 191-5)

In *Tintern Abbey* Wordsworth emphasizes the strength to be drawn from the remembered landscape; therefore the past memories possess a healing power and become sources of ecstasy. The poetry of Nature is executed by the unifying power of the imagination where the “beauteous forms” of remembered landscape offer the poet the glory of the soul in which “the heavy and the weary weight / Of all this unintelligible world / Is lightened.”

that blessed mood,
In which the burthen of the mystery,
In which the heavy and the weary weight
Of all this unintelligible world,
Is lightened—that serene and blessed mood,

In which the affections gently lead us on—
Until, the breath of this corporeal frame
And even the motion of our human blood
Almost suspended, we are laid asleep
In body, and become a living soul;
While with an eye made quiet by the power
Of harmony, and the deep power of joy,
We see into the life of things. (ll. 37-48)

From the difference between these two phases, Wordsworth presented his new self of 1798 as a Prodigal Son returned and his earlier self as a Prodigal Son. A Prodigal Son returned is a self that is redeemed by Nature while a Prodigal Son is one that is still unredeemed by Nature. An example of a self that is unredeemed by Nature is in the character of Peter Bell. *Peter Bell*, a tale, begun in April 1798, tells a story of conversion by superstition while the character Pedlar, Wordsworth's ideal sage, is the example of a self that is redeemed by Nature. In one sense, Peter Bell represents a satanic, unredeemed version of The Pedlar. Peter Bell also personifies the unredeemed aspect of nature itself; that is, all the senseless and unfeeling brutality of the natural world. Wordsworth thus describes Peter Bell:

A savage wildness round him hung
As of a dweller out of doors;
In his whole figure and his mien
A savage character was seen
Of mountains and of dreary moors
To all the unshaped half human thoughts
Which solitary Nature feeds
Mid summer's storms or winter's ice,
Had Peter joined whatever vice
The cruel city breeds. (ll. 266-75)

And Wordsworth describes The Pedlar as follows:

From Nature and her overflowing soul
He had received so much that all his thoughts
Were steeped in feeling. . .
If such his transports were; for in all things

He saw one life, and felt it was joy. (ll. 204-6, 217-8)

It is apparent that the Wordsworth of 1793 can be viewed as a version of Peter Bell, whose “savage wildness” and “savage character” are present to some degree in Wordsworth’s description of his earlier self:

. . . when first
I came among these hills; when like a roe
I bounded o’er the mountains, by the sides
Of the deep rivers, and the lonely streams,
Wherever nature led—more like a man
Flying from something that he dreads than one
Who sought the thing he loved. (ll. 66-72)

The Wordsworth of 1798 can be viewed as a version of the Pedlar, that is, a self redeemed by Nature and hence capable of linking the love of Nature with the love of Man. The redeemed self is taught by Nature to love humanity through sympathy and understanding:

For I have learned
To look on nature, not as in the hour
Of thoughtless youth; but hearing often times
The still, sad music of humanity.
Nor harsh nor grating, though of ample power
To chasten and subdue. (ll. 88-93)

Keats understands that the greatness of Wordsworth’s poetry lies in “The still, sad music of humanity.” Milton and Wordsworth were both great in respect of greatness of the Mind, but Milton “did not think into the human heart, as Wordsworth has done” (*LJK*, 1: 278). Wordsworth’s imagination needs the nurture of experience, which makes the mind responsive to the suffering of humanity. Keats remarks in his letter to his brother and sister-in-law in America:

Do you not see how necessary a World of Pains and troubles is to school an Intelligence and make it a soul? A Place where the heart must feel and suffer in a thousand diverse ways! Not merely is the Heart a Hornbook, it is the Minds Bible, it is the Minds experience, it is the teat from which the Mind or intelligence sucks its identity. (Ibid.)

Wordsworth's thinking heart, that is, the powers of the mind buttressed by the human heart, is what made him to see into "the life of things." And it is this imaginative power that links the love of Nature with the love of Man. In the great final lines of *Intimations Ode*, Wordsworth expresses his indebtedness to the faculty for the human heart:

The clouds that gather round the setting sun
Do take a sober colouring from an eye
That hath kept watch o'er man's mortality;
Another race hath been, and other palms are won.
Thanks to the human heart by which we live,
Thanks to its tenderness, its joy, and fears
To me the meanest flower that blows can give
Thoughts that do often lie too deep for tears. (ll. 97-204)

Wordsworthian Imagination

Besides Nature and the Human Heart, the most important and fundamental element that shapes Wordsworth's poetical self is the imagination, "man's unconquerable mind." Wordsworth calls this faculty of the imagination "my genial spirits." Through the intellectual exchange with Coleridge, this faculty of the imagination goes beyond the realm of naturalism into the realm of metaphysics. It is associated with the "sense sublime / Of something far more deeply interfused" (ll. 95-6). This gives the imagination not only a dimension of transcendence but also that of sublimity. It is this aspect of the imagination that links Nature with the Human Heart in the philosophy of One Life, which Wordsworth and Coleridge had been discussing during their intimate association at Alfoxden. The philosophy of One Life is given expression in Coleridge's *Religious Musings* and conversation poems and also in Wordsworth's *Tintern Abbey* and *The Pedlar*. Coleridge in an early conversation poem, "The Eolian Harp" (1795), expressed his view of One Life in Nature:

And what if all of animated nature
Be but organic Harps diversely fram'd,
That tremble into thought, as o'er them sweeps,
Plastic and vast, one intellectual Breeze,
At once the Soul of each, and God of all? (ll. 36-40)

What Coleridge thought of as One Life is “an intellectual force that animates man and nature, moves a mind to a more perfect consciousness of its individuality and place in the world, and provides a metaphysical, rather than a material and social, ground for consciousness” (Magnuson 143). Wordsworth expresses the idea that man and nature are to be united in a total harmony, permeated by a single life-force in *Tintern Abbey*:

A motion and a spirit that impels
All thinking things, all objects of all thought,
And rolls through all things. (ll. 101-103)

Unlike Coleridge, who uses the One Life to provide a metaphysical ground for consciousness, Wordsworth tends to use it for social consciousness; that is, Wordsworth uses the idea of sympathetic vibrations (Coleridge’s intellectual Breeze) to “conceive of man and nature in a social relationship and to apply that sympathy to social issues”(Ibid.). The different temperaments between Coleridge and Wordsworth are clear here: Coleridge’s mode of thought tends to be metaphysical while Wordsworth’s is moral and down-to-earth, or in Coleridge’s term, Wordsworth’s “matter-of-factness.” Wordsworth will be the poet of *Peter Bell*, who refuses to escape from the real world by floating off through the clouds in a little boat shaped like the crescent moon, and will always be back to earth to tell some children the story of Peter Bell. It is this moral aspect of Wordsworth’s imagination that links the love of Nature with the love of Man.

The typical narrative mode of the growth of Wordsworth’s mind is that of loss and gain. In Miltonic terms, it is a narrative from Paradise lost to Paradise regained. But the loss as Wordsworth confesses in *Tintern Abbey* does not seem to be accepted by contemporary New Historicist critics. In their view, the loss should be a political one in the historical and biographical context,; but Wordsworth turns what should have been a political loss in the eyes of Marxist-oriented critics to a loss of the unmediated vision of Nature enjoyed by a child:

--I cannot paint
What then I was. The sounding cataract
Haunted me like a passion; the tall rock,
The mountain, and the deep and gloomy wood.
Their colors and their forms, were then to me
an appetite; a feeling and a love,
That had no need of a remoter charm,

By thought supplied, nor any interest
Unborrowed from the eye. –That time is past,
And all its aching joys are now no more,
And all its dizzy raptures. . . (ll. 76-85)

In *Intimations Ode* we find that Wordsworth continues to develop the theme of the unmediated vision of Nature enjoyed by a child as “the visionary gleam.” Wordsworth believes that “other gifts / Have followed; for such loss, . . . / Abundant recompense” (*Tintern Abbey*, 86-88). In *Intimation Ode* Wordsworth shows us what these “other gifts” are:

Thought nothing can bring back the hour
Of splendor in the grass, of glory in the flower;
We will grieve not, rather find
Strength in what remains behind;
In the primal sympathy
Which having been must ever be;
In the soothing thoughts that spring
Out of human suffering;
In the faith that looks through death,
In years that bring the philosophic mind. (ll. 177-187)

The gifts Wordsworth has found in “what remains behind” are the philosophic mind which gives him stoical fortitude, and the new strength he finds in the imagination, Nature, and the human heart. With this new strength Wordsworth dares to hope to write the great philosophic epic, *The Recluse*.

Conclusion

Arguing from a perspective diametrically opposite to the New Historicist critics such as Levison, who deconstructs Wordsworth’s *Tintern Abbey* by digging out absences in the text to support her deconstructive Marxist interpretation, this paper reconstructs the poem from the vantage point of Wordsworth’s poetic development by arguing that the formation of a poetical self for Wordsworth is manifested in the poem “Tintern Abbey,” a poetical self which enables him to be the prophet poet of his generation to compose his great, though unfinished, didactic poem, *The Recluse*, a poem as he himself proudly claims, “a Literary Work that might live” (*PW*, 6: 1).

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Translating Legal Contracts for Court Interpretation

Chen Yaling^{*}

Aletheia University Dept. of English, Assistant Professor

Abstract

In a court case involving a contract dispute, how should the interpreter deal with the translation of the contract? In greater China, Yan Fu's three principles of "faithfulness, fluency, and elegance" have long been regarded as guiding principles to be applied to the translation of various literary styles. In regards to the translation of legal texts, Wang Daogeng (2013) believes that when it's not possible to give equal importance to both faithfulness and fluency, then fluency should be sacrificed. On the other hand, legal documents written in English typically contain many terms and expressions from Latin, French, and archaic English. Such stylistic features lend precision and a sense of sacred authority to legal documents, and should be reflected in a translation as far as possible. In the courtroom while taking into account various practical considerations, what should be the interpreter's actual approach in terms of Yan Fu's three principles? In this paper, the researcher uses descriptive analysis and presents several examples of actual translations from English into Chinese of contracts involved in litigation cases. The results indicate that, due to the paucity of time and the primary importance of achieving equivalence in legal effect, court interpreters necessarily need to give much more importance to "faithfulness" even though the level of fluency is possibly sacrificed.

Keywords: legal translation, contracts, Yan Fu's three principles of translation, court interpretation, sight translation

*Corresponding author

*Dr. Chen earned her Ph.D. in Translation and Interpretation at NTNU and is currently pursuing another master degree at School of Law, National Chengchi University. She is also a contracted court Interpreter for the Taiwan High Court;
e-mail: au2994@mail.au.edu.tw.

法庭口譯之契約書翻譯探討

陳雅齡*

真理大學英美語文學系助理教授

摘要

法庭對於先前所簽訂之契約書產生爭執時有所聞，法庭口譯者該如何面對契約書翻譯的問題？中國嚴復曾提出「信、達、雅」，一般被視為翻譯各類文體的最高指導原則。法律翻譯方面，王道庚（2013）認為若做不到「信達兼顧」，便應該捨達保信。另外，法律文件常見古英語單詞及拉丁文及法語，顯示出法律語言的神聖權威與嚴密性，翻譯時要盡可能表現出來。法庭現場受限於聽者背景與時間因素，嚴復的「信、達、雅」究竟如何被實踐？以下作者以幾件案件的契約書為例，同時觀察其他口譯員在法庭現場的視譯文，並搜尋法學資料檢索系裁判書包含契約書爭執的翻譯文。結論提出，法庭現場由於時間限制及法律翻譯講究的效力對等，嚴復之「信、達、雅」的指導原則，在「信」方面的遵守遠比其他兩項來得重要。

關鍵詞：法律翻譯、契約書、嚴復、「信、達、雅」、法庭口譯、視譯

*通訊作者

Introduction

One result of globalization has been an upswing in interactions between people of different languages, giving rise to a steady increase in the use of interpretation in such settings as hospitals and courtrooms. In the latter setting, in addition to dialogue interpreting, court interpreters are also called upon to provide translation of various legal documents on the scene – so called “sight translation” in translation studies. These include indictments, civil complaints (訴狀), and written judgments prepared by prosecutors, lawyers, and judges; and reports written by expert witnesses such as medical doctors for use as evidence in court. However, the focus of the present paper is limited to another type of document that has a particular legal effect and frequently plays a central role in multilingual court cases—contracts.

Contracts are legally binding, and when those who have entered into a contract have differing interpretations of its meaning, they typically end up in court. To locate the cases this researcher came across in her interpreting job, the Judicial Yuan’s online database titled National Law and Regulations Retrieval System (全國法規資料庫檢索系統) was searched. After limiting the search parameters to civil cases in the Taipei District Court, an input for the keyword “contracts” rendered 23 results (see Appendix 1), from which it can be inferred that civil cases involving contracts are plentiful throughout Taiwan. Moreover, quite a few cases at the Taiwan District Courts or Taiwan High Court for which the researcher provided interpretation have involved contract disputes. The above are the initial inspiration for under taking this research.

Yan Fu's (嚴復) three principles of "faithfulness, fluency, and elegance" (信達雅) have long been regarded as standards to be applied to the translation of various literary styles. “Faithfulness” means remaining true to the source text; “fluency” means that the translation is idiomatic and readily intelligible; “elegance” means adopting an appropriate style. Around the same time that Yan Fu was formulating his credo, the Scotsman Alexander Fraser Tytler (1747-1813) presented a similar set of principles in his *Essay on the Principles of Translation*¹. Tytler’s three principles are: (1) A translation should give a complete transcript of the ideas of the original work; (2) The style and manner of writing should be of the same character as that of the original; and (3) A translation should have all the ease of the original composition. Thus we can see that great minds think along similar lines.

The topic of this paper is court interpretation. Given the practical limitations of

¹Tytler, A.F. (1907). *Essays on the Principles of Translation*. London: [J.M. Dent &](#)

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the courtroom, such as paucity of time and peculiarity of language, to what extent can these principles be actually adhered to by a courtroom interpreter? Below the researcher first discusses the particular characteristics of sight translation in the courtroom and the principles of contract translation. Then she presents the research design, including how the data was collected. In the final part the researcher sums up and discusses the results. The overall purpose is to take a fresh look at Yan Fu's three principles of translation so as to increase their applicability to the translation of contracts in the contemporary courtroom.

Literature Review

Sight translation in the courtroom

The topic of this paper, the translation of contracts for court interpretation, is one type of sight translation. Sight translation can be seen as a combination of interpretation and written translation. Although the same activity is sometimes referred to as "sight interpretation," the researcher prefers to use "sight translation," as it seems to be more commonly used, especially on the Internet. There are similarities between sight translation and other common types of interpreting activities such as consecutive interpreting and simultaneous interpreting. One thing is common among these activities: All of them have the same end product - an oral re-expression of the source message in the target language. However, the sight translator reads a written text, whereas the interpreter in both simultaneous and consecutive modes listens to a speaker. Though given limited time on analyzing the text, Agrifoglio (2004) considers text analysis paramount in performing sight translation and it is important to have schemata or prior knowledge to help retrieve information according to short-term or long-term memory.

Legal language is peculiar in a way which makes sight translation of a legal text very different from that of other types of documents. For general types of texts, the researchers of German Functionalist School including Reiss, Vermeer, and Nord have proposed the theory of functionalism. Researchers of legal translation have taken this a step further by proposing the theory of dual functionalism (Šarčević, 1997; Zhu Dingchu, 2004), in which the legal translator compares the concepts of the term in the source text and the one in the target text so as to achieve equivalence in both linguistic meaning and legal effect. The result of this comparison may be "pure equivalence," "near equivalence," "partial equivalence," or "non-equivalence." "Pure equivalence" does not exist. In translation or interpretation tasks, we are looking for near equivalence, i.e., functional equivalence in a different language or system of law.

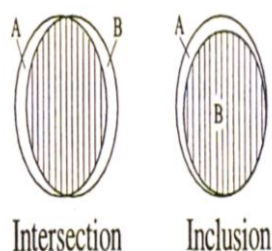


Figure 1. Near equivalence. (*Šarčević*, 1997, p. 238.)

For instance, “bigamy” is generally translated as “重婚罪”, since these two terms are near equivalents. Another example, the crime of “murder” is conceptualized in different ways in common law systems and civil law systems. The former system speaks of “murder,” “felony murder,” and “manslaughter,” while the latter system speaks of “故意殺人” (murder), “過失殺人” (manslaughter), “預備殺人” (premeditated murder), and “未遂殺人” (attempted murder). “Murder” and “故意殺人” are therefore only partial equivalents.

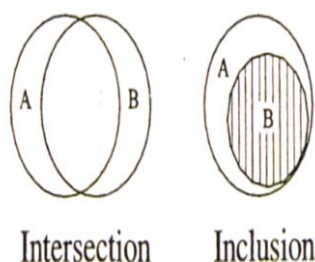


Figure 2. Partial equivalence. (*Šarčević*, 1997, p. 238.)

In a court case, however, Chen, Y. (2017) states that court interpreters are frequently interrupted by the litigant whom they serve or when they ask for clarification, and that when sight translating a document with a grave tone, most interpreters render it into a colloquial form of speech. In particular, Chen takes the sight translation of the witness oath as an example (see Appendix 2). In the example, the interpreter is seen to be interrupted by the litigant who sit beside, asking the interpreter about what is perjury.

Moreover, in theory, court stenographers are supposed to write down everything said by the court interpreter charged with providing dialogue translation and sight translation, so as to insure the impartiality of the record of the court proceedings. In practice, however, due to time limitations, it happens that the judge asks the concerned parties to consent to having the proceedings recorded in a summarized fashion, resulting in a condensed version of the documents sight translated in court.

For the interpreter, given limited time on analyzing the text and then perform translation, summarization to some extent is also inevitable.

The principles of contract translation

Written contracts have a long history in Taiwan. As can be seen in the Sinckan Manuscripts, early Han settlers entered into a variety of contractual relationships with the indigenous peoples of the island. Most of these contracts concerned such matters as boundaries, resource allocation, and water distribution (Hu Jiayu, 1999, p. 131). They were entered into by two or more parties, with each party retaining a copy of the agreement. In contemporary Taiwan a wide variety of contracts are in general use, most of which relate to such matters as commerce, reciprocity, grants, rentals, loans, employment, publishing, and transportation. The key elements of a contract are an introduction, the rights and responsibilities of the concerned parties, the terms of the contract, applicable laws, a confidentiality clause, and the conditions of termination. In relation to Yan Fu's three principles of "faithfulness, fluency, and elegance," some scholars of legal translation consider "literalness" as the best technique for achieving the principle of "faithfulness." Sun Wonbiao (2003) is one advocate of such a school of thought. Wang Daogeng (2013) further believes that when it's not possible to give equal importance to both faithfulness and fluency, then fluency should be sacrificed. But just what is "faithfulness" in practice? In the opinion of this researcher, it can be pursued on the performative level, the syntactic level, and the lexical level. On a performative level, for example, the modal auxiliaries "shall" and "may" create absolutely different legal effects—the former indicates an order or command, while the latter merely indicates permissibility. On the syntactic level, for example, the use of *bei* (被) to mirror the passive voice in an English text is one technique of literal translation so as to achieve faithfulness. On the lexical level, certain technical terms require special attention. For example, although 終止 (*zhongzhi*) literally means "stop," in a legal context "terminate" is usually more appropriate; and while 不可抗拒 (*buke kangju*) could be translated as "irresistible" in some texts, in a legal context "force majeure" or "act of God" is usually more appropriate.

As for "fluency," its main function is to make the translation more readily intelligible to the reader or listener, what Šarčević (1997) refers to as "receiver oriented" translation. The use of *bei* to translate the passive voice in English, is considered to be a kind of Westernization, so such a construction in a legal text doesn't achieve the principle of fluency. Moreover, the translator needs to keep in mind that many legal terms differ according to locality, as can be seen in the following chart:

Table 1. Legal terms differ according to locality

Original in English	China's translation	Hong Kong's Translation	Taiwan's Translation
Ad hoc arbitration	臨時仲裁	隨意仲裁	臨時仲裁
Cross examination	交叉詰問	盤問	交叉詰問
Corporation	法人	法團	法人
Governing law	準據法	適用法律	準據法
Inquisitorial system	詰問制	詢問制	詰問制
Offer	要約	提議	要約

(Source: Compiled by the author)

Regarding the principle of “elegance,” it can be achieved in three ways: register, lexicon, and syntax. Firstly, legal documents mainly adopt a frozen or formal register. Nonetheless, Chen (2017) found that court interpreters tend to lower their register when performing sight translation. As for lexicon, English legal documents often include a large number of archaic terms and expressions, such as hereafter, hereby, hereinafter, hereof, and hereto. Legal documents written in English also typically contain many terms and expressions from Latin and French. Such stylistic features lend precision and a sense of sacred authority to legal documents, and should be reflected in a translation as far as possible. Moreover, legal documents written in English tend to avoid abbreviations (such as Xmas), contractions (such as can't), and verbal phrases (such as “give up” or “break up”). As for syntax, legal English prefers prepositional phrases, which tend to be more precise than solitary prepositions, as can be seen in the following table.

Table 2. Prepositional phrases preferred in legal documents

Single preposition	Prepositional phrase
about (concerning)	with reference to
After	subsequent to
By	by means of
by (under)	in accordance with
Because	for the reason that
Before	prior to
For	in favor of
If	in the event that
Like	in the nature of
Since	inasmuch as
Then	at that point
To	for the purpose of

(Source: Compiled by the author)

Research Questions and Methods

Due to previous background in court interpretation, including providing court interpretation over the past 12 years, the researcher of this study has given much thought to how to best apply Yan Fu's three principles of faithfulness, fluency, and elegance in a courtroom setting. Yet, considering the time limitations in a court setting and the legal effect of a legal document, to what extent are these three principles actually applicable to court interpreting? Below this researcher examines extracts from several contracts that were translated as part of litigation cases. One was included in the official civil complaint; two pieces were retrieved from the judgements available for reference on the National Law and Regulations Retrieval System of the Judicial Yuan; and one was recorded in the notes the researcher made while attending several hearings held between May 2013 and August 2013, during which the researcher observed how the interpreter handled the sight translation of contracts, the originals of which were projected onto screens located on both sides of the courtroom. A ban on the making of audio and video recordings in Taiwanese courtrooms basically precluded the adoption of a purely empirical and quantitative research methodology, as valuable as this would be for the further professionalization and future development of courtroom interpreting and legal translation in Taiwan.

Results and Discussions

Civil Complaint sheet

Below is the original English version and a Chinese translation of an excerpt of a contract involved in a civil case² for which the researcher was invited to act as interpreter. They were included in the complaint sheet and the translation was made by the interpreter in an earlier hearing. In general, such translations are sketchy and only meant for reference during the court proceedings. Here is an excerpt of the original contract:

In the event of any litigation, arbitration, judicial reference or other legal proceeding involving the parties to this Agreement to enforce any provision of this Agreement, to enforce any remedy available upon default under this Agreement, or seeking a declaration of the rights of either Party under this Agreement, the prevailing Party shall be entitled to recover from the other such attorney's fees and costs as may be reasonably incurred, including

²台灣台北地方法院 103 訴字第 1847 號

the costs of reasonable investigation, preparation and professional or expert consultation incurred by reason of such litigation, judicial reference, or other legal proceeding.

Here is the Chinese translation included in the complaint sheet this researcher received:

「是以如因系爭協議發生糾紛而進行任何訴訟、仲裁或其他司法程序時，勝訴方可以向他方請求因此所支出之律師費用。」

The above Chinese passage could be translated back into English as:

“In the event of any litigation, arbitration, or other legal proceeding, the prevailing Party *may be entitled* to recover from the other side any attorney’s fees thereby incurred.”

Obviously, it shows that the Chinese translation is a somewhat summarized version of the original, but it’s not clear if the simplification was the work of the court interpreter, or stenographer. Yet the tone of the original has been preserved in the translation through the use of such terms as “系爭” (*xizheng*, disagreement, dispute). The only short coming in the translation is the rendering of “shall be entitled” as “可以” (*keyi*) rather than “有權利” (*yuchuanli*). In comparison, “有權利” (*yuchuanli*) gives a stronger legal effect as we emphasize in the previous section of this paper. A more complete translation would be:

「是以雙方對系爭協議發生糾紛必須採取契約的任何行動，因為某方違約必須採取補救措施，或必須宣告任何一方的權利，最後勝訴方有權利要求另外一方負擔衍生的合理律師費，包括期間所進行訴訟，仲裁或其他私法程序採取的合理調查、準備手續以及專業或專家諮詢。」

This could be rendered back into English as:

In the event of any litigation, arbitration, judicial reference, or other legal proceeding involving either party to this Agreement to enforce any remedy available upon default under this Agreement, or seeking a declaration of the rights of either Party under this Agreement, the prevailing Party *shall be entitled* to recover from the other such attorney’s fees and costs as may be reasonably incurred, including the costs of reasonable investigation, preparation and professional or expert consultation incurred during the proceedings.

On-site observation

The second example comes from a civil case the researcher observed at the Xinchu District Court in May 2013³ involving an English-speaking foreigner. The case centered on a contract written in English, the original of which was projected onto a screen in the courtroom and then sight translated by the interpreter. Below is the relevant portion of the contract:

" Employee shall perform his/her duties relating to his/her authority and position according to the instructions of the Company. Employee also agrees that Company may transfer Employee's work place and worked assignment, as long as there is such need.

This was sight-translated by the court interpreter as:

「員工應依公司之指示執行職務，員工並同意公司得視公司營運需要變更員工之工作地點及工作內容。」

This could be translated back into English as:

The Employee shall perform his/her duties according to the instructions of the Company. The Employee also agrees that the Company may change the Employee's duties and work place, as long as there is such need.

On the site where every participant was waiting for the interpreter to render his/her translation, this interpreter first presented the reason and then the outcome. This is the natural sentence structure in Chinese, thereby giving due consideration to the principle of “fluency.” However, the phrase “relating to his/her authority and position” didn’t actually appear in her translation. This omission is probably due to time constraint or pure negligence. Overall, the legal effect of “shall perform” and “may transfer” has retained and not been reduced.

Written judgments

To illustrate the form in which contract translations are finally presented in written judgements, for the third part the researcher retrieved two translations of the case that she observed previously from the National Law and Regulations Retrieval System⁴. The first original contract was written in English, Article 11a of which reads:

³新竹地院 101 勞訴第 28 號

⁴That is the one I observed in May, 2013. 新竹地院 101 勞訴第 28 號

The Employee acknowledges that he/she is employed as a full-time Employee of the Company and agrees that he/she shall accept no other work, for which compensation (whether in the form of cash or otherwise) is received, without the prior approval of the Company.

This was translated into Chinese and recorded in the written judgment as:

「員工了解其收取公司發給之現金或其他給予，為公司之全職員工之代價，並同意未經公司事前同意不得兼職。」

This Chinese translation could be translated back into English as:

The Employee understands that, by receiving compensation (whether in the form of cash or otherwise) from the Company, he is deemed a full-time Employee of the Company and agrees that he/she shall accept no other work without the prior approval of the Company.

Comparing the original version and the back translation, we find that the Chinese translation reflects the legal effect (e.g. shall accept no other job) of the original text and is fluent in its construction, which is achieved by not literally translating the English passage. Another example in the same dispute centers on Article 12, which reads as follows:

The Employee agrees to observe and abide by the Company's rules and regulations, as amended from time to time by the Company, as well as any other regulations issued in the future by the Company. The Employee also acknowledges that he has carefully reviewed the employee handbook and work rules of the Company, which shall be deemed part of the Employment Agreement.

This was translated into Chinese and shown in the written judgement as:

「員工同意遵守公司隨時修訂的規定及規則，以及公司未來公布的其他規則；員工也了解並已收到被視為僱傭契約一部分的公司員工手冊以及工作規則。」

This is a fairly accurate, literal, and complete translation of the original, although not so fluent. The translation “被視為” reflects the passive construction of the original. It is the result of literal translation in a westernized language. It could be translated back into English as:

“The Employee agrees to observe and abide by the Company’s rules and regulations, as amended from time to time by the Company, as well as any other regulations issued in the future by the Company. The Employee has also received and understood the employee handbook and work rules of the Company, which shall be deemed part of the Employment Agreement.”

In these written judgments, the translations are more complete than those used in the courtroom. However, it’s not clear if the translations were made by the court interpreter on the scene or submitted by the law firm. In either case, they provide insights to how the sight translation of a court interpreter can be improved. Both translations faithfully reflect the legal effect and the meaning of the original text. One of them uses *bei* to reflect the passive construction of the original text, rendering it less fluent; however, it maintains the legal effect.

Conclusion

In this study most interpreters have tried to achieve the legal effect as to achieve the principle of faithfulness, despite the level of fluency being sacrificed. The research on court interpretation has been subject to a number of limitations. Firstly, it’s not possible for the researcher to know in advance which cases at a given district court will involve interpretation. Also, only four contracts have been collected and discussed, and it will be necessary to analyze additional data before coming to more definite additional conclusions as to how to improve contract translation by court interpreters. Yet, at this stage it can still be concluded that, due to the paucity of time for performing sight translation in the courtroom, it is imperative for court interpreters to give top priority to the principle of faithfulness so as to guarantee the transferal of legal effect.

Furthermore, to avoid any mistyping or misunderstanding on the stenographer’s part, when performing sight-translating interpreters should pay close attention to the record being produced by the stenographer (which is displayed on a monitor visible in the courtroom), pointing out any discrepancies which would produce an unintended legal effect. In light of the increasing number of overseas companies doing business in Taiwan, the translation of commercial contracts written in English has become an important topic in the field of translation studies. The understanding and application of the principles of sight translation outlined in this paper would go a long way in improving the quality of contract translations provided by court interpreters.

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Appendix 1, Using National Law and Regulations Retrieval System (全國法規資料庫檢索系統), after limiting the search parameters to civil cases in the Taipei District Court, a search for the keyword “contracts” rendered 23 results

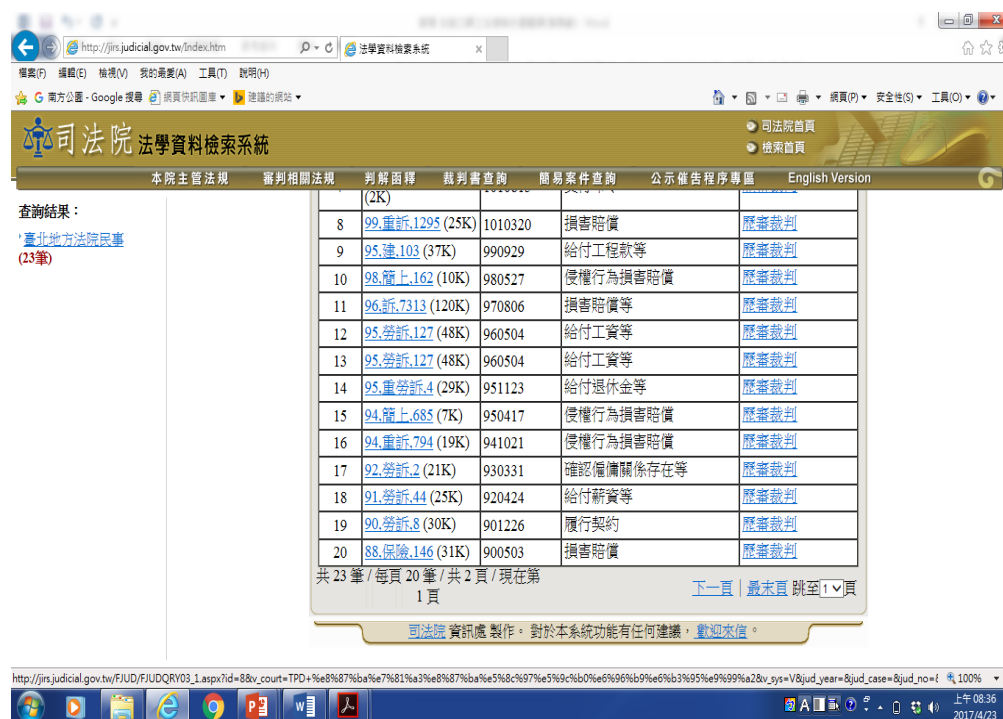
查詢結果：
*臺北地方法院民事 (23筆)

臺灣臺北地方法院 裁判書--民事類

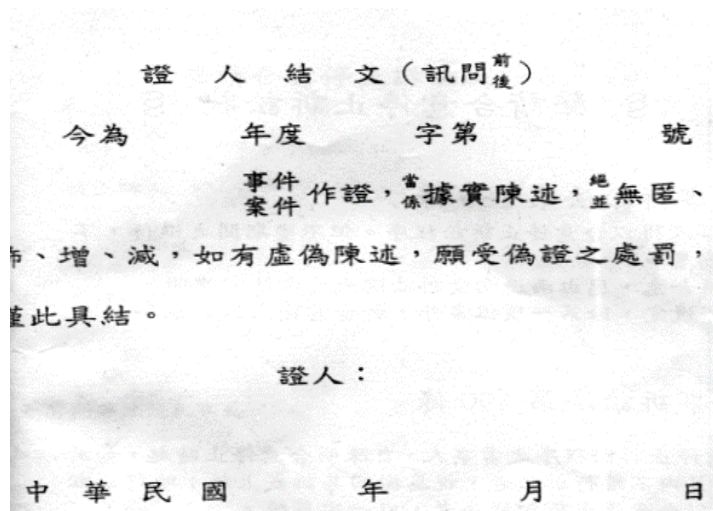
裁判書查詢 有加密線者為可點選之項目

共 23 筆 / 每頁 20 筆 / 共 2 頁 / 現在第 1 頁 [下一頁](#) [最末頁](#) 跳至 1 頁

序號	裁判字號(檔案大小)	裁判日期	裁判案由	
1	105.司促.12504 (1K)	1050729	支付命令	歷審裁判
2	105.專聲.331 (7K)	1050630	聲明異議 (消債)	歷審裁判
3	105.專聲.19 (10K)	1050225	聲明異議 (消債)	歷審裁判
4	103.聲訴.213 (15K)	1041030	損害賠償	歷審裁判
5	102.訴.296 (23K)	1030530	返還委任報酬	歷審裁判
6	101.聲訴.72 (12K)	1010831	給付違約金	歷審裁判
7	101.司促.19666 (2K)	1010815	支付命令	歷審裁判
8	99.重訴.1295 (25K)	1010320	損害賠償	歷審裁判
9	95.達.103 (37K)	990929	給付工程款等	歷審裁判
10	98.簡上.162 (10K)	980527	侵權行為損害賠償	歷審裁判



Appendix 2 Witness Oath and its sight translated text



Sight-translated Text

Oath Here I am entrusted by this court and interpreting for case number in the year . I swear I will interpret accurately, completely, and impartially, using my best skill and judgment. If any dishonesty is found in my testimony, I know I will be subject to penalty due to a crime of perjury. Year__Month__ Day_____.

England and The English as the Others in Taiwan's Senior High School History Textbooks from 1952 to 1999

Eric Chia-Hwan Chen*

Department of Children English Education
National Taipei University of Education

Abstract

This paper adopts an interdisciplinary approach of Imagology to investigate the hetero-images of England and the English in Taiwan's senior high school history textbooks from 1952 to 1999, a time when the textbooks in question were edited by a small number of professors and senior high school teachers commissioned by the government. Due to the complicated commercial and diplomatic relationship between Qing China and England from the late eighteenth to the early twentieth century and the subsequent military cooperation between the KMT and the British government in two World Wars, the editors of the history textbooks constructed many distinctive images of the objects to meet the educational goals and reflect the political considerations of the KMT government. Thus, the hetero-images of England and the English in the history textbooks function as different mirrors which reflect not only the KMT government's attitude towards England and the English in different eras, but also the auto-images of Taiwan and the Taiwanese from the 1950s to the 1990s.

Keywords: the Other, auto-image, hetero-image, the English, textbook

*Corresponding author

試論 1952 至 1999 年間臺灣高中歷史教科書中

英國與英國人的他者形象

陳嘉煥*

國立臺北教育大學兒童英語教育學系

摘要

本論文將採用比較文學形象學所主張的跨學科研究法來探討臺灣在 1952 至 1999 年間由官方所發行的四個版本高中歷史教科書中的英國與英國人他者形象。由於我國與英國自從十八世紀末以來就有著非常複雜的外交與經貿關係，而於 1949 年播遷來臺的國民黨政府在來臺初期又接連遭逢許多的挑戰，因此在強化學生愛國心與鼓勵民眾支持國民黨政府的前提下，這一些由官方所聘僱來負責編寫教科書的大學教授與高中老師們在論述英國與英國人時，便小心翼翼地來建構各種符合執政者教育目標與政治考量的他者形象。這些教科書不僅成功塑造出各種以英國或英國人做為它者的形象，同時也折射出執政者在不同年代所企圖打造的自我形象。因此，在探索各種英國或英國人的它者形象時，我們將發現課文中各種詳述英國與英國人的論述其實就像是一面面的鏡子，它們不僅折射出形象論述委託者之國民黨政府眼中的它者，同時也或多或少透露出國民黨政府希望台灣這一塊土地與其人民在他國國民眼中所看到的自我形象。

關鍵詞：他者、自我形象、他者形象、英國人、教科書

*通訊作者

Introduction

Before the National Institute of Compilation and Translation (NICT),⁵ a subdivision of Ministry of Education, granted the private publishers a permission to edit and publish textbooks for senior high schools in 1999, all textbooks used in Taiwan were exclusively edited by a very small number of professors and senior high school teachers commissioned by the government. These textbooks had to comply with a very strict censorship in order to meet the political consideration of the government in power, namely the KMT government. From 1952 to 1999, the guidelines for editing these history textbooks were moderately modified in 1962, 1971 and 1983 after they were set up in 1952. When the sovereignty of Taiwan was in the hands of the KMT from 1949 to 2000, the political ideology embedded in the textbooks was rarely openly challenged or questioned by local scholars or politicians as they might easily get themselves into trouble for unleashing an attack on the government before the Martial Law was lifted by President Chiang Ching-Kuo in 1987. Serving as one of the most important and effective mediums which enable the Taiwanese senior high school students to acquire a “correct” understanding about the KMT regime and the KMT’s contribution to the country, the history textbooks in question thus contained only those materials that the government allowed the senior high students to know.

Textbooks and Knowledge

Regarding the common nature of textbooks of social studies, Lindaman and Ward (2004) suggested that “textbooks are a quasi-official story, a sort of state-sanctioned version history” (p. xviii). Thus, the narratives constructed in the government-approved history textbooks tend to reveal only what the government allows the readers to know and conceal what might jeopardize the regime or destabilize the society. After all, no government in the world will be delighted to give its political opponents any opportunity to challenge its hard-won regime, isn’t it?

The KMT government was not an exception in this regard as it also had a very strict censorship to make sure no curricula and textbooks would do any harm to its regime before it, with the strong demand of the private publishers and the request of several members of the Education Reform Committee (1994-1996), allowed private publishers to produce textbooks for elementary and junior high schools in 1996 and

⁵ National Institute of Compilation and Translation (NICT) was renamed into Development Center of Compilation and Translation and became a subdivision of National Academy for Educational Research in 2011. Between 1932 and 1997, NICT was the sole supplier of textbooks for elementary and secondary schools in Taiwan.

senior high schools in 1999. Under this circumstance, it is not surprising at all to discover all commissioned professors and senior high school teachers have adopted a government-approved perspective to narrate the long and complicated Sino-Anglo relationship as well as the cultural, economic, social, and political developments and achievements of England.

Methodology

The methodology adopted for conducting this study is called imagology, which is a sub-discipline of comparative literature. An imagological study aims to explore the following issues and accomplish the following tasks. First, in terms of the subject of an imagological study, what an imagologist wants to examine are all kind of possible implications embedded in a hetero-image of a foreign people or a foreign land in the work of a writer or works of a group of writers against the historical background of each narrative. On the nature and significance of a hetero-images of the Other, French imagologist Pageaux(1995) once remarked:

All images [of the Other] originate from the self-awareness of the relationship between the Self and the Other, Local and Foreign, despite sometimes the self-awareness may be very feeble. An image is a literary or non-literary narrative that can explain the difference between two types of cultural realities as well as the relationship between the signifier and the signified. Hence, we may get such an idea that a literary "image" is a totality of people's ideas and sentiments for a foreign land and these ideas and sentiments are shaped in the processes of having education and socialization.(Meng, 2001, p. 202)⁶

This statement thus suggests the first step of conducting an imagological study is examining a writer or a group of writers' total images of a foreign people or land against the general public's attitude towards the object or objects in question. By contextualizing an image in its own time and space an imagologist will be able to comprehend the diachronic and synchronic significances of a hetero-image of the Other.

Second, with regard to the requisite components of an image of the Other, Brunel, Pichois, and Rousseau (1983) said:

An image is an individual or collective representation which comprises cultural, sentimental, objective and subject elements. No foreigners can ever see a country in the way as that of a local resident. That is to say the emotional elements are more influential than the objective elements in shaping one's image for the Other.(Meng, 2001, p. 113)

⁶This English translation is mine, so are all other translations of quotes from the same book.

This statement suggests that an image of the Other is a mixture of one's knowledge and sentiment and thus it may evolve as one accumulates more knowledge about the object or changes one's feeling towards the object. As different people might have different sentiment towards the same object, it is impractical to fairly determine which writer's image of the Other is more genuine than that of another writer.

Third, in terms of the goals of an imagological study, an imagologist should first establish a complete and sensible genealogy of images of the Other to investigate the archetypes, variations or metamorphoses of the target images. Next, an imagologist should closely examine the genealogy of an image against its historical context to explore the connotations and significances of an image. After completing these two steps, an imagologist will be able to illustrate whether a text supports or subverts the collective image of a society. In his "Imagination in Discourse and Action" Ricoeur considered the collective image of a specific Other as a social imagination (*imaginaire social*) and suggested such a social imagination can be divided into two types: ideological and utopian (Ricoeur, 1991, p. 55). An ideological image of the Other is meant to strengthen or support the mainstream ideology of a society, while a utopian image is meant to challenge or ridicule it. To further expound Ricoeur's concept of "social imagination" Meng (2001) suggests that

In fact, people's sub-consciousness is filled with all kinds of collective descriptions and they condition how we understand the world. In a sense, we give meanings to the world via these collective descriptions. Everything in these collective descriptions that refers to an image of an Other is called *imaginaire social* in the field of imagology. Generally speaking, more sharper a contrast observed between an image and a collective social imagination, more obvious a distinctiveness the image will exhibit; otherwise, the image will be considered as a "copy" or "reproduction" of the collective imagination.(pp.185-86)

Thus, more texts of different epochs and genres to be examined in an imagological study, more accurate it will be for an imagologist to identify whether a writer's image of a foreign people or land is an ideological or a utopian one.

Positive Images of England and the English

in the History Textbooks

Considering the academic, cultural, economic, political, and social achievements accomplished by England up to the 1950s, it is sensible to expect England being regarded as an admiring model for Taiwan because the latter had just terminated its miserable fate as a Japanese colony in 1945 and the government in

Taiwan had yet accomplished anything distinctive after the KMT regime retreated to Taiwan in 1949. For instance, in the 1952 edition of the senior high school history textbooks, England is praised as a country where industrial and commercial developments are highly encouraged by the government, aristocrats are under well control, clan clashes and civil wars have been terminated, and talented people from the middle class are trusted with important positions in the government (Shen, 1952, Vol. 3, p. 113).

As for the social developments of England, the editors of the textbooks mentioned the English government passed many laws to protect the rights of its people. For instance, in Vol. 4 of the 1952 edition, the editors gave a very detailed account about some important laws passed between 1906 and 1911, such as the School Meal Act in 1906, the Old-Age pensions Act in 1908, the Labour Exchanges in 1909, and the National Insurance Act in 1911, and then summed up the benefits of these acts by saying that

With the protection of this so-called "Social Security System," British workers are entitled to have pensions upon their retirement. Besides, they can also have various subsidies when they lose their jobs, contract a disease, bear and rear children, live alone as a widow or widower, get injury, or become a person of disability. The poor can have free education and the orphaned will not be want of education and food.(Shen, 1955, Vol. 4, pp. 16-17)

These social welfare benefits include many ideas of an idealistic society as noted in the *Book of Rites*, one of the most well-known Confucian classics for sketching an ideal society. In "Chapter of Great Harmony" of *Book of Rites*, one reads

When the Grand Course was pursued . . . [a] competent provision was secured for the aged till their death, employment for the able-bodied, and the means of growing up to the young. They showed kindness and compassion to widows, orphans, childless men, and those who were disabled by disease, so that they were all sufficiently maintained.(Legge, 1885, n.p.)

The high similarity between this passage and the one in the history textbook makes it reasonable to say that England was considered a western utopia by the Taiwanese editors of the 1952 edition of senior high school history textbooks.

As for the general hetero-images of the English in the Taiwanese history textbooks, all editors of those four editions have a very high regard for the English as a whole. In those four editions, the English are described as a people of reason and wisdom, who emphasize the importance of doing experiments and pursue practicality. They are a people who advocate efficacy, material gains, and rationality. Furthermore, the English pursue knowledge in order to improve their life and they spare no efforts to put their knowledge into practice (Shen, 1952, Vol. 3, pp. 109-111).The editors also

mentioned King Charles II (1630-1685) established the Royal Society to encourage the development of arts and science as he valued the academic researches of both subjects very much. With the patronage of the English monarchy, many academic organizations were founded to promote various studies of science (Shen, 1952, Vol. 3, p. 135). In total, as many as forty three British intellectuals, who have accomplished great scientific achievements, are mentioned in the 1952 edition and a large number of them are highly commended for their contributions to the world. For instance, scientists like Isaac Newton and James Watt; men of letters like Chaucer, Spenser, and Shakespeare; economist Adam Smith; sociologists like George Owen and Stuart McPhail Hall; biologists like Robert Brown, Charles Darwin, Hebert Spenser, Sir Patrick Manson, and Carl Pearson are all given due credits for their contributions to the world. This long list of names undoubtedly makes the young Taiwanese readers believe that England is a land full of talented people and whose talents are highly appreciated both home and abroad.

Thus, as a whole, most descriptions about England and the English found in the history textbooks published between 1952 and 1999 suggest England is superior to Taiwan in the aspects of business, politics, and sciences, and consequently those hetero-images of England and its people are mostly utopian ones.

Negative Images of England and the English

in the History Textbooks

Though many utopian images have been attributed to England and the English in Taiwan's senior high school history textbooks, a few unfavorable image of England did emerge when the editors of the 1952 edition summarized the 300-year long colonial expansion of the British Empire. The fast-growing British Empire was severely criticized as a "bloody and filthy" one since its success was built upon many practices of economic aggression or political oppression towards the colonized lands and people. (Shen, 1954, Vol. 3, p. 148; Yu, 1964, Vol.3, p. 138)

Except for this negative image, some appalling descriptions about the disadvantaged English people can be found in the history textbooks as well. For instance, the editors of the 1952 edition mentioned many English children, about seven years old, worked in the textile mills for fourteen or eighteenth hours a day and many of them either died at a very young age or grew up with deformed body shapes. They usually spent their whole life in ignorance and poverty and their life was packed with crimes and diseases (Shen, 1955, Vol. 4, p. 12). In addition to this reference to the young English labors, the editors of the same textbook also mentioned many English women spent their days in hunger. These vulnerable women had to dig coals to earn a

living in the freezing winter in the early nineteenth century, an era when the industrial revolution was booming in England (Shen, 1955, Vol. 4, p. 12). The pitiable life of the vulnerable English people were criticized by the editors of the 1962 edition as something "against humanity" (Yu, 1969, Vol. 4, p. 51). Except for these two references to the disadvantaged English children and women, an English diplomat named Charles Elliot (1801-1875) was particularly named and described as a "cunning," "unpredictable," and "provocative" person as he used to cause turmoil on the south-east coast of China at the dawn of the First Opium War. (Guo, 1963, Vol. 2, p. 64)

In the 1971 and the 1983 editions, all antipathetic words and phrases referring to the British Empire, such as "bloody" and "filthy," were abandoned, so did the stories about the young labors who worked long hours in the factories and the starving women who dug coals to earn their bread. Nevertheless, the devastation observed on the colonized lands of the British Empire were intactly passed down from editors to editors from 1952 to 1999. These accounts detailed how England has effectively and successfully turned India into a strong headquarter for colonizing more lands around the world and how badly the people of those colonized lands were exploited and maltreated by the British imperialists. (Liou, 1973, Vol. 4, pp. 69-70)

This minor change in contents of different editions leads to an interesting question: why did the Taiwanese editors and their commissioners pay so much attention to the devastation caused by the British imperialists around the world? One of the possible answers to this question probably lies in a passage of the second volume of the 1962 edition, in which the editors mentioned

Warlords and imperialists are two major enemies of the National Revolutionary Army and the future of the warlords are completely at the hands of the imperialists. The imperialists do not wish to see the National Revolutionary Army successfully defeats the rebellious warlords and then unifies China again; therefore, they do whatever they can do to obstruct the National Revolutionary Army and prevent China from becoming a unified country again. Among all imperialists, the English, the Japanese, and the Russian imperialists are particularly fierce and ruthless in thwarting the National Revolutionary Army. (Guo, 1963, Vol. 2, p. 151)

Elsewhere in the same textbook, the English government is severely criticized for helping local warlords in northern China to fight against the National Revolutionary Army in the 1910s (Guo, 1963, Vol. 2, p. 151).

As a whole, though England and the English are predominately esteemed highly by the Taiwanese editors of the senior high school history textbooks from 1952 to 1999 for their outstanding achievements in developing international business,

improving democratic politics, encouraging natural science studies, and promoting social reforms, their national images sketched in the Taiwanese senior high school history textbooks are not thoroughly impeccable. The traumatizing influences of the British imperialism on the colonized lands are repeated again and again to remind the young readers the peaceful and stable *status quo* of Taiwan is by no means a free lunch offered by the fortune-and-land-thirsty colonists. Instead, it is a hard-won meal secured by the KMT government and its early brave and patriotic National Revolutionary Army. Thus, negative images of England and the English imperialists do need to emerge in the history textbooks from time to time whenever the editors wish to shape and strengthen a positive auto-image of the KMT regime and the National Revolutionary Army.

Conclusion

This study reveals that the hetero-images of England and the English constructed in Taiwan's senior high school history textbooks from 1952 to 1999 are mostly utopian ones. England is eulogized as a democratic and progressive country where people's talents for arts, business, music, and science are widely encouraged and fully developed. Besides, the English government is praised as a farsighted and progressive one which never stops in passing new laws to protect the rights and property of its people as it pursues the strength and the wealth of the country around the world. These utopian hetero-images of England and the English suggest Taiwan is, by comparison, a less developed, yet gradually catching-up, country which is in need of continuous improvement and daring reformation in many aspects.

However, when it comes to the political oppression and the economic aggressions of the British Empire in the 19th and the early 20th centuries, the English government and a small number of English imperialists will be shone with a spotlight and be accused for the troubles they have caused in other less-developed countries in the nineteenth and the early twentieth century. Since China used to be a victim of the English imperialism, it is not strange at all to see the English imperialists and their government being depicted negatively by the Taiwanese editors of the senior high school history textbooks.

To sum up, the hetero-images of England and the English depicted in Taiwan's senior high school history textbooks have timely reflected the auto-images of Taiwan and the Taiwanese. As editors of the textbooks wished to use England and the English as models for Taiwan and the Taiwanese to improve themselves, the commendable achievements of England in arts, business, politics, sciences, and social reforms were

highlighted and thus made it look like a modern utopia to the Taiwanese readers. Nevertheless, when the government-commissioned editors of the textbooks hoped to construct a positive auto-image of Taiwan, the ideological hetero-image of England as an avaricious and ferocious imperialistic country was repeated again and again to suggest Taiwan is, comparatively speaking, a peace-loving and friendly country. Thus, both ideological and utopian images of England and the English can be found in the textbooks in question and they are skillfully manipulated by the editors to serve specific purposes of their commissioner, the KMT government.

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A Case Study of Collaborative Learning via Teaching Readers Theater

Chiao-Ling Huang^{*};

Department of English Language, Literature, and Linguistics
Providence University

Chun-Lin Luo

Department of English Language, Literature, and Linguistics
Providence University

Abstract

This study is aimed at investigating the effectiveness of applying Readers Theater (RT) in promoting English as a foreign language children's oral reading fluency, and in reducing their English learning anxiety. The participants of the study were twenty-six third graders aged from nine to ten in elementary school. The heterogeneous grouping was implemented into five groups of Readers Theater. The mixed-methods were conducted in this study. The quantitative data was obtained by administering pre- and post- tests gauging oral reading fluency and English learning anxiety. The open-ended questions were collected as qualitative data to gain a deeper understanding of students' reactions to the use of the Readers Theater. In addition, classroom observations were also included and analyzed in the data collection. The results of the statistical analyses of the study indicated that participants' oral reading fluency performed significantly better after applying Readers Theater instruction, but they did not display significantly lower English learning anxiety. Although anxiety has been proven to be affecting foreign language learning, this study in consistent with several other studies has suggested the benefit of facilitative anxiety in foreign language learning.

Keywords: Readers Theater, Reading fluency, English learning anxiety

^{*}Corresponding author

讀者劇場合作學習之個案研究

黃巧鈴*

靜宜大學 英國語文學系

羅春琳

靜宜大學 英國語文學系

摘要

本研究目的是應用讀者劇場於國小三年級的英語教學，以探討透過讀者劇場之合作學習的應用教學策略是否能夠改善國小三年級學童的英語口語閱讀流利度和降低他們對英語學習的焦慮程度。研究對象是 26 位國小三年級約 9-10 歲的學生，採異質性分組，一共分成五組。量化資料包括口語閱讀之流暢度評量和英語學習焦慮程度之前後測調查問卷。並且收集開放式問題資料，以便更深入了解學生對讀者劇場之應用於課堂教學的反應及問題。除此之外，課堂觀察也包含在蒐集的資料中作分析。研究的結果顯示應用讀者劇場之合作學習於國小三年級的英語教學，雖然在英語學習焦慮上並未顯著的降低，但是，在口語閱讀之流暢度上有顯著的進步。此外，焦慮在語言的學習上一直是一個影響學習的因素，但是，也有相關研究顯示出，焦慮也有幫助語言學習的一面，促進性的焦慮也能激勵學習者成功地達到語言學習成就。

關鍵詞：讀者劇場、閱讀流利度、英語學習焦慮

* 通訊作者

Introduction

Because of the worldwide communication, English has become one of the most important subjects in the educational system. However, it has been observed that many students experience anxiety in the English classroom (Atef-Vahid& Kashani,2011). Foreign language anxiety has clearly been shown to have a negative impact on performance in the foreign language classroom. Studies argue that some people are anxious of language learning and that such anxiety reaction can interfere with language learning (Osboe, Fujimura, & Hirschel, 2007). English learning in Taiwan tends to be academic oriented, thus, oral reading fluency is easily neglected. However, researchers have proved that oral reading fluency is the key to reading fluency because it affects reading effectiveness and understanding (Chou, 2013). English as a Foreign Language (EFL) students appear to enjoy more comfortable oral speaking in pair and small groups than in whole-class situations, regardless of proficiency level (Osboe, Fujimura, & Hirschel, 2007).In reviewing related to language learning, Guthrie(2001) identified ten instructional elements, and collaborative learning is one of them (Tsou, 2011). Therefore, it is significant for a teacher to find out an efficient instruction which can help students increase a more enjoyable language learning atmosphere in the classroom as well as integrate oral and reading into a whole. The study aims to explore the collaborative learning in English via integrating RT in classrooms an efficient approach and whether it can help to reduce students' oral speaking anxiety and to develop better oral reading fluency at the primary stage or not. The reason why I have chosen RT to be the approach in this case study to investigate the impact of RT on the oral reading fluency development and students' anxiety in the classroom are as follows:

First, RT is one of the approaches recommended by many researchers and educators to fit for the purposes mentioned above (Garrett,& O'Connor, 2010; Hsu, 2011; Young, & Rasinski, 2009). Second, Readers Theater (RT) is a kind of collaborative learning. Performing RT on the stage, students in groups read aloud together help them to feel that they are not isolated and alone when they are not able to deal with the reading difficulties (Mraz, Nichols, Caldwell, Beisley, Sargent, & Rupley, 2013). Readers Theater is a performance of written scrip that demands repeated and assisted reading. The repeated and assisted readings involved in rehearsal practices are powerful tools for improving oral reading fluency (Young & Rasinski,2009; Mraz et al., 2013). To perform successfully, readers work together closely. Also, without memorizing scripts and simple way of performances, the performance of RT is easy to prepare and practice for both English teachers and students. Therefore, this study will investigate how RT helped to lower students' foreign language learning anxiety in the EFL

classroom and lead to rise in their English oral language fluency in an elementary school.

Literature Review

Readers Theater (RT) has been gaining increasing attention recent years due to its positive learning outcomes. RT, a form of repeated oral reading, is a reading-aloud activity to “communicate” a story through oral interpretation instead of acting (Chou, 2013). During RT, readers take turns “reading” the lines from the script and are totally absorbed in the activity. Using their voices, facial expressions, and bodies, the readers interpret the emotions, beliefs, attitudes, and motives of the characters in the story. It is similar to a play, but there are generally no costumes, sets, or props and no movements around a stage between performers (Lin, 2015). In some formal studies, foreign language anxiety has clearly been shown to have a negative impact on performance in the foreign language classroom. Horwitz (2000) argued that some people are anxious of language learning and that such anxiety reaction can interfere with language learning (Osboe, Fujimura, & Hirschel, 2007). RT instruction establishes a purposeful reason for collaboration among students. Group-based learning designs have the potential to help lower learners’ language learning anxiety and to increase English language learners’ skills, particularly when the group engages in collaborative learning, two or more individuals creating new knowledge together (Tsou,2011; Chou,2013).It gives students a positive first experience of being in a group and will help them with future public speaking. However, there are the results of the study also showed that classroom anxiety is often caused by weaker communication skills. This affects students’ willingness to participate in class and their learning outcome (Chou,2013). A few students still displayed signs of speaking anxiety on the stage because their communicative abilities can be exposed to inspection in the classroom. This can increase their learning anxiety. As this result, this research will investigate how group collaboration and RT influence and assist students to reduce students’ English learning anxiety and to have better oral reading fluency in an elementary school.

Research Questions:

1. Do elementary learners’ collaborative learning in English via integrating Readers Theater (RT) in classrooms reduce their speaking anxiety?
2. Do elementary learners’ collaborative learning in English via integrating Readers Theater (RT) in classrooms develop students’ better oral reading fluency?

Methods

Participants

In this study, there are twenty-six participants who are third graders whose ages ranged from nine to ten. They are divided into five groups. Five groups consist of five students, and the only one group consists of six students. Heterogeneous grouping will be implemented.

Duration:

The participants have 25 minutes/ a week.

The research lasts 4 weeks.

Instruments :

1. Pre- test : Using questionnaire
 - a. Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) by Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope (1986)

This study adopted the Chinese translated version by Wu, 2005
 - b. Word Per Second(WPS) test questionnaire
2. Classroom observation: Video-taping
3. Post- test : Using questionnaire
(Same as the pre-test questionnaires)
4. Four open-ended questions adapted by Wu, 2005.

Experiment Procedures :

4 Weeks	There are nine phases to practice RT script in this study listed as following:
Week1	1. The teacher selects one topic from the text book. 2. Students are grouped in heterogeneous grouping. 3. Each student can decide the role he/she is preferred. 4. Pre-test : the questionnaire and oral reading fluency test before RT instruction.
Week 2	5. Rehearsal 1: Each student prepares his/her lines and rehearses chorally or independently with group partners before RT instruction. 6. The teacher models expressive reading to all students in order to demonstrate what accuracy, automaticity, and prosody should sound like, and explains it. Background knowledge is activated and developed during this initial reading. New and important vocabulary and sentences are also introduced. Then, students repeat it after teacher's modeling.
Week3	7. Rehearsal 2 Each student prepares his/her lines and rehearses chorally or independently with group partners after RT instruction
Week4	8. The participants perform in front of audiences. 9. Post-test: the questionnaire and oral reading fluency test after RT instruction.

Data collection and analysis

Both quantitative and qualitative data were analyzed and discussed to answer the research questions.

Three instruments are adopted in this study, including (1) the questionnaire detecting students' English learning anxiety and oral reading fluency, (2) classroom observation with video-taping, and (3) four open-ended questions

(1) The questionnaire:

There are two parts in the first instrument of the questionnaire (please see Appendix B and Appendix C). Appendix A is the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) by Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope (1986) to detect the students' English learning anxiety in the classroom. Because 3rd-graders are still very young. Some of the questions are not easy for them to thoroughly understand. To make the students understand the items in FLCAS better, the instructor, I, adopt a translated

Chinese version of the 33 items by Wu (2005) (please see Appendix B), and explain them one by one to the students in Mandarin. In the FLCAS, there are totally 33 items, and each of them is answered with a five-point Likert scale, ranging from “strong agree” (five point) to “strong disagree”(one point). Exceptionally, items 2,5,8,11,14,18,22,28, and 32 are negative; therefore, their points should be counted reversedly. The sum of the points from the 33 questions is the subject student’s anxiety scores, theoretically ranging from 33-165. The higher the total score are, the more anxious the participant is considered to be. The second part is self-designed word per second (WPS) individual oral reading fluency tests with eight sentences which are from the instructed content (textbook Unit 4 of Follow Me1 published by Kang Hsuan Educational Publishing Group). It takes about two seconds for each student to complete reading each sentence. The test conducted before and after RT instruction. For the pre-test, if a student could finish reading each sentence accurately within the time set up, he or she got 1 point. On the contrary, if a student failed reading a sentence accurately within time set up, he or she got zero point. On the two parts, the items of the post-test questionnaire were the same as those of the pre-test. The students’ responses to FLCAS items 1 to 33, and oral reading fluency tests (WPS) of the pre-test and post-test survey used descriptive statistics SPSS, a paired sample t-test was administered quantitative data analysis before and after the RT instruction to assess the changes in students’ English speaking anxiety, and the improvements in students’ English oral reading fluency.

(2) The classroom observation:

Videotaping the groups of a class provides the clearer view of the observation whether there are differences before (rehearsal) and after (performance) RT instruction.

(3) Four open-ended questions:

5 students (Refered as S1,S2,S3,S4,and S5 hereafter) were chosen from each group to answer the questions, and gave their feedback toward RT instruction in English Class.

The classroom observation and the four open-ended questions were analyzed in a qualitative way.

Results and Discussions

The purpose of the study was to explore if the instruction of RT could enable the students to reduce their speaking anxiety and develop their better oral reading fluency.

Both quantitative and qualitative data were analyzed and discussed to answer the research question.

Question 1: Do elementary learners' collaborative learning in English via integrating Readers Theater (RT) in classrooms reduce their speaking anxiety?

Table 1. The descriptive statistics data of the participants' pre-test and post-test.

Paired sample statistics				
Test	Mean	NSD	SE Mean	
Pre-test	3.096737	26	.8489617	.1664951
Post-test	3.286713	26	.8610853	.1688727

The score of the participants' pre-test and post-test were done with paired sample *t*-test. In accordance with the descriptive statistics in Table 1. The number of the participants are 26. The means of the pretest is 3.096737 and that of the post-test is 3.286713. The standard deviation of the pretest results in .8489617 and that of the posttest is .8610853. The standard error mean of pretest is .1664951 and that of the posttest is .1688727.

The results of the pre-test and post-test of FLCAS for the participants were shown in Table 2.

Table 2. A Comparison of students' responses to FLCAS between pre-test and post-test

Test	N	M	SD	t	p
Pre – Post	26	- .1899767	.5135846	- 1.886	.071

* $p < .05$

As can be seen in the paired sample *t*-tests results in Table 2, as a result of the analyses, the *t*-value is -1.886, while the *p*-value is .071. Statistically, none of the values reached the .05 significance level ($p > .05$). This indicates that there was no significant improvements to decrease students' speaking anxiety in the classroom before and after RT instruction.

Question 2: Do elementary learners' collaborative learning in English via integrating Readers Theater (RT) in classrooms develop students' better oral reading fluency?

The score of the participants' pre-test and post-test were done with paired sample *t*-test. In accordance with the descriptive statistics in Table 3, the means, numbers, standard deviation and standard error mean were provided.

Table 3. The descriptive statistics data of the participants’ pre-test and post-test.

Paired sample statistics				
Test	Mean	NSD	SE Mean	
Pre-test	3.27	26	3.412	.669
Post-test	6.88	26	1.395	.274

The score of the participants’ pre-test and post-test were done with paired sample *t*-test. In accordance with the descriptive statistics in Table 3. The number of the participants are 26. The means of the pretest is 3.27 and that of the post-test is 6.88. The standard deviation of the pretest results in 3.412 and that of the posttest is 1.395. The standard error mean of pretest is .669 and that of the posttest is .274.

The results of the pre-test and post-test of word per seconds(WPS) for the participants were shown in Table 4.

Table 4. The Comparison of the Oral Reading Fluency Pre- and Post- test Results

Test	N	M	SD	t	p
Pre – Post	26	- 3.615	2.609	- 7.066	.000

* $p < .05$

As can be seen in the paired sample t-test results in Table 4, the data reveals statistically that the t-value is -7.066 which reached at the $p < .05$ significance level. This indicates that students displayed significant improvement in their English oral reading fluency following four weeks of English RT instruction. With the repeated reading and practice the RT script, RT-exposed students significantly improved their oral reading fluency after four weeks.

Classroom observation from the video –taped class

From observing the video records of students’ rehearsal and performance, it was found that each group had a similar positive reaction toward RT. Before the RT instruction, each group didn’t read and perform very well. After RT instruction they felt that they could read aloud their lines more expressively and fluently although the lines they played were short. They were better and better in their performance with the team members on oral reading expression, volume, smoothness, and phrasing in the rehearsal after few practices.

Five students’ responses to RT teaching from the four open-ended questions

1.What bothers you when you are in English class?

Student 1: I can’t read words well in English.

Student 3: I am nervous when I read in English.

2. Do you like Readers Theater (RT)? Why? Or Why not?

Student 4: I like RT. It's fun to participate in RT which improve my speaking English skills.

Student 5: I like RT because I can practice talking in English with my group members.

3. What do you think about RT when you participant in RT ?

Student 1: I have more courage to read aloud English in public, but I still get nervous to perform on the stage.

Student 2: We must practice repeatedly for textbook readings which helped my oral reading fluently.

Student 3: Although more practicing opportunities help increase my oral reading, I am still anxious about speaking English cause I am not fluent enough to catch up the lines with my group members.

4. What do you think when you are in English class?

Student 2: I like English class because I like performing on the stage.

Student 4: I like English Class very much because my English will be better and better .

Student 5: It's fun, and I am very happy in English Class.

Conclusion

In conclusion, referring to the above-mentioned information, the results of this study have shown that classroom anxiety is not significantly reduced through collaboration and RT instruction. Students' anxiety is often caused by weaker communication skills. In addition, students' communicative abilities are exposed to inspection in the classroom. Thus, this can heighten their learning anxiety and affect students' willingness to participate in class and their learning outcome. However, there are only four weeks, and students only can practice twenty-five minutes a week. It is not long enough to cause a significant proficiency change to lower their speaking and learning anxiety in the classroom. Whereas facilitating anxiety produce positive effects on learners' performance, too much anxiety may cause a poor performance (Atef-Vshid, and Kashani, 2011). Longer training time is expected to increase the effect of RT activities toward helping them reduce their English speaking and learning anxiety in the classroom. Under collaboration, both the high and low achievers helped and interacted positively with each other in the group because they have to perform

together. Through the repeatedly reading the scripts developed their oral reading fluency. In order to perform in front of audiences, the students had to practice and rehearse the scripts again and again. Since the students were responsible for certain roles, they not only had the responsibility to practice their part well but also learned to listen carefully to other's reading in order to catch up with the lines. Thus, RT has also created the need of listening. As mentioned above this study might not have been practiced long enough and might not try more diverse scripts to see the great development of the participants. This will be an issue worthy of further research.

In sum, with collaborative learning and repeated reading, it is workable to perform RT in English class with the limited time in elementary school.

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Appendix A
(FLCAS, adopted by Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope, 1986)

Class : _____ Name: _____ Number: _____

Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale

In the column, circle the anxiety ranking according to how anxious you feel when you speak English in the following situation.

1	2	3	4	5
Not at all	Slightly	Moderately	Very	Extremely
anxious	anxious	anxious	anxious	anxious

Situation	Anxiety				
1. I never feel quite sure of myself when I am speaking in my foreign language class.	1	2	3	4	5
2. I don't worry about making mistakes in language class.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I tremble when I know that I'm going to be called on in language class.	1	2	3	4	5
4. It frightens me when I don't understand what the teacher is saying in the foreign language.	1	2	3	4	5
5. It wouldn't bother me at all to take more foreign language classes.	1	2	3	4	5
6. During language class, I find myself thinking about things that have nothing to do with the course.	1	2	3	4	5
7. I keep thinking that the other students are better at language than I am.	1	2	3	4	5
8. I am usually at ease during tests in my language class.	1	2	3	4	5
9. I start to panic when I have to speak without preparation in language class.	1	2	3	4	5
10. I worry about the consequences of failing my foreign language class.	1	2	3	4	5
11. I don't understand why some people get so upset over foreign language class.	1	2	3	4	5
12. In language class, I can get so nervous I forget things I know.	1	2	3	4	5

13. It embarrasses me to volunteer answer in my language class.	1	2	3	4	5
14. I would not be nervous speaking the foreign language with native speakers.	1	2	3	4	5
15. I get upset when I don't understand what the teacher is correcting.	1	2	3	4	5
16. Even if I am well prepared for language class, I feel anxious about it.	1	2	3	4	5
17. I often feel not going to my language class.	1	2	3	4	5
18. I feel confident when I speak in foreign language class.	1	2	3	4	5
19. I am afraid that my language teacher is ready to correct every mistake I make.	1	2	3	4	5
20. I can feel my heart pounding when I'm going to be called on in language class.	1	2	3	4	5
21. The more I study for a language test, the more con-fused I get.	1	2	3	4	5
22. I don't feel pressure to prepare very well for language class.	1	2	3	4	5
23. I always feel that the other students speak the foreign language better than I do.	1	2	3	4	5
24. I feel very self-conscious about speaking the foreign language in front of other students.	1	2	3	4	5
25. Language class moves so quickly I worry about getting left behind.	1	2	3	4	5
26. I feel more tense and nervous in my language class than in my other classes.	1	2	3	4	5
27. I get nervous and confused when I am speaking in my language class.	1	2	3	4	5
28. When I'm on my way to language class, I feel very sure and relaxed.	1	2	3	4	5
29. I get nervous when I don't understand every word the language teacher says.	1	2	3	4	5
30. I feel overwhelmed by the number of rules you have to learn to speak a foreign language.	1	2	3	4	5
31. I am afraid that the other students will laugh at me when I speak the foreign language.	1	2	3	4	5

32. I would probably feel comfortable around native speakers of the foreign language.	1	2	3	4	5
33. I get nervous when the language teacher asks questions which I haven't prepared in advance.	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix B
(Adopted by Wu, 2005)

Questionnaire of FLCAS

各位小朋友好：
這份問卷主要是希望了解你們學習英語的情形，你只要根據你自己親身的經驗和想法作答就可以。

_____國小 _____年 _____班 _____號姓名 _____

請依照自己實際的感覺圈選。

上英語課情況	非常 同意	同意	沒 意見	不 同意	非常 不同意
1. 上英語課講英文時，我一直覺得沒自信。	1	2	3	4	5
2. 上英語課時，我不擔心犯錯。	1	2	3	4	5
3. 上英語課時，知道要被老師叫到時，我會發抖。	1	2	3	4	5
4. 上英語課時，聽不懂老師在講什麼時，我會害怕。	1	2	3	4	5
5. 如果要再上更多英語課，我一點也不會覺得困擾。	1	2	3	4	5
6. 上英語課時，我會想著和英語課無關的事。	1	2	3	4	5
7. 我一直覺得其他同學的英語比我好。	1	2	3	4	5
8. 上英語課考試時，我一向覺得輕鬆自在。	1	2	3	4	5
9. 上英語課時，如果沒有準備而必須開口講英文，我會覺得慌張。	1	2	3	4	5
10. 我會擔心英文不及格的後果。	1	2	3	4	5
11. 我不懂為什麼有人對上英語課如此煩惱。	1	2	3	4	5
12. 上英語課時，我會緊張到連本來會的都忘記了。	1	2	3	4	5

13.上英語課，要我自動舉手發言回答問題，我會不好意思。	1	2	3	4	5
14.我和外國人講英語時不會覺得緊張。	1	2	3	4	5
15.當我不了解老師幫我糾正的內容時，我會覺得困擾。	1	2	3	4	5
16.上英語課時，即使我有充分準備，我還是覺得很緊張。	1	2	3	4	5
17.我常常不想上英語課。	1	2	3	4	5
18.上英語課講英語時，我覺得很有自信。	1	2	3	4	5
19.一想到老師可能會糾正我所犯的每一個錯誤，我就會覺得很害怕。	1	2	3	4	5
20.上英語課快叫到我時，我覺得我的心都快要掉出來了。	1	2	3	4	5
21.準備英語考試時，我讀得越多，越覺得困惑、混淆。	1	2	3	4	5
22.上英語課前好好準備並不會讓我覺得有壓力。	1	2	3	4	5
23.我總是覺得其他同學英語講得比我好	1	2	3	4	5
24.在同學面前講英語我覺得不自在。	1	2	3	4	5
25.英語課的進度太快，我擔心會跟不上。	1	2	3	4	5
26.我上英語課比上其他課來的更有壓力、更緊張。	1	2	3	4	5
27.我上英語課講英語時，會覺得緊張和困惑。	1	2	3	4	5
28.準備去上英語課時，我一路上覺得自信滿滿、輕鬆自在。	1	2	3	4	5
29.英語老師說的我不是每個字都聽得懂時，我會緊張。	1	2	3	4	5
30.學英語必須學那麼多的文法規則令我覺得吃不消。	1	2	3	4	5

31. 當我講英語時，我害怕期同學笑我。	1	2	3	4	5
32. 旁邊有說英語的外國人時，我應該還是會覺得輕鬆自在。	1	2	3	4	5
33. 當英語老師問到我沒有事先準備好的問題時，我會緊張。	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix C
(Dr. Luo, personal suggestion)

Oral Reading Fluency Test
(The content of RT script)

Class: _____ Name: _____ Number: _____

Word Per Second (WPS): 4 -5 word sentences/2 seconds				
Scores Test Sentences	Accuracy		Time	
	OK (1 point)	Not OK (0 point)	OK (1 point)	Not OK (0 point)
1. Is he a cook?				
2. Yes, he is.				
3. Is your father a cook?				
4. No. he's not.				
5. Is your mother a teacher?				
6. Yes, she is.				
7. He is a doctor.				
8. She is a nurse.				
9. Are you a student?				
10. Yes, I am.				
Total points				
Total scores				

Appendix D

英語讀者劇場活動回饋單 (Adapt by Wu, 2005)

三年_____班 座號：_____ 姓名：_____ 男生 女生

親愛的小朋友，這份回饋單主要是想要了解你對讀者劇場活動的感想，這不是考試，答案沒有好、壞和對、錯之分。你只要依照自己實際的經驗和想法，寫出你對英語讀者劇場活動的想法與感覺，不會影響你的學期成績，所有資料都會保密，不會讓別人知道，這份回饋單是作為老師未來教學的參考。謝謝你的用心回答。

1. What bothers you when you are in English class?
上英語課，你覺得什麼事情或問題你覺得困擾？
2. Do you like Readers Theater (RT)? Why? Or Why not?
英語讀者劇場的活動你喜歡參與嗎？
a. 喜歡。理由是… b. 不喜歡。理由是…
3. What do you think about RT when you participant in RT ?
在參與英語讀者劇場時，對你的英語學習有哪些看法？
4. What do you think when you are in English class?
上英語課，你感覺如何？

A Case Study on Fahrenheit 451 as a Comparative Study of Translations of Science Fiction between China and Taiwan

Liu, Wen-hsin^{*}

Graduate Institute of Translation and Interpretation
National Changhua University of Education

Tsai, Pei-Shu

Graduate Institute of Translation and Interpretation
National Changhua University of Education

Abstract

Based on Guo's (2004) three criteria for translating science fiction (literariness, scientificity, and popularity), this study aims at comparing the similarities and differences between simplified Chinese and traditional Chinese versions of *Fahrenheit 451*. From a literary perspective, both versions favored using either four-character Chinese idioms or repeated words to create an eloquent and powerful image. When parallel structures were used in the source text, they both rendered the translation with the same structure to maintain similar effects. The difference was that the traditional Chinese version stayed faithful to the original by rendering the text literally, while the other version paraphrased the text. The former approach provided more accurate translation of the scenes and characters, but sometimes it departed from the source text. From a scientific perspective, technological neologisms were discussed. Both Yu's (2006) and Zhu's (2005) versions did not coin new lexical items. Instead, they translated technological neologisms with equivalents in the target language. If no direct equivalent was available, Yu preferred following the punctuation of the original faithfully and translated the terms literally. Conversely, Zhu preferred ignoring the usage of capitals in the source language and employed descriptive expressions in rendition, which helped the readers understand the scientific features in the novel. From a popular perspective, no matter it was at lexical, phrasal, or sentential levels, both translators provided some excellent translations by boldly rearranging syntactic structures of the original to accommodate Chinese usage. Nevertheless, both translators sometimes stayed too close to the source text, so their translations seemed unnatural to the target readers. Through analyzing translation extracted from publications, this study hopes to offer translators some references to learn from and to avoid making similar errors.

Keywords: communicative translation, science fiction translation, translation
comparison

^{*}Corresponding author

以華氏 451 探討兩岸科幻小說翻譯的異同

劉汶欣*

國立彰化師範大學翻譯所

蔡佩舒

國立彰化師範大學翻譯所

摘要

本研究以郭建中(2004)的科幻小說三項翻譯標準(文學性、科學性、通俗性)為基礎進行分析，旨在比較《華氏 451》一書的繁簡中文譯本的異同。就文學面向而言，兩譯本都偏好使用四字成語或疊字讓譯文更簡潔有力。當原文用排比結構時，兩譯本也會遵循該結構以產生同樣的效果。兩譯本的差異在於，繁體版傾向忠於原文，喜歡直譯，而簡體版則偏好跳脫原文，用重述的方式來呈現小說中的場景及人物。繁體版譯文大多能藉此更精確地呈現小說中的場景及人物，惟有時免不了過度詮釋。就科學面向而言，科技新詞為討論主軸。不論是于(2006)的繁體譯本或蘇(2005)的簡體譯本，譯者都不另外造新詞而使用已存在目標語中對應的科技詞彙。若找不到直接對應的詞彙，繁體版傾向直譯並忠實呈現原文的標點符號，而簡體版傾向忽略原文字首大寫的用法並使用描述性詞彙，讓讀者能更容易理解文本中的科學特質。就通俗面向而言，無論是字詞或是句子層面，兩譯本都有佳作，兩名譯者都大膽重組甚至改寫句子結構讓譯文符合中文語法。然而，兩名譯者都難避偶爾過於貼字面，導致譯文生硬。藉由分析真實的翻譯實例，本研究希望可提供譯者學習仿效，做為避免犯相同錯誤的參考依據。

關鍵詞：交際翻譯、科幻小說翻譯、譯文比較

*通訊作者

Introduction

Research Motivation

More and more science fictions books have been translated from English into Chinese, such as *Divergent*, *Hunger Games*, *The Maze Runner*. However, there has not been much research on English to Chinese translation of science fiction. In addition, issues mentioned in *Fahrenheit 451* are similar to those in the real world. Both of the people in this novel and the people in the present world are overwhelmed by technological products. Therefore, it is necessary for this study to offer a comparison of two translations in translating science fiction for translators who are interested in this field.

Research Question

What are the similarities and differences between the traditional Chinese and simplified Chinese translations of science fiction published in Taiwan and China respectively in terms of three aspects of science fiction: literariness, scientificity, and popularity?

Literature Review

Science Fiction

Guo (2004) proposed three criteria should be used to discuss the translation of science fiction: literariness, scientificity, and popularity. In terms of literariness, Guo stated that it is generally believed that science fiction can be categorized as popular fiction. Therefore, the strategies that we adopt to analyze literary works can also be employed to science fiction. “The literariness of a translated novel embodies in its description of the settings, events, characters’ appearance and inner mind as well as its narration and dialogues between characters in the novel, etc.” (Guo, 2004, p. 150). With regard to scientificity, Guo (2004) stated that science fiction all concerns scientific and technological issues. It is a type of fiction “based upon the development of science in the real world,” (Guo, 2004, p. 170) past and present to depict and extrapolate a possible future. As for popularity, according to Guo (2004), “science fiction belongs to popular fiction; therefore, in contrast to classical literature, its target text readers are the general public” (p. 149). As popular fiction, even though science fiction has readers who are capable of reading high level books, the translated text of it must be easy to understand by ordinary people as well because the main purpose of popular fiction is to appeal to a large audience.

Translation Strategies for Science Fiction

Guo (2004) proposed four types of meaning. Among them, conceptual meaning and

collocative meaning were adapted from Leech (1981). The other two were contextual meaning and cultural meaning. The first type of meaning, conceptual meaning, can also be called “denotative or cognitive meaning” (Leech, 1981, p. 9). It refers to “logic, cognitive, or denotative content” (Leech, 1981, p. 23). The second type of meaning, collocative meaning, is composed of “the associations a word acquires,” in which the meaning of words is likely to form within its environment. As for Guo’s (2004) contextual meaning, it refers to the exact meaning of a word that is given by the context presented. The context here involves words and phrases, sentences, and even historical and cultural backgrounds.

Methodology

Research Materials

Fahrenheit 451 was written by Ray Bradbury (1953), one of the best-known American science fiction and fantasy writers in the 20th and 21st century. He is so productive that approximate 500 novels, plays, short stories, poems have been published by him. The title of the novel, *Fahrenheit 451* represents the temperature at which paper catches fire. This thesis focuses on the comparison of two Chinese versions of the same English book, *Fahrenheit 451*, one was written in traditional Chinese and the other one in simplified Chinese. The traditional Chinese version was translated by Yu (2006) from Taiwan and was published in 2006. The simplified one was translated by Zhu from China and published in 2005. The book *Fahrenheit 451* falls into three parts: Part One: The Hearth and the Salamander; Part Two: The Sieve and the Sand; Part Three: Burning Bright. Part One of *Fahrenheit 451* was the focus of this research because it was the fundamental part of the novel for unfolding the plot. However, if necessary, for instance, the same technological neologisms that appear in other parts of the book were also analyzed.

Analysis Procedure

The current study compared two Chinese versions of *Fahrenheit 451* to find the similarities or differences between them and the translation strategies for science fiction by examining three respects: literariness, scientificity, and popularity. These three respects were further divided into smaller sections for discussion. In terms of literariness, the descriptions of settings, as well as descriptions of characters, were discussed respectively. In terms of scientificity, technological neologisms were analyzed. In terms of popularity, words and phrases, conceptual meaning, contextual meaning, and collocative meaning were analyzed one after another; as for sentences, sentence reconstruction and sentence rephrasing were explored.

Data Analysis

Literary Aspects

Settings

Description of setting of a story refers to the time and place that take place in the story. In Table 1, the translators of the two Chinese versions rendered the source material either literally or according to the context. However, in the following phrases, it is worth pointing out that the translator of the former version employed literal translation more than contextual translation. It adopted literal translation three out of five times; in contrast, the simplified Chinese version was situational-oriented.

Table 1

Example of Translation from a Literary Aspect on Settings

Language	Page	Text
English	24	The Mechanical Hound slept but did not sleep, lived but did not live in its gently humming, gently vibrating, softly illuminated kennel back in a dark corner of the firehouse. The dim light of one in the morning, the moonlight from the open sky framed through the great window, <i>touched here and there</i> on the brass and the copper and the steel of the faintly trembling beast.
Traditional Chinese	48	機械『獵犬』趴在消防隊後側一個黑暗角落中微微嗡想，微微振動，在光線幽微的犬舍內， 睡著但不是真睡、活著但不是真活 。凌晨一點的微光，自遼闊的夜空投下的月光，穿透巨大的的窗戶， 這兒那兒輕觸著 微微振動的獵犬身上的銅和鋼。
Simplified Chinese	27	在消防站的一個陰暗角落裡，機械獵犬 似睡非睡、似醒非醒 地待在他那個光線柔和、微帶輕響和震動的窩裡。泛白的天空吐出 黎明的曙光 ，曙光伴著月光，透過寬敞的窗戶， 斑斑駁駁地落 在那只由黃銅和鋼鐵打造的輕輕顫動的獵犬身上。

In Table 1, in terms of *touched here and there* in the second sentence, the translator of the former version rendered it literally into *這兒那兒輕觸著 zhè ér nà ér qīng chù zhe*, while the translator of the other version rendered it into *斑斑駁駁地落在 bān bān bó bó dì luò zài*, meaning “mottled light falls on,” which seemed to be clearer and more aesthetic than the former version did.

Characters

The translator of the traditional Chinese version, as well as the simplified Chinese version, employed the semicolon in the same manner as the source text as presented in Table 2. This was done to mimic the effect of “conveying antithesis or opposite ideas” (Jarvie, 1992, p. 23).

Table 2

Example of Translation from a Literary Aspect on Characters

Language	Page	Text
English	05	It was a look, almost, of pale surprise; the dark eyes were so fixed to the world that <i>no move escaped them</i> .
Traditional Chinese	24	那神情幾乎是種朦朧的驚異；那雙深色眸子是那麼專注的凝望世界， <i>任何動靜均逃不出它的覺察</i> 。
Simplified Chinese	05	那幾乎是一種蒼白而訝異的神情；深色雙眸專注地望著這個世界， <i>一切都無所遁形</i> 。

As shown in Table 2, when the sentence was too long, the translators separated it into two sections with comas. In translating *no move escaped them* in the second sentence, the translator of the former version utilized twelve Chinese characters to render it as *任何動靜均逃不出它的覺察* *rèn hé dòng jìng jun táo bù chū tā de jiào chá*, meaning “no movement gets away from its detection,” whereas the translator of the other version only employed seven Chinese characters to render it as *一切都無所遁形* *yī qiē dōu wú suǒ dùn xíng* meaning “there is nothing to hide,” making the segmentation much clearer. Apart from that, the last four Chinese characters in this part *無所遁形* *wú suǒ dùn xíng*, meaning “nothing to hide” was actually a four-character Chinese idiom that formed a more eloquent translation.

Scientific Aspects

Ear thimble was created as a neologism by inventing a new collocation of a compound noun. In Cambridge Academic Content Dictionary, *thimble* is “a small, hard cover, shaped like a cup, which fits over the end of a finger to help you push a needle through material when sewing” (Thimble, 2017). From the above information, English readers can have a general picture of *ear thimble*. That is, it is a cup-shaped cover that people can wear in their ears.

In Table 3, both translators of the traditional Chinese version and the simplified Chinese version employed the phrase that has been used for the similar invention in the target language instead of coining a new word for *ear thimble*. Nevertheless, the lexical

items that the translator of the two Chinese versions employed were distinct. The translator of the former version rendered this term into 耳機 *ěr jī*, meaning “earphones or earbuds” whereas the translator of the other version rendered it as 耳塞 *ěr sāi*, meaning “earplugs.”

Table 3

Example of Translation from a Scientific Aspect on New Word Ear Thimble

Language	Page	Text
English	15-16	Just had another call on the old <i>ear thimble</i> .
Traditional Chinese	36	這舊 耳機 剛剛收到另一通急救電話
Simplified Chinese	17	我們的舊 耳塞 剛剛又接到一個電話。
English	18	She is an expert at lip reading from ten years of apprenticeship at Seashell <i>ear thimbles</i> .
Traditional Chinese	36	戴了十年海貝 耳機，她已是讀唇語的行家。
Simplified Chinese	20	過去十年她就一直戴著那種貝殼形狀的 耳塞，現在已經精通唇讀。

In the source text, it was not hard to infer that *ear thimble* was a device used for receiving messages. Therefore, the former translated version *earbuds* was preferable to *earplugs*, which are employed to keep noise or water out.

In Table 3, Bradbury (1953) capitalized the first letter of *Seashell*, which was originally a common noun in the source language. Except for the first letter at the beginning of the sentence and the first person singular, capital letters are usually employed for proper nouns, which are particular names of a book, person, places, etc. The author was most likely to mimic the feature of using capitals as proper nouns to make *Seashell* appear to be a neologism.

In each of the three examples in Table 4, the source material kept using the same word *Seashell*, but it was placed differently in sentences and functioned as different parts of speech. For instance, in the first example, *Seashell ear thimbles*, *Seashell* was placed in front of a compound noun to be used as an adjective. In the second example *her Seashell* and in the third example *the little Seashells*, *Seashell* were both placed after an adjective and was used as nouns.

The translators of the two Chinese versions adopted distinct translation strategies in rendering *Seashell* in Table 4. In the traditional Chinese version, lexically the translator

literally rendered *Seashell* into 海貝 *hǎi bèi*, meaning “sea shell” and employed the same translation to all three examples of *Seashell*. Syntactically, the translator of the traditional Chinese version took different approaches to represent the effects of capitalizing the first letter of *Seashell* in the original.

Table 4

Example of Translation from a Scientific Aspect on New Word Seashell

Language	Page	Text
English	18	She is an expert at lip reading from ten years of apprenticeship at <i>Seashell</i> ear thimbles.
	42	There was a tiny dance of melody in the air, her <i>Seashell</i> was tamped in her ear again, and she was listening to far people in far places...
	12	And in her ears the little <i>Seashells</i> , the thimble radios tamped tight, and an electronic ocean of sound,....
Traditional Chinese	39	戴了十年海貝耳機，她已是讀唇語的行家。
	71	室內飄著輕微的樂音，她的『海貝』又塞在耳朵，她正在聆聽之地的遙遠之人說話。
Simplified Chinese	32	她的兩耳緊箍著『海貝』，超小型收音機，那一片電子音響之海，...。
	20	過去十年她就一直戴著那種貝殼形狀的耳塞
	47	空氣裡跳動著一絲輕柔的旋律，她的耳朵裡又塞著耳塞，她在聆聽遙遠的人們從遙遠的地方傳來的聲音。
	13	她的耳朵裡塞著精巧的海螺狀無線收音機，各種聲音...。

In the first example of the original *Seashell ear thimbles*, the translator from Taiwan rendered it plainly as 海貝耳機 *hǎi bèi ěr jī*, meaning “seashell” *earbuds*. The translation added no punctuation to emphasize *Seashell* for the reason that *Seashell* is employed as an adjective here. In English, capitals are often used for proper nouns, and in Chinese, “single quotation marks can be employed to signal a term that is used for a specific meaning” (National Languages Committee, 2008). No proper noun in Chinese can be utilized as an adjective in the target language. Therefore, no quotation marks were added to the translation of *Seashell*. In the second and the third example of the original text, the translator from Taiwan rendered *Seashell* the same as the first example, 海貝 *hǎi bèi*, meaning “seashell” in terms of lexical item. However, in contrast to the first example, *her Seashell* and *the little Seashells* in these two examples, *Seashells* were both utilized as “nouns” with adjectives going before and modifying them. Therefore, double quotation

marks were employed to both of the last two examples as 『海貝』 *hǎi bèi* to highlight the use of a proper noun. This was different from the first example that applied no punctuation to highlight the presence of capital letters in words like *Seashell*. However, according to National Languages Committee, Ministry of Education (2008), “single” quotation marks are supposed to be used to represent a specific term.

On the contrary, in simplified Chinese version, *Seashell* was rendered into three distinct versions according to the context of the translation in these three examples of Table 4 to avoid monotony. In terms of the feature of employing capitals to *Seashell*, the translator consistently did nothing to it probably for the sake of natural usage in the target language. In the first example of the original *Seashell ear thimbles*, the translator from China followed the grammatical function of *Seashell* as an adjective in the original. He also translated *Seashell* as an adjective 貝殼形狀的 *bèi ké xíng zhuàng de*, meaning “seashell-shaped.” In the second and example of the original *her Seashell*, the simplified Chinese version stayed true to the grammatical function of *Seashell* as a noun in the original. However, the translator didn’t directly render it from *Seashell* but clarified the **precise** meaning of the situation in the context by referring to her former translation of *Seashell as ear thimbles*. Her newly translated phrase employed *ear thimbles* instead of *Seashell*, which indicated what *Seashell* really was for the sake of clarity. In the third example, *the little Seashells*, the translator from China boldly recast grammatical structure of the original sentence, so she converted *Seashells* from a noun to an adjective to adjust to the context of her translation. *Seashells* were translated into 海螺狀 *hǎi luó zhuàng*, meaning “conch-shaped.”

Popular Aspects

Conceptual Meaning

The original sentence was too long, so both translators of the two Chinese versions divided it into two or three sections with comma to localize with the common usage of the target language in Table 5. Nevertheless, the term *dial* is translated differently in these two Chinese versions. The translator of the former version rendered *dial* as 指針 *zhǐ zhēn*, meaning “pointer” while the translator of the latter version rendered it as 鐘面 *zhōng miàn*, meaning “clock face.”

Table 5

Example of Translation from a Popular Aspect on Conceptual Meaning

Language	Page	Text
English	10	She had a very thin face like the <i>dial</i> of a small clock seen faintly in a dark room in the middle of a night when you waken to see the time....
Traditional Chinese	30	她有一張非常細長的臉蛋，就好像半夜醒來在黑暗中依稀可見的小時鐘上的 指針 ...
Simplified Chinese	11	她的臉飄渺而單薄，彷彿半夜醒來看時間時，那個依稀可辨的小小時鐘的 鐘面 ...

In Cambridge Academic Content Dictionary, *dial* means “the part of a machine or device that shows a measurement, often a numbered circle with a moving pointer” (Dial, 2017). From this definition, the latter version was more accurate in that dial represents the whole part of clock face rather than the pointers themselves.

Contextual Meaning

In Table 6, both translators attempted to mimic the sentential structure of how the source text divided the text. In terms of lexical items, the translators of the traditional Chinese version and the simplified Chinese had different interpretations regarding the meaning of *hour* in the source text.

Table 6

Example of Translation from a Popular Aspect on Contextual Meaning

Language	Page	Text
English	12	So, with the feeling of a man who will die in the <i>next hour</i> for lack of air, he felt his way toward his open, separate, and therefore cold bed.
Traditional Chinese	32	由是，帶著那種 下一刻 就會因缺氧而死的感覺，他摸索著朝他那張單獨的、因此冰冷的床鋪走去。
Simplified Chinese	13	於是，伴著那種 再過一小時 就會因缺氧而死的痛苦感覺，他摸索著走向他那張空蕩而陰冷的單人床。

The translator of the former version rendered *next hour* into **下一刻 xià yī kè**, meaning “next moment,” whereas the translator of the latter version rendered it as **再過一小時 zài guò yī xiǎo shíè**, meaning “an hour later.” The translator of the latter version

rendered it as an hour, meaning “sixty minutes,” probably because it was the most common interpretation of an hour. For this reason, she directly translated it as an hour without a second thought. In contrast, the former version was likely to consider the context of this sentence more, so he came up with the translation as moment, which stayed closer to the concept of dying “soon” in the original.

Collocative Meaning

In the traditional Chinese version and the simplified Chinese version, both translators attempted to mimic the original text’s breaks and punctuation by dividing the text in the same way as the source text did (see Table 7). However, the two translators rendered *the upper floor* differently. In the former version, the translator rendered it as 上層 *shàng céng*, meaning “upper layer,” and in the latter version, the translator rendered it into 二樓 *èr lóu*, meaning “the second floor.”

Table 7

Example of Translation from a Popular Aspect on Collocative Meaning

Language	Page	Text
English	04	he showered luxuriously, and then, whistling, hands in pockets, walked across <i>the upper floor of the fire station</i>
Traditional Chinese	22	他悠然暢快地沖個澡，然後，吹個吹著口哨，兩手插在口袋裡，走過消防隊的上層.....
Simplified Chinese	03	他舒舒服服地洗完澡，然後，雙手插在口袋裡，吹著口哨，緩步度過消防站二樓.....

In the source text, *the upper floor* of the fire station indicated that there are only two floors, the upper floor and the lower floor of the building. Therefore, the latter version of 二樓 *èr lóu*, meaning “the second floor” was faithful to the source text, and it collocated well with the building 消防站 *xiāo fáng zhàn*, meaning “the fire station.” Conversely, in the former version, the translator rendered *the upper floor* as 上層 *shàng céng*, meaning “upper layer,” which seemed to stay too close to the original *upper*, and *layer* was often used to describe “a level of material” (Layer, 2017), which might not be a good collocation with the building.

Sentence Reconstruction

Both translators of the two Chinese versions were inclined to utilize four-character Chinese idiomatic or non-idiomatic expressions including 集中視力 *jí zhōng shì lì*、定睛細看 *dìng jīng xì kàn*、驚呼出聲 *jīng hū chū shēng*、無影無蹤 *wú yǐng wú zōng*. in Example 4.3.4.1. These four Chinese phrases mean “focus one’s eyes, gaze at, exclaim,

and disappear” respectively. This is probably because it would sound more eloquent by using four Chinese characters to express a concept.

Table 8

Example of Translation from a Popular Aspect on Sentence Reconstruction

Language	Page	Text
English	05	Something vanishing swiftly across a lawn <i>before he could focus his eyes or speak</i> .
Traditional Chinese	23	在他來不及集中視力或開口前，似乎有什麼東西迅速掠過草坪，消失。
Simplified Chinese	05	有什麼東西迅速掠過草坪，在他定睛細看、驚呼出聲之前，就已消失的無影無蹤。

In Table 8, the translator of the traditional Chinese version and the simplified Chinese version adopted different translation strategies toward sentences with time sequence. In the traditional Chinese version, the translator chose to follow the common usage of Chinese to state events in chronological sequence, so he moved *before he could focus his eyes or speak* to the front to translate it. On the contrary, the translator of the simplified Chinese version chose to adhere to the original text with the same time sequence that places what happened first in the front and what happened later next. To follow the time sequence of the original but also to make the translation sound natural to the target reader, some adjustments were also made by the translator. She separated the first part *Something vanishing swiftly across a lawn* into two parts. She kept *Something swiftly across a lawn* at the start of the translation as the source text did, with the rest of the sentence appearing after that.

Sentence Rephrasing

The translators of the two Chinese versions rendered the text completely different in Table 9. The translator of the traditional Chinese version was inclined to translate the text literally and mimicked the original text’s breaks and punctuation in order to adhere to the form of the source material. This approach was more faithful to the source text.

Conversely, the translator of the simplified Chinese version seemed to over-translate the text. She boldly rephrased the text by combining different sections together and translated it according to the meaning within the context rather than the literal meaning.

Table 9

Example of Translation from a Popular Aspect on Sentence Rephrasing

Language	Page	Text
English	06	He felt she was walking in a circle about him, turning him end for end, shaking him quietly, and emptying his pockets, without once moving herself.
Traditional Chinese	25	他感覺她在圍著他轉，將他翻來覆去，輕輕搖甩，掏光他的口袋，而她其實動也沒動。
Simplified Chinese	06	他覺得她好像在圍著他轉圈，不時從頭到腳的打量他；彷彿用不著動一下，她就可以洞悉他，了解他的一切。

For instance, in translating *turning him end for end, shaking him quietly, and emptying his pockets*, the translator of the simplified version paraphrased it as 不時從頭到腳的打量他 *bù shí cóng tóu dào jiǎo de dǎ liàng tā*. The newly translated sentence means “to look at him from top to toe from time to time,” which summarized three phrases into one section to make it more readable to the target reader. In addition, the latter version even boldly used *without once moving herself* as the beginning and added 她就可以洞悉他，了解他的一切 *tā jiù kě yǐ dòng xī tā ,le jiě tā de yī qiē*, meaning “she can know him all too well,” to the target text to form a new sentence.

Conclusion and Discussion

Conclusion

In terms of literariness, a common ground between the two versions can be found in their syntactic structure. Both translators of the two Chinese versions tried to retain the source text’s breaks and punctuation as much as possible on the condition that it did not affect their target reader’s understanding of their translations. In particular, when parallelism was used in the source text, both translators also reproduced parallel structure to reproduce similar effects. The differences between the two versions lay in the translation strategies they adopted. In almost all of the cases, the traditional Chinese version was more faithful to the source text and translated the text word-for-word. Conversely, the translator of the simplified Chinese version usually preferred to render the text according to the context rather than literal translation and expanded upon the text by adding more words or sometimes omitting words from the source text. Sometimes adding words made her translation more precise, but other times it departed from the original because it added extra meaning which was not mentioned in the source text.

In terms of scientificity, as for technological neologisms, both translators adopted the

same strategies in two respects. To begin with, both Chinese versions directly utilized equivalents that have the same function as technological neologisms in the target language. Although some products or things had not been invented when the book was written in the 1950s, including earbuds and TV walls, nowadays they have become well-known products to the world. Even if the author of the source text tried to use a new neologism to replace an existing creation, the translators of the two versions both utilized equivalents already existed in the target language instead of creating new expressions. Secondly, if no equivalent was available in the target language, both translators attempted to employ terms that have similar syntactic structure as the source text and utilized existing terms with minor adjustments to represent technological neologisms. For instance, both translators followed the source text by inventing a new noun-noun compound word to reproduce technological neologisms. In such case, *TV parlor* were translated as 電視間 *diàn shì jiān* or 電視廳 *diàn shì tīng*, meaning “TV room,” which was adapted from 電視牆 *diàn shì qiáng*, meaning “TV walls.”

When neither equivalent terms nor similar syntactic structure was available, the two Chinese versions differed in the translation strategies they adopted. The translator of the traditional Chinese version favored translating technological neologisms literally and kept the features of capitals and quotation marks the same as the source text all the time. On the other hand, the translator of the simplified Chinese version preferred not to translate it literally and utilized a descriptive term to depict the function of the technological neologism. In addition, the translator of the simplified Chinese version maintained the features of quotation as the other version did but ignored the capitals in the source text.

In terms of popularity, both translators of the two Chinese versions tried to mimic the source text’s breaks and punctuation. Nevertheless, when the text was too long with many conjunctions and long modifiers, they both divided the sentence into more phrases to make the rendition more readable to the target reader.

The two Chinese versions differed in the way the two translators translated words and phrases. In terms of three types of meanings of popularity, such as for conceptual meaning, the simplified Chinese version produced more examples that were accurate because the translator of the other version did not take into account the multiple meanings of polysemous words. As for contextual meaning, the traditional Chinese version reproduced his translation well according to the context in all the examples provided, whereas the other version stayed too close to the literal meaning. As for collocative meaning, the latter version contained more good examples because the other version only considered the literal meaning of single words without thinking about whether it collocated well with the other words or not.

In terms of sentences, including sentence reconstruction and sentence rephrasing, the

translators of the two Chinese versions adopted different strategies in dealing with the syntactic structure of the source text. As for sentence reconstruction, the translator of the traditional Chinese version tended to rearrange words to fit the rendition into common Chinese usage. Conversely, the other version preferred to stay faithful to the syntactic structure of the source text. As for sentence rephrasing, the situation was the other way around. In the traditional Chinese version, the translator favored staying faithful to the syntactic structure of the source text, while in the other version, the translator tended to rephrase the sentence to make her translations more comprehensible to the reader.

Discussion

Regarding the literary aspect, Guo (2004) stated that literariness of a translation depends on whether the translator can render the spirit of the source text and its aesthetics. He or she should also be able to replicate the scenes of the source text. Therefore, both translators attempted to mimic the source text's breaks and punctuation and even stuck to the parallelism of the source text. This approach supports the principle of the communicative translation in that it "attempts to produce on its readers an effect as close as possible to that obtained on the readers of the original" (Newmark, 1988a, p. 39).

In regard to the scientific aspect, Guo (2004) stated that excellent science fiction is always created based on the science in the present world and predicts future scientific and technological development. Therefore, science and technology in the real world or in the future should be reproduced precisely to the reader. In this regard, both translators rendered technological neologisms with the lexicon which are known to the target reader based on the real world scientific knowledge. This approach also accords with the conception that a translator is supposed to "translate [technological] and descriptive terms by their counterparts" (Newmark, 1988b, p. 153). Even if no equivalent terms could be found for the neologism, both the translators employed counterparts that had similar meanings instead of coining new words. They sometimes even revised an existing counterpart that had a similar syntactic structure as that in the source text and utilized it as the equivalent of a technological neologism.

In regard to the popular aspect, according to Guo (2004), science fiction is a branch of popular fiction which aims to entertain the reader, so it must be easy to understand even to the general public. This concept accords with the principle of communicate translation that "it attempts to render the exact contextual meaning of the source text in such a way that both content and language are readily acceptable and comprehensible to the readership" (Newmark, 1988b, p. 47). Therefore, for readability, though both Chinese versions tried to copy the source text's breaks and punctuation, when the text was too long, they both separated the sentences into smaller phrases to create more readable rendition to the target reader.

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Biomedicine English Curriculum Design: Co-Teaching between a Biomedical Profession and an English Instructor

Tsai, Pei-Shu *

Graduate Institute of Translation and Interpretation
National Changhua University of Education

Wang, Nancy M.

Department of Biology & Center of Teaching Excellence
National Changhua University of Education

Abstract

Professional subjects such as biomedicine is usually considered as a huge challenge for English majors. For students majoring in Translation Studies, providing English-rich learning environment in themes in which these are conveyed via their specific stylistic forms may prompt the learning outcome. In this graduate course, the lectures were taught in English only, so that students could learn the application of medical terminology in a natural biomedical setting. The contents of the course covered linguistics-motivated morphology of medical terminology, root and affix analysis of medical terms, and introduction to biomedical knowledge such as familial hypercholesterolemia, Down syndrome, and prenatal examination. Students completed evaluations of course and instructors at the end of the term. Instructors did not receive the results until after submitting final course grade. The questionnaire targeted students' experiences and opinions on the professional background course and the traditional translation course. The results showed that the students reacted positively toward the course design. They felt not only had they learned a lot from the teachers in terms of gaining professional knowledge, but they also had fun in learning English. The results of the present study shall provide some empirical observations and new insight into translation teaching methodology and provide a different approach in addition to the traditional teaching method.

Keywords: English language teaching, curriculum design, language teaching

*Corresponding author

生物醫學英語課程設計： 專業教師與英語教師協同教學

蔡佩舒*

國立彰化師範大學 翻譯研究所

王妙媛

國立彰化師範大學 生物系、教學卓越中心

摘要

生物醫學的專業知識對於以英語為學習主題的學生而言，通常是巨大的挑戰。但對主修翻譯的學生而言，依照生物醫學的主題，提供該主題特有的語言表達風格與用法，如此豐富的英語學習環境可更加促發學生的學習效果。本碩士班課程以全英文教學，以期讓學生可在短期間大量接觸生物醫學類單字的自然使用環境與用法。內容包含語言學為主的醫學專業單字的構詞規則介紹、字根字首拆解法，以及專業生物醫學內容如家族性高膽固醇血症、唐氏症篩檢、產前檢查等主題。本課程設計的教學成效，在學期結束成績已經公告後，以問卷調查學生對於專業補充課程與對傳統翻譯教學的看法，所以該問卷的回收獨立於課程成績，讓學生可以放心填答。研究結果顯示，學生對於此教學設計呈正面歡迎的態度，除了表示對於專業教師提供的專業知識感到收穫良多，並感覺獲得了英語學習之外的樂趣。本研究的結果應可提供一些新的實徵觀察與見解，並希望可以提供傳統英語教學法之外，另一可供參考的教學法。

關鍵詞：英語教學、課程設計、語言教育

*通訊作者

Introduction

Developing professional knowledge in students learning translation studies within a short period of time is a difficult task for translation studies instructors, because most of the students in the translation programs come from backgrounds of humanity studies, such as English, foreign languages, or literature studies. In real-life situations, clients who call for translation service or who are willing to pay for translators are looking for someone who can translate materials on topics other than English literature. As a result, translators with some kind of background knowledge in technology, science, medicine, law, or business, are more likely to gain job opportunities. In other situations, the translators need to pick up some kind of specialized knowledge of a specific domain in a relatively short period of time in order to obtain a case. To be able to absorb massive knowledge within a short period of time, gaining some basic knowledge about those specific domains may be the first priority to prepare students for the market, because it is always easier to build up a house on top of a well-constructed foundation.

In order for teachers to cope with the growing demands from the new generation of students, collaborative teaching in higher education has been raised in the literature and received more and more attention (e.g., Money & Coughlan, 2016; Murawski & Swanson, 2001; Nevin, Thousand, & Villa, 2007, 2009; Nevin, Villa, & Thousand, 2009; Pancsofar & Petroff, 2016; Villa & Nevin, 2008), even though collaborative teaching has already been widely used in special education, primary schools, and secondary schools in the past several decades (Friend & Cook, 2010; Friend, Cook, Hurley-Chamberlain, & Shamberger, 2010; Hang & Rabren, 2009). In this study, the literature reviewed here mainly focuses on collaborative teaching in higher education, so that the teaching methods and education situation are most relevant to the target participants of the present study. Previous research by Nevin et al. (2009) suggested that collaborative teaching is a new method to prepare instructors for the new generation of students. Such teaching method could foster exchanges among teachers in terms of teaching method and curriculum design because collaborative preparation of materials and cooperated effort to create a collaborative setting was important in putting this kind of teaching method into practice.

Collaborative teaching could take various forms (Friend & Cook, 2010; Money & Coughlan, 2016; Nevin, Thousand, et al., 2009). Some classes were led by a senior instructor, who was accompanied by a junior teacher. The junior teacher could either observe the class, or in some cases, the junior teacher participated and assisted the primary lecturer. Some classes were directed by a main lecturer, and several other teachers provided lectures for only one to a few courses. In some other classes, a guest specialist provided consultants for the class and the main instructor, but the guest did not provide a full lecture

in the class. As described in the above, the involvement and depth of collaboration varied from the least to the most collaborative.

Pancsofar and Petroff (2016) ran a regression model on the teacher background and the method they adopted in collaborative teaching. They found that teacher who showed negative attitudes toward co-teaching chose the teaching method that involved less interaction between co-teachers. In this case, only one of the co-teaching pair would take the primary responsibility in teaching, planning, and assessing, while the co-teacher took a passive role. Teachers who showed positive attitudes toward collaborative teaching, as well as those who participated in co-teaching relationship for multiple years, were more likely to co-plan and co-design course contents with collaborators, thus spending more time (more than three hours daily) with co-teachers. Therefore, one of the factors that lead to success of the co-teaching method was related to teacher's attitudes and the teaching environments.

Whether collaborative teaching provided more benefits for students than traditional solo-instruction did is still controversial, although most of the recent literature seems to support the new co-teaching method for courses taught in universities (e.g., Colburn, Sullivan, & Fox, 2012; Money & Coughlan, 2016; Morelock et al., 2017; van Oordt, van Oordt, & du Toit, 2014; Yanamandram & Noble, 2006). In a large scaled survey conducted in the US over three states, which collected feedback from 211 university students from 11 different team-taught classes, students responded similarly positive to both types of teaching method (Dugan & Letterman, 2008). In other words, collaborative teaching showed no differences from the traditional teaching method in terms of students' attitudes and feedback toward these two types of courses. The study used an already established five-point scale survey form distributed nationwide in the US to measure the students' perception of their own progress, attitudes, and excellence of the course, and the average ratings were not statistically different from the rating scores retrieved from the national norm of courses taught by a single teacher. The study did indicate, however, that there were differences among the different types of team teaching.

Dugan and Letterman (2008) showed that team teaching of courses taught by two instructors, either alternately or simultaneously, received higher rating scores than courses collaboratively taught by more than three teachers. In other words, "two" teachers in a course might be the best number of participating teachers for a course. When the collaboration involved too many guest instructors, the students' perception of their learning outcome decreased.

In a qualitative study, Money and Coughlan (2016) conducted an interview to determine undergraduate students' perception of the pros and cons between single and team teaching. The results of the interviews pointed out that although team teaching

delivered more in-depth knowledge to the students, sometimes too much information was taught when multiple teachers participated in one course. This observation was consistent with the study by Dugan and Letterman (2008), which suggested that collaborative teaching from too many teachers produced an adverse perception in students. Another disadvantage of team teaching was that similar contents were taught to the same group of students, and the instructors were unaware of such overlap. This might happen when the teachers did not communicate well in advance of the class. Finally, when a course was taught by multiple teachers, students reported that they did not know whom to ask questions to, and the questions they posed on the course discussion forum were answered slower than those posed on a forum led by a single instructor, because no teacher felt the ownership of the course.

Based on the literature reviewed above, collaborative teaching involving two teachers was reported to be the best method so far to elicit the most satisfactory learning perception from the students. Therefore, the present study attempted to introduce this new teaching method into a graduate course in order to explore the teaching effects that may meet the practical needs of the translation industry.

The study was endeavored to familiarize students to the stylistic form of a particular subject, in this case, biomedicine. In order to reach such goal, an English teacher and a biomedicine instructor worked together to design a new course curriculum for the course named *Popular Science and Translation* for first year graduate students of Translation Studies. The goal of the course design was to improve the students' bidirectional translation skills (English-Chinese and Chinese-English translation), along with opportunities for students to gain deeper insights into the use of biomedical terms and sentence patterns, as well as to provide background knowledge for students to gain knowledge into biomedical professional knowledge.

Curriculum Design

The course was designed to be carried out for two hours per week over 18 weeks. Before the semester started, an English teacher and a medical biology teacher worked together to decide the topics to be taught for the semester, the allocation of workload, and the course time for collaborative teaching. Topics introduced in the course included new dimensions in brain research, familial hypercholesterolemia, physiological psychology, electrophysiology and the brain, prenatal screening and diagnosis, medical terminology and clinical vocabulary, and subtitle translation of films on popular science. These topics were evenly distributed throughout the semester. Each topic was taught for approximately two to three weeks. During the semester, the biomedical teacher would provide two-hour lectures for four times, and the rest of the weeks were led by the English teacher.

Among the seven topics, the medical biology teacher was the instructor of familial

hypercholesterolemia, prenatal screening and diagnosis, and medical terminology and clinical vocabulary, and the English teacher conducted the rest of the three topics. During the lecture of these classes, the biomedicine teacher used English as a medium for instruction. In other words, the lecture was carried out in English only. The purpose of using English as the one and only instruction medium was for the students to be immersed in an English-only environment, so that the students could be familiarized with how the medical terms were used in a natural biomedical setting.

For courses led by the English teacher, the course contents, such as new dimensions in brain research, were carried out half in English and half in Chinese. This mixture of language as the instructional language was to help students compare the usages in English with Chinese, so that they could grasp the contrasts between the two languages and understand the knowledge of the specific topics in their native language (Chinese) within a short period of time.

Two classes (four hours in total) were organized as a unit to complete a course topic as shown in *Figure 1*. In other words, each topic was completed over four hours (not including the time that the students spent on completing the homework), which lasted for two weeks.

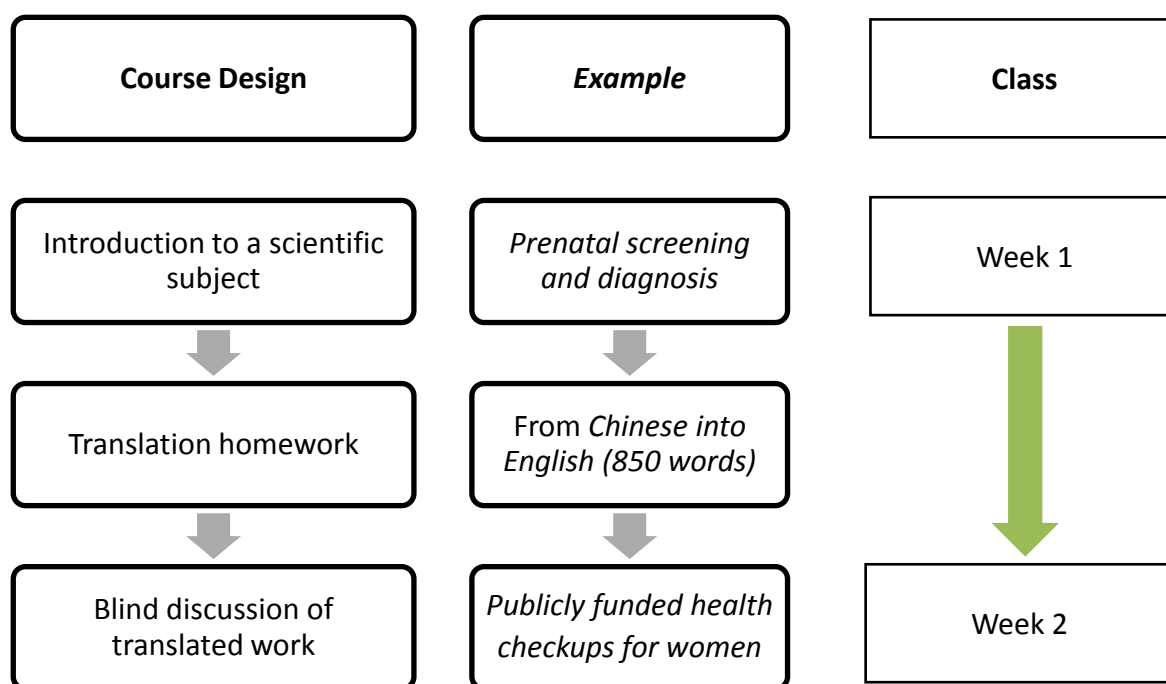


Figure 1. Example of the procedure of a course topic completed in two weeks.

The first class (the first two hours) was designed as a lecture, either in English only (classes led by the biomedicine teacher) or in Chinese (classes instructed by the English

teacher). At the end of the first class, students were assigned texts written either in English or in Chinese as homework that were related to the course topic. For example, after the lecture of introduction to the topic of prenatal screening and diagnosis, the students were assigned a Chinese flyer of 803 characters, which described publicly funded health checkups for women. The students were given one week to finish translating the assignment from Chinese into English. They were asked to type out their translations in an assigned format and to remove their names and identification numbers from the printed paper. Next, in the following course, after collecting the assignments from the students, the instructor randomly exchanged the translation among the students and then asked the students to make comparisons and comments between their own translation and their classmates' translation. Because the names have been removed from the paper, the students could avoid making personal attacks when they provided constructive comments to their peers.

In terms of distribution of workload between the two instructors, the biomedical teacher took lead in providing English lectures on biomedical topics, which was carried out in the first week of each topic unit; the English teacher focused on discussion of translation homework, which was completed in the second week of the course topic.

During the course, in addition to the introducing basic concepts of terms and procedures in biomedicine, the instructor also taught the students about the morphological structure of the medical terms. The instructor lectured on the basic elements of word formation, including word root, combining form, suffix, and prefix. For example, a biomedical term *leukocytopenia* means a symptom of decrease in white blood cell. This word was combined of the root *leuk*, which means *white*, and *cyt*, which means *cell*. The roots and its suffix *penia*, meaning *decrease*, were put together by combining vowels *o*, so that the word can be pronounced when the word roots were joined by the suffix. This was how the word *leukocytopenia* was formed.

Method

Participants

The study recruited 10 first-year graduate students. This number may seem small, but because our institute recruit 12 students per year, a class of 10 students was considered a large class as compared with other graduate courses (the minimum number required for a graduate course to be recognized by the university was 3 students). Among the students, 2 were male, and 8 were female. The former training that the students received before entering graduate school of translation and interpretation was majorly in areas of language learning, such as English, foreign languages and literature, Spanish, and translation. Only two students were from a non-humanity background: one from marketing, and the other

from electric engineering.

Questionnaire Design

Questionnaire has been considered one of the most effective methods to investigate students' perception of the course, because most of the studies on student experience of collaborative teaching were conducted by survey research (e.g., Colburn et al., 2012; Dugan & Letterman, 2008; Hang & Rabren, 2009; Yanamandram & Noble, 2006). Therefore, the present research also designed a questionnaire to collect data. The questionnaire was distributed to the students after the end of the semester when the final grades had been revealed to the students, so that the students could express their opinions freely without worrying that their responses might have influenced their grades. The questionnaire was delivered online via Google Forms. It was anonymous, so that no handwriting would reveal the students' identity, and no names or personal information were needed to fill out the questionnaire. In this questionnaire, the students were instructed to provide separate ratings for the translation teacher and the biomedicine teacher regarding their teaching contents, procedure, effects, teacher evaluation, and students' attitudes toward taking a course of collaborative teaching.

Results

Teacher Evaluation

There were two questions designed to ask the students' feelings about the two instructors. Results of the first question is presented in *Figure 2*.

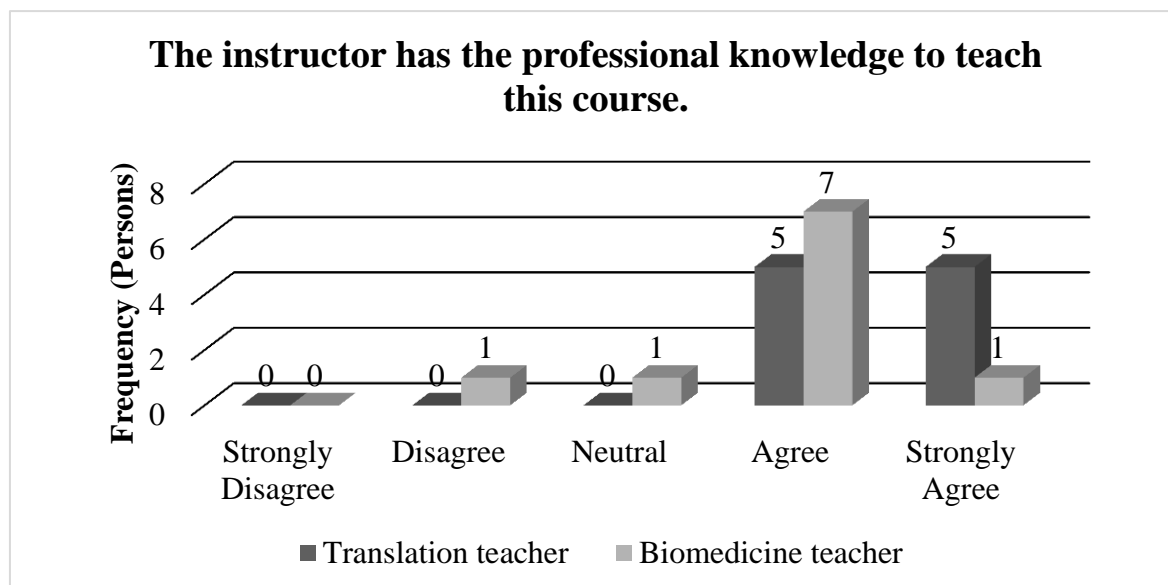


Figure 2. Students' evaluation score for the instructors.

Figure 2 shows that overall, the students recognized that both teachers had sufficient professional knowledge to lead the lecture and class activities in class. A few students reserved positive feedback toward the biomedicine teacher, probably because the course was named *Popular Science and Translation*, and the lecturer put more emphasis on the professional knowledge than on translation skills.

In Figure 3, all of the students agreed that both teachers provided clear instructions for them to follow during the course, which indeed have helped them catch the main points of the theme topics.

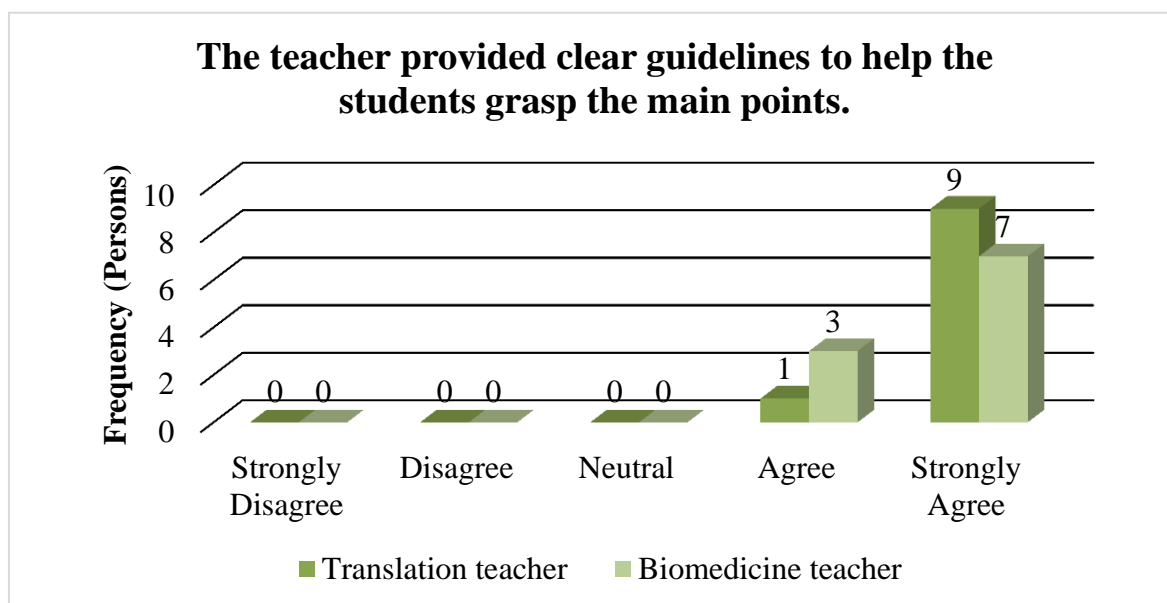


Figure 3. Students' evaluation score on the teacher's instructional guidelines.

Both Figures 2 and 3 showed that overall, the students were satisfied with teaching that they received from the two teachers. Even though the two teachers came from different disciplines, their teaching procedure was helpful to the students in terms of clarity in their instructions.

Teaching Contents

The students also rated the contents of what they have learned during the course as shown in Figure 4.

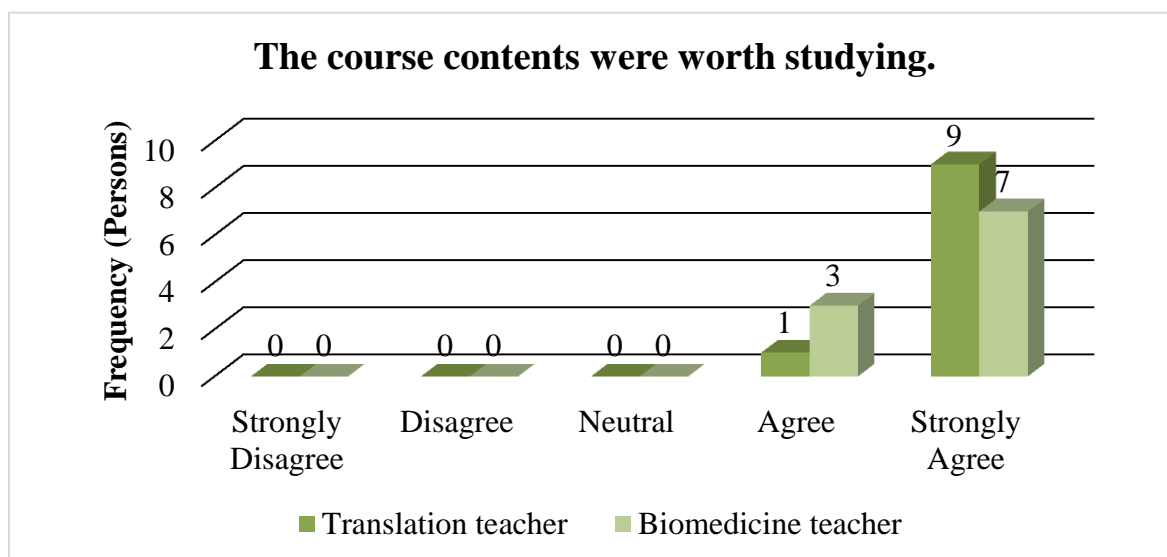


Figure 4. Students' evaluation score on the course contents.

All of the students showed that they regarded the course contents taught either by the translation teacher on translation skills and those instructed by the biomedicine teacher on professional knowledge were worth studying. In other words, the students recognized the importance in acquiring not only translation skills but also professional biomedical knowledge.

Teaching Procedure

In addition to rating the impression about the teachers, the students were also asked to provide their feelings of how the lecture was delivered as shown in Figure 5.

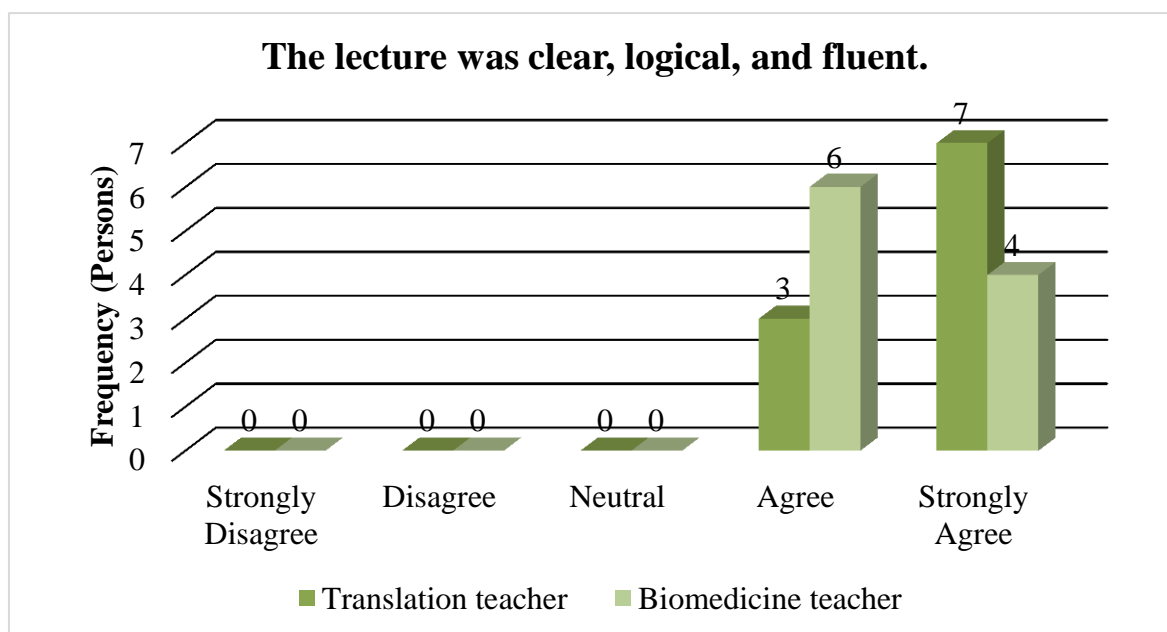


Figure 5. Students' evaluation score on the procedure of the lecture.

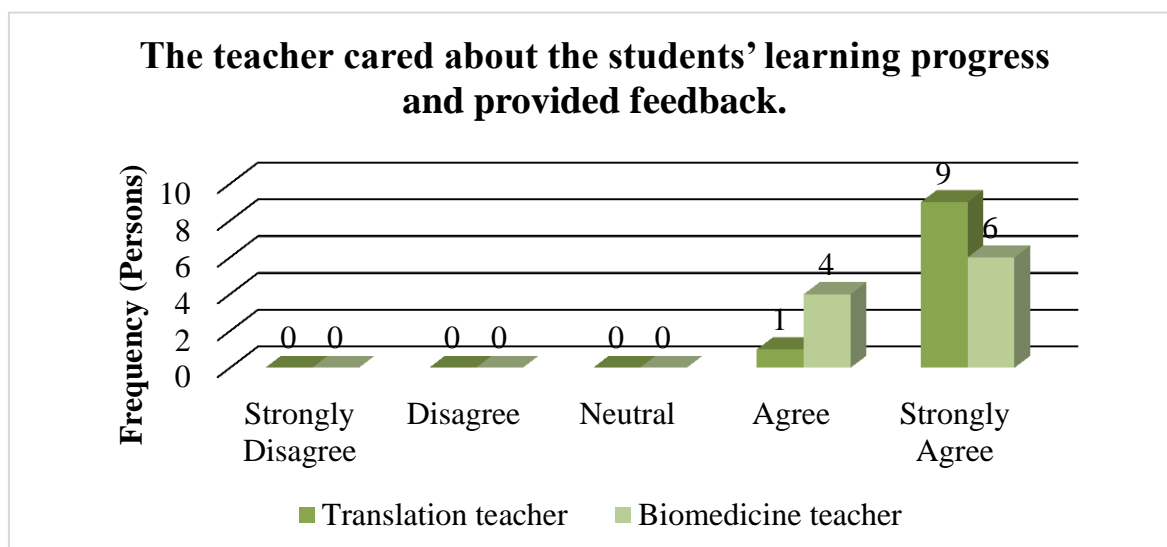


Figure 6. Students' evaluation score on the teacher-student interaction.

In Figure 6, the students were asked to rate on their perception of the teacher-student interaction. As shown in Figures 5 and 6, the students generally felt positive about how the course was delivered, and they recognized that both lecturers paid attention and provided immediate feedback to them during the course.

Teaching Effects

One of the aspects that teachers cared about their students was whether the students regarded the course was beneficial to the learning experience, and whether they recognized the importance of the course being taught to them. The results of the teaching output can be described in Figure 7.

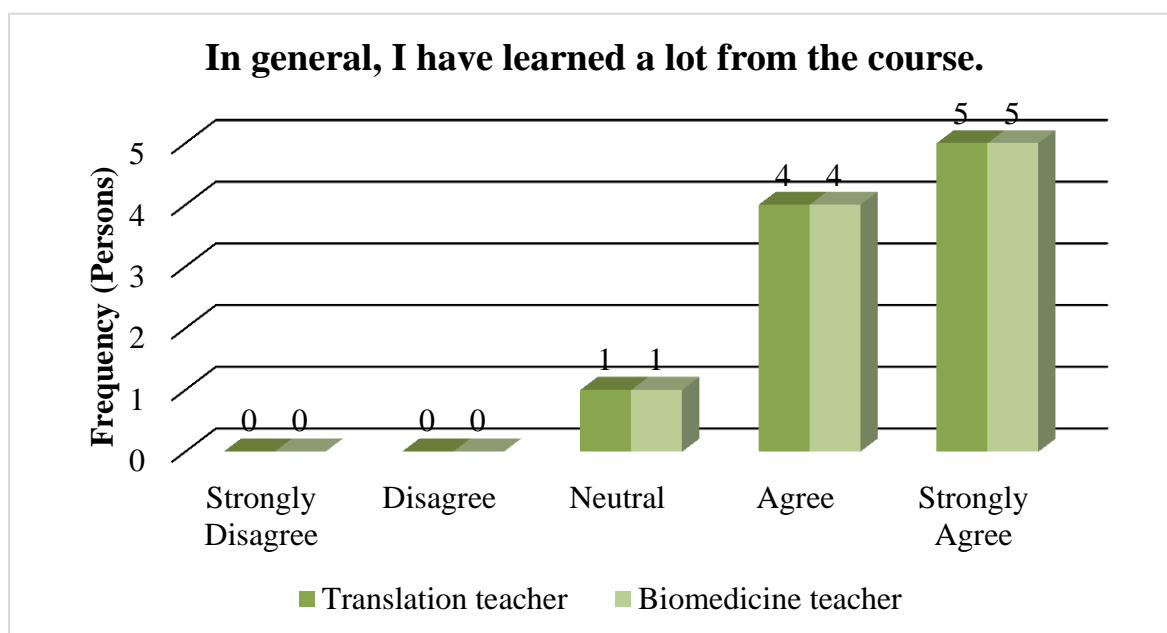


Figure 7. Students' evaluation score on their learning progress from the course.

As shown in Figure 7, most of the students agreed or strongly agreed that the course was meaningful to them that they had learned a lot from the course. Although one student expressed that he or she reserved to express the feelings about the course, the overall responses obtained from all students from the class was satisfactory to the teachers.

In addition to eliciting the students' feedback on how they perceived their overall progress in the course, the questionnaire also requested the students to rate their perception about how much they thought that this course had helped them in deepening their knowledge in the biomedical domain (Figure 8) and polishing their translation skills (Figure 9).

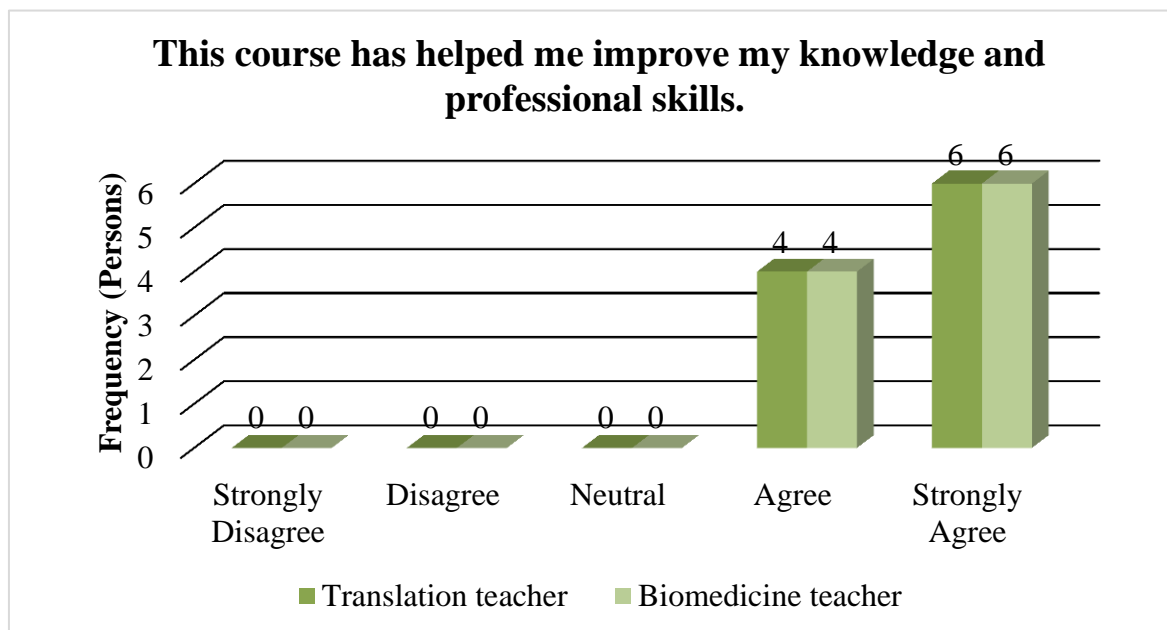


Figure 8. Students' evaluation score on their progress in learning professional knowledge.

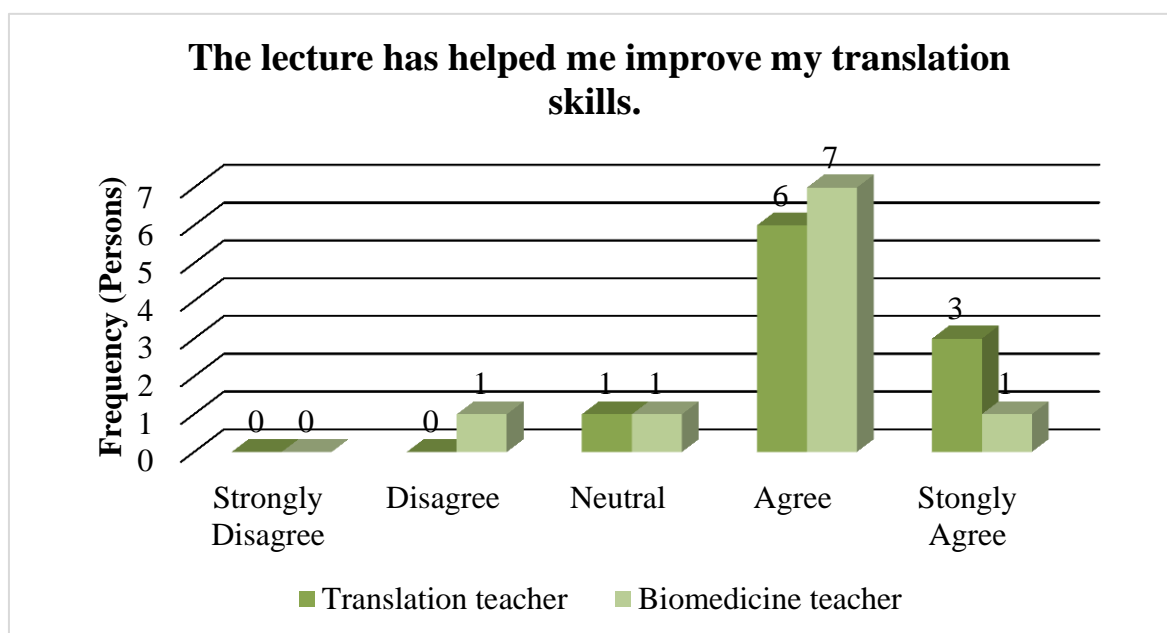


Figure 9. Students' evaluation score on their progress in learning translation skills.

In Figures 8 and 9, the students rated the evaluation on their own progress in terms of learning professional knowledge (biomedicine) and translation skills from the two lecturers respectively. Figure 8 shows that overall the students reacted positively toward both teachers in terms of how they had learned more background knowledge about topics in biomedicine. As shown in Figure 9, most students indicated that their translation skills had been improved by both teachers, although more positive feedback was rated for the

translation teacher instead of the biomedicine teacher. Such results may not be surprising because in the course design, the translation teacher spent more time discussing translation-related skills in class, whereas the biomedicine teacher mainly focused on providing biomedical knowledge to the students without spending too much time on translation-related topics.

The questionnaire not only probed into how the students' feelings about the course, it also attempted to explore no which part of English ability that the students could benefit from this collaborative teaching, especially that the part on biomedicine English topics were taught in English only. The results are shown in *Figure 10*. This question stated in *Figure 10* was a multiple-choice question. The students could tick more than one answers as long as they felt that the answer suited their perception about their English progress.

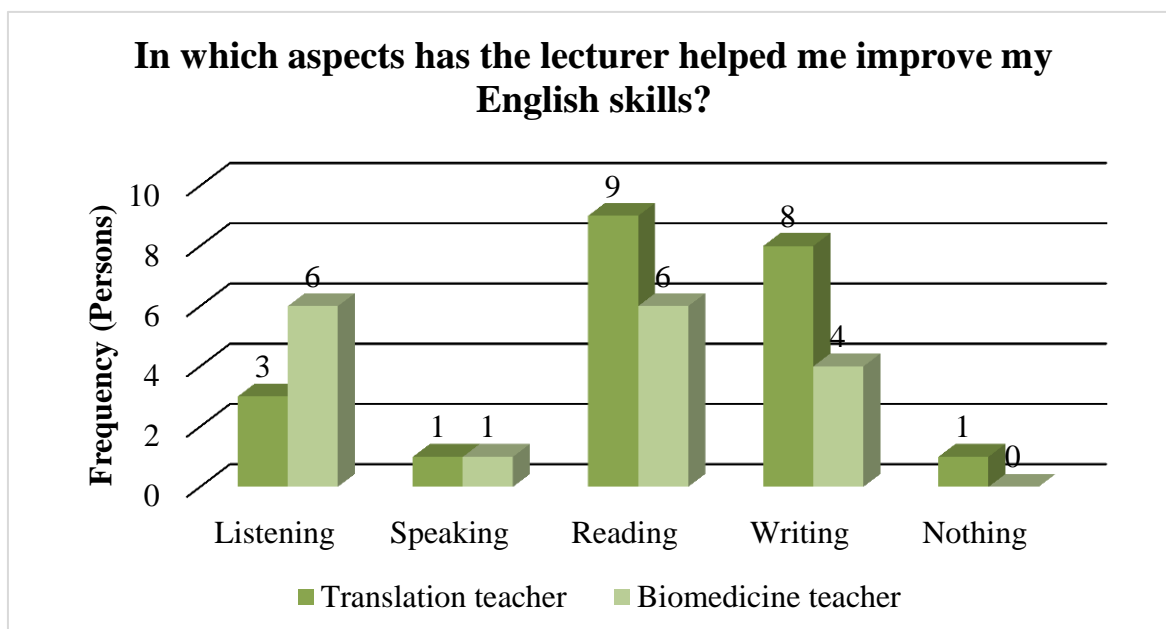


Figure 10. Students' evaluation on their English skills improved from the course.

The results in *Figure 10* clearly indicated the benefits introduced by collaborative teaching, because the students' answers differed when the questions were referred to different course instructors. In general, the students recognized that compared with the ratings for the biomedicine teacher, the translation teacher helped them more in improving their reading and writing skills in English. On the other hand, the biomedicine teacher assisted them more in polishing up their listening skills as compared with the responses they showed to the translation teacher. The results also indicated that the effect of English mediated instruction was beneficial to students, especially in listening.

Out of the ten students, one responded that he or she did not gain much from the

translation teacher in terms of improving English skills. As a teacher of the course, the results showed that the course design could not satisfy every student, but at least in other parts of the questionnaire, the students indicated that they had learned from the teachers and improved in aspects such as translation skills and professional knowledge. Also, only one student indicated that the speaking ability in English was improved. Such results echoed with the course design, which mainly emphasized translation ability (reading and writing) instead of interpreting ability (listening and speaking).

Attitude towards co-teaching method

One of the important aspects that the researchers of this study were curious about was how the students perceived and evaluated this attempt of collaborative teaching. The results are revealed in *Figure 11*.

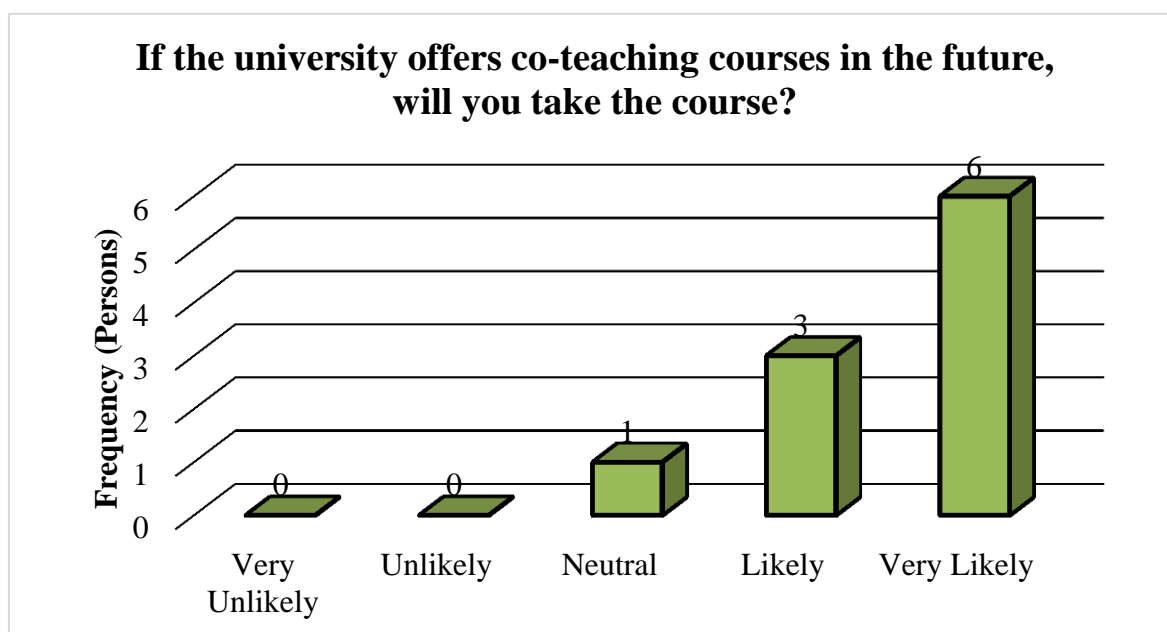


Figure 11. Students' evaluation on the co-teaching course design.

The results in *Figure 11* showed that the students generally would like to take a similar collaborative teaching course again in the future. Most of the students expressed that the probability for them to take a similar course was high.

The questionnaire took a further step by explicitly requesting the students to express how this course design of collaborative teaching on cross-disciplinary topics had met their expectations. The results are illustrated in *Figure 12*.

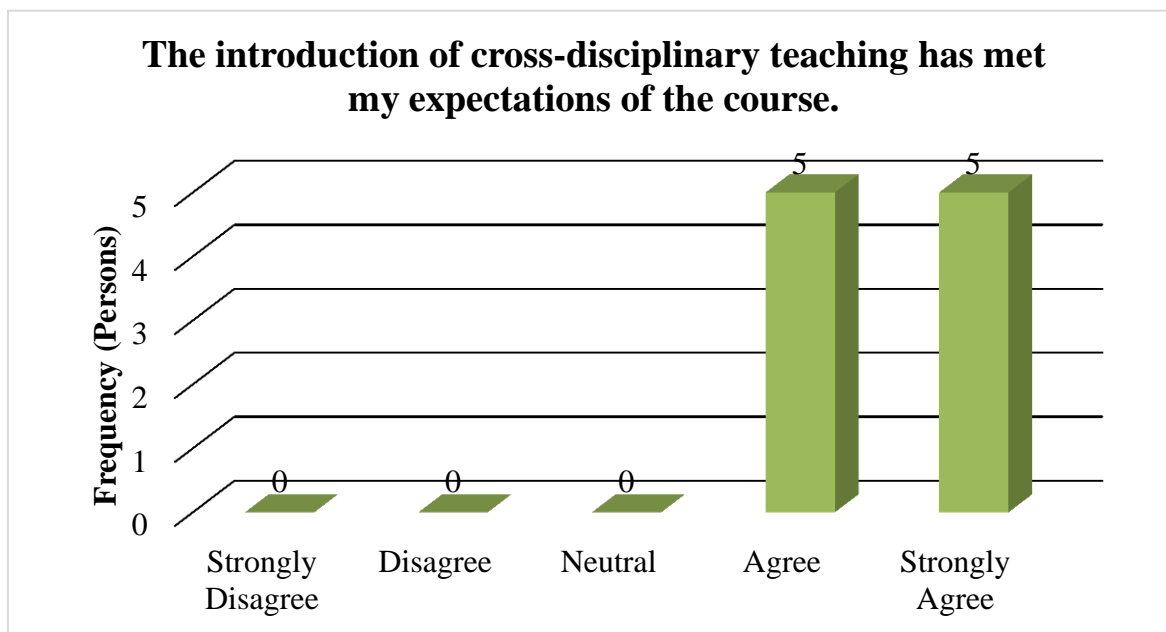


Figure 12. Students' evaluation score on their course expectation.

The results in Figure 12 indicated that the students were overall satisfied with the course, and such collaborative teaching had met their expectations toward the course on popular science and translation.

In the final session of the questionnaire, the students were encouraged to leave words that they wanted to express in addition to the ratings. This part of the questionnaire was not mandatory. Four students left their comments toward the question *feeling I want to share with the teachers* as listed below:

The teachers did combine translation, English learning, with their professional expertise.

The teachers worked hard.

This kind of teaching is beneficial to me in improving my English and Chinese.

The co-teaching attempt worked well.

From the students' voluntary responses, the instructors were encouraged by the students' recognition that the extra efforts devoted to the attempt of starting a collaborative teaching method was rewarding, in that some students did observe that the teachers spent more time and preparation to present the course in more depth and broader scope different from a tradition translation skills course, in which students only focused on practicing translation skills.

Translation skills

The students' improvement in translation skills was measured by their homework scores. There were four assignments during the semester. For each homework, the scores ranged from 1-10, and the scoring was based on accuracy of word choice, grammatical fluency in the target text, and overall fluency in the target text (similar scoring principle can be viewed at national translation qualification examination at the Language Training and Testing Center, <https://www.lttc.ntu.edu.tw/tranoutline.htm>). The improvement of the students' translation skills can be observed in *Figure 13*.

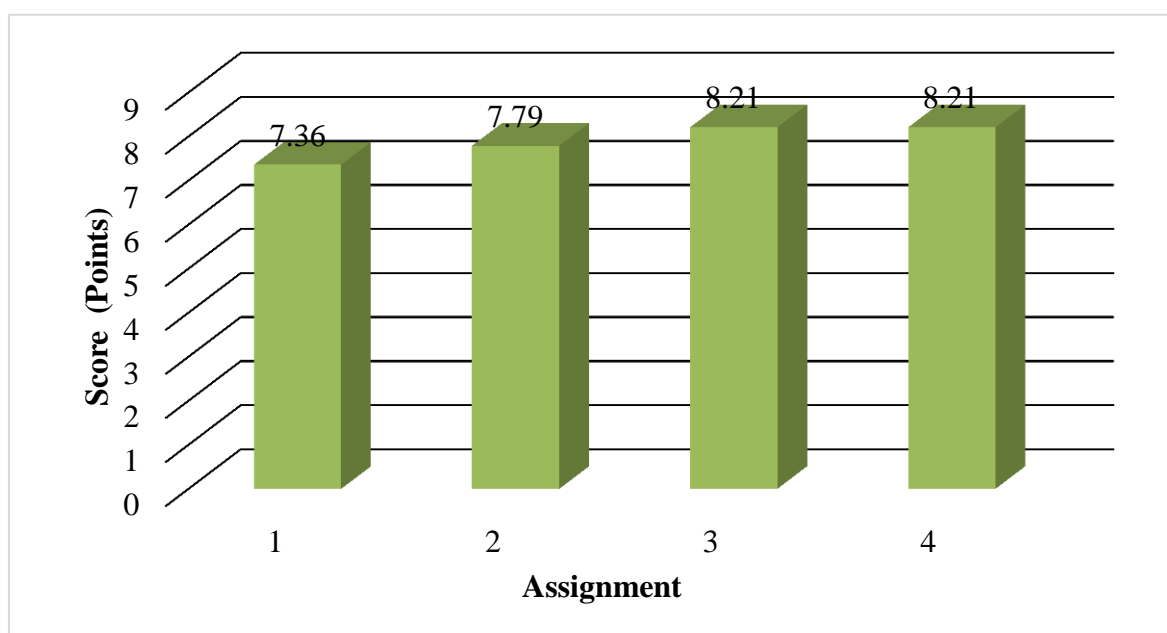


Figure 13. Average scores of translation assignments during the semester.

Assignments 1 and 3 were to translate an article from Chinese into English; Assignments 2 and 4 were from English into Chinese. Each assignment was extracted from a flyer or news publisher, with approximately 500 words. The difficulty of each assignment was similar. Therefore, as time progressed, the average scores of the students also improved.

Discussion

The results of the ratings collected above could be summarized in Table 1. The highest rating score was 5, which indicated *strongly agree*, and the lowest score was 1, which indicated *strongly disagree*.

Table 1.

Average Scores Summarized from the Subsections of the Questionnaire

Question Type	Average Scores (Out of 5 points)
Teacher evaluation	4.8
Teaching contents	4.8
Teaching procedure	4.75
Teaching effects	4.25
Co-teaching attitudes	4.5

As shown in Table 1, the students showed overall positive reaction to the course in all of the aspects listed, including teacher evaluation, teaching contents, procedure, effects, and their attitudes toward the collaborative teaching method. In the university's evaluation, an average score over 3.5 was considered satisfactory, which could be regarded as 70 points out of a 100 rating scale. The score of 70 was also the score for graduate students to pass their course evaluation. Therefore, the average scores obtained from this survey was much better than satisfactory. Such results also supported the researcher's attempts of conducting a collaborative teaching course.

Based on the results surveyed in Section 4.4, the translation teacher's expertise helped the students in improving their translation skills and English writing and reading, whereas the biomedicine teacher provided further training for improving the students' English listening, reading, and writing. Each of the two teachers' distinct backgrounds contributed to different aspects and enriched the students' learning experience. These difference might be the reason that led to the students' willingness to take a similar co-teaching course in the future (as shown in Section 4.5).

Conclusion

In summary, the present study demonstrated a case study of a collaborative teaching course on popular science and translation for graduate students. The study provided data showing that students perceived and evaluated the course positively. The study also showed that the students had progressed in polishing their translation skills over the course.

The results of the study supported the findings in previous research (e.g., Dugan & Letterman, 2008) that a course organized by two instructors could elicit satisfactory

learning outcome from the students. Such collaboration needed preparation from both instructors ahead of the semester to co-design course contents, allocate workload and responsibilities, and arrange meaning times for both teachers and the students. It is hoped that the results of the present study could provide some empirical evidence into the pros and cons of collaborative teaching and show a different approach in addition to the traditional teaching method in teaching a translation course.

Acknowledgements

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A comparative study of students' perceptions of teacher critiques and peer critiques in Public Speaking

Chang, Jui-Fang
Department of English
Wenzao Ursuline University of Languages

Abstract

This study aims to explore college students' perceptions of teacher and peer critiques for their presentations. It attempts to investigate the differences between two groups (day division students and night division students) of students' opinions towards teacher critiques and peer critiques for their presentations. Both groups of students enrolled in the class of Public Speaking. A self-inventory questionnaire and a semi-structured interview were the main instruments used in the research to collect data. Both groups of students filled out the questionnaires at the end of the school year. The t-test and descriptive statistics were used to calculate the results of the questionnaires. Three day division students and three night division students joined one-to-one semi-structured interviews. The results of the questionnaires indicate that night division students and day division students believe that there is no significant difference in the peer critiques of the introduction, the body and the conclusion of the speech. Day division students agree more that critiques by teacher help them more than critiques by peers than night division students. The results of the interviews have the similar outcome. It is proposed that peer critiques tend to focus more on the body language while teacher critiques are more professional and they give more useful suggestions including relating the examples to the audience, organizing the speech, maintaining strong eye-contact and the use of language in their presentation. This study implies that students require more professional training before they conduct peer's critiques and night division students need more supportiveness to build up their confidence in the class of Public Speaking.

Keywords: Peer, critique, public speaking

*Corresponding author

大學生對於教師的評論及同儕間的評論之看法比較研究:以英語專業演說課程為例

張瑞芳*

文藻外語大學英國語文系

摘要

本研究旨在探討大學生對於教師與同儕給予同學演說表現上評論的看法。本研究對象分別為日間部與進修部修習英語專業演說課程的大學生，以問卷及半結構式訪談為主要的研究工具。參與的大學生須在學期末填寫問卷，所蒐集的資料以 T 檢定及描述性統計進行統計分析。此外，隨機抽取日間部及進修部各三位同學進行一對一半結構式訪談。本研究的問卷結果指出日間部學生與進修部學生對於同儕的評論的看法並無顯著的差異。日間部學生與進修部學生相較之下，日間部的學生認為教師所提供的評論比起同儕所給予的評論還來得更有幫助。本研究的訪談結果與問卷結果相似，也就是說，同儕間的評論傾向於肢體語言的表現，而教師的評論則較為專業，能在演說上給予更多具體的建議，其中包含在演說中如何利用與觀眾相關的例子，如何組織演說架構、眼神交流及措辭用語等。本研究的結果建議大學生在進行同儕間的評論之前需要更多的專業訓練。而進修部的大學生在課堂中則須獲得更多的支持、鼓勵來增進英語專業演說的自信心。

關鍵字：同儕、評論、公開演講

*通訊作者

Introduction

In the curriculum of English education in colleges and universities, public speaking has been an important subject in oral training and critical thinking. It provides students with opportunities to think independently and express their ideas in public. Public speaking is also a process of decision-making. Students learn to think critically and then make decisions. Besides, public speaking has been considered an essential mean of communication (Lucas, 2015). In modern times, people around the world have “spread their ideas and influence through public speaking.” (Lucas, 2015) Given the importance of public speaking, it’s not surprising that it has been taught and studied around the globe for thousands of years. Almost all cultures have an equivalent of English word “orator” to designate someone with special skills in public speaking.

A vital part of public speaking is the process of giving post-performance comments and that is a way of helping students improve their presentations. Very often, in order to provide speakers with more constructive feedback, in addition to teacher, audiences (students) are invited to give comments to the speakers. In this way, not only speakers but also audiences learn how to make better speeches by giving comments. Whether audiences or the teacher give fair comments or not affects speakers’ final grade. Therefore, how speakers perceive teacher’s and audience’s feedback becomes very essential in the class of public speaking. Based upon the statements above, the study proposes to explore college students’ perceptions of teacher and peer comments for their presentations. It attempts to investigate the differences of two groups(day students and night students) of students’ opinions towards teacher critique and peer critique for their presentation. The research questions that we address in this paper are:

1. What are students’ perceptions of teacher critique between day students and night students?
2. What are students’ perceptions of peer critique between day students and night students?
3. Whose critiques help students’ presentation the most?

Literature review

Feedback (critique) is commonly used as an essential component of the teaching process in public speaking class; however, it remains an underdevelopment construct and has received very limited attention in the literature (King & Behnke, 1999). If any, little effort has been made to explicate the students’ perceptions of teacher and peer feedback. Feedback is an essential part of classroom communication. Kluger and DeNisi (1996) proposed Feedback Intervention Theory (FIT). According to Kluger and DeNisi (1996), feedback interventions are actions taken by an external agent to provide information

regarding task performance for the purpose of improving or correcting behavior in some fashion. The mental process involved in feedback are important because they influence how feedback is perceived and, thereby, whether learning occurs. Post-performance feedback increases cognitive learning and motivation to learn. "Part of the role of teachers is to evaluate and express their opinion about the students, so that students know how to improve or make whatever adjustments are necessary" (Snodgrass, Hecht, & Ploutz-Snyder, 1998, p. 239). On the other hand, peer feedback is standard practice in a great many college and university. Peer feedback is a process of helping students develop critical thinking ability. Through the practice of giving feedbacks for their classmates' presentation, they can learn to reflect their own speeches and learn how to avoid the flaws other classmates have made and then improve their own speech performances. However, peers are often considered as "inexpert and inexperienced evaluators; their evaluations might be especially susceptible to biasing factors like popularity, attraction, and role expectation." (Sellnow & Treinen, 2004, p.288) However, Sellnow and Treinen (2004) encourage use of peer evaluation of public speaking performance, since they appear to be relatively immune to extraneous biases. It is a means to improve student performance (Falchikov, 2000; Hanrahan, 2001; MacAlpine, 1999; Sluijsmans, 2001; Smith 2002).

Research methodology

Subjects

The main purpose of this research was to explore the differences of students' perceptions of teacher critiques and peer critiques about students' presentations in Public Speech Class. Therefore, day division students and night division students were focused. In order to have an objective survey, there were no limitation on gender, habitation and age. 36 students (19 day students and 17 night students) were invited to fill out the survey. Among the samples, 3 day division students and 3 night division students were randomly selected to do the semi-structured interview.

Instrument

A self-inventory questionnaire and a semi-structured interview were the main instruments used in the research to collect data. Two questionnaires consisted of 21 identical statements in four categories: (1) perceptions towards teacher (peer) critique of introduction (2) perceptions toward teacher (peer) critique of body and (3) perceptions towards teacher (peer) critique of conclusion.(4)perceptions towards teacher (peer) overall critique of the presentation. After each item, there was a 6-point liker scale which ranged from 1 (strongly disagree) to 6 (strongly agree). Participants were requested to mark their responses to each item. In terms of interview, questions of interview were sent to students before the interviews were conducted. Most questions were about how they perceive

teacher critiques and peer critiques after presentation and what they learned most from the critiques.

Data Collection

The research project was conducted in the end of a school year. The self-inventory questionnaires were administered to one class of day school students and one class of night students of Wenzao Ursuline University of Languages. Once they finished on the questionnaires, their data were collected. As for the interviews, after the interviewee read through the questions, the interviews were conducted in a comfortable office.

Data Analysis

EXCEL was employed in the data analysis. Two procedures were taken for the data analysis. First of all, descriptive statistics including mean, standard deviation were used to analyze each item in the questionnaire. Second, the t-test was employed for further data analysis. In the t-test, the independent variable was the day students and night students, and the dependent variables were the results of opinions towards teacher and peer critiques after presentations between two groups of students (day and night division students).

Results

The t-test and Descriptive Statistics were used to calculate day students and night students' different opinions of teacher and peer critiques after students' presentations. Results demonstrated that there was no significant difference in the two groups' opinions of peer critiques on the *introduction* of the presentation ($p > .05$, see Table 1). Likewise, results in Table 2 demonstrated that the score of peer critiques on the *body* of the presentation was not significantly different ($p > .05$, see Table 2). Still, there were also no significant differences in peer critiques on *conclusion* and *overall performance* ($p > .05$ see Table 3 and 4). Among the questions of *overall performance*, one question asked whether peer critiques helped students *choose an interesting topic*. The result demonstrated that there was significant difference between two groups ($p < .05$, see Table 4). In other word, night division students agreed more that peer critiques helped them *choose an interesting topic* than day students did.

Table 1

T-test Results for Day students/ Night students Opinions to *critique of Introduction by peers*

Introduction/peers	N	Day Students		Night Students		t	p
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD		
Gaining attention and interest	36	5.32	.749	5.06	.748	1.028	.311
Clearly introducing topic	36	5.26	.653	5.24	.664	.127	.900
Previewing main point	36	5.26	.733	4.94	.827	1.238	.224
Relating topic to audience	36	5.32	.749	5.35	.606	-.162	.872

Table 2

T-test Results for Day students/ Night students Opinions to *critique of Body by peers*

Body/peers	N	Day Students		Night Students		t	p
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD		
Clearly stating main points	36	5.16	.765	5.18	.883	-.068	.946
Fully support main points	36	5.21	.713	5.29	.772	-.338	.738
Well organizing speech	36	5.21	.787	5.06	.899	.540	.593
Using language accurately	36	5.05	.848	5.18	.809	-.447	.658
Using language clearly	36	5.00	.816	4.95	.748	.225	.824
Using language appropriately	36	5.21	.631	5.35	.862	-.570	.572
Using connectives effectively	36	5.37	.831	5.29	.772	.277	.783

Table 3

T-test Results for Day students/ Night students Opinions to *critique of Conclusion by peers*

Body/peers	N	Day Students		Night Students		t	p
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD		
Preparing audience for ending	36	5.26	.733	5.35	.702	-.374	.711
Reinforcing central idea	36	5.21	.918	5.47	.624	-.982	.333

Table 4

T-test Results for Day students/ Night students Opinions to *Overall critique by peers*

Overall /peers	N	Day Students		Night Students		t	p
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD		
Maintaining eye contact	36	5.37	.955	5.18	.809	.647	.522
Using voice effectively	36	5.11	.809	4.82	.883	.999	.325
Using physical action effectively	36	4.26	.991	4.59	.939	-1.007	.321
Designing and presenting visual aids well	36	4.84	1.01	4.76	.831	.249	.805
Content relevant to audience	36	5.16	.958	5.18	.951	-.058	.954
Content appealing to audience	36	5.05	.848	5.18	.951	-.413	.682
Well-managing time	36	4.84	.765	5.12	.781	-1.068	.293
Choosing an interesting topic	36	4.53	1.12	5.24	.752	-2.196	.035

As for teacher critique in *introduction*, the result proposed that there was significant difference between two groups in the item of *relating the topic to the audience* ($p < .05$, see Table 5). Day students agreed more that teacher critiques were likely to help students *relate the topic to the audience* than night students. The result for teacher critique in body showed that there was significant difference in the item of *well organizing speech* ($p < .05$, see Table 6); in other word, day division students agreed more that teacher critique helped them with *organizing their speeches*. There was no significant difference in the result of other items in *body*. In the part of *conclusion*, the result indicated that there was no significant difference in the opinions of two groups of students ($p > .05$, see Table 7). The last part of the questionnaire is *overall performance*; the result demonstrated that there were significant differences in *maintaining eye-contact*, *content relevant to audience* and *content appealing to audience* ($p < .05$, see Table 8). Day division students agree more that teacher critiques help them with *maintaining eye contact*, *relevant content*, *appealing content* than night division students.

Table 5

T-test Results for Day students/ Night students Opinions to *critique of Introduction by teacher*

Introduction/teacher	N	Day Students		Night Students		t	p
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD		
Gaining attention and interest	36	4.74	.806	4.47	1.125	.823	.416
Clearly introducing topic	36	4.84	.898	4.47	.874	.1254	.218
Previewing main point	36	4.68	.820	4.24	.970	1.504	.142
Relating topic to audience	36	4.92	.848	4.29	1.047	2.067	.046

Table 6

T-test Results for Day students/ Night students Opinions to *critique of Body by teacher*

Body/teacher	N	Day Students		Night Students		t	p
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD		
Clearly stating main points	36	4.79	.918	4.24	1.091	1.655	.107
Fully support main points	36	4.68	.946	4.18	.951	1.604	.118
Well organizing speech	36	4.58	1.07	3.71	1.263	2.244	.031
Using language accurately	36	4.32	1.11	4.12	1.364	.481	.634
Using language clearly	36	4.42	1.07	4.00	1.000	1.215	.233
Using language appropriately	36	4.16	.958	4.06	1.249	.269	.790
Using connectives effectively	36	4.47	1.07	3.94	1.435	1.269	.213

Table 7

T-test Results for Day students/ Night students Opinions to *critique of Conclusion by teacher*

Body/teacher	N	Day Students		Night Students		t	p
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD		
Preparing audience for ending	36	4.53	1.07	4.41	1.278	.292	.772
Reinforcing central idea	36	4.63	.684	4.35	.931	1.030	.310

Table 8

T-test Results for Day students/ Night students Opinions to *Overall critique by teacher*

Overall critique /teacher	N	Day Students		Night Students		t	p
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD		
Maintaining eye contact	36	5.37	1.17	4.41	1.583	2.080	.045
Using voice effectively	36	5.00	1.20	4.12	1.495	1.961	.058
Using physical action effectively	36	4.26	1.10	3.82	.1468	1.025	.313
Designing and presenting visual aids well	36	4.42	1.30	4.29	1.448	.277	.784
Content relevant to audience	36	5.00	.816	3.88	1.219	3.264	.003
Content appealing to audience	36	4.89	.737	4.00	1.323	2.542	.016
Well-managing time	36	4.21	.976	3.71	1.404	1.263	.215
Choosing an interesting topic	36	4.84	.958	4.35	1.367	1.254	.218

Interview responses

Three day division students and three night division students were invited to join the semi-structured interview regarding related questions about this course. The first question

asked interviewees what the biggest challenge in English Professional Presentation was. Both day and night division students responded that choosing an appropriate topic and confidently delivering the speech are the biggest challenges. In addition, night division students claimed that making a speech on stage and memorizing the speech content are also very challenging. Surprisingly, as for the easiest part(question 2), day division students thought that impromptu speech was relatively easy because the topics were much easier and the given time was not too long. Night division students thought that having eye contact and various pitches were less challenging. Moreover, doing critique for peers was much easier because they didn't need to feel nervous. Only one student from night division thought that choosing topic was easy for him/her.

The third question asked interviewees what help they needed the most. Day division students responded that teacher's comments after the speech and having teacher look at the PPTs before the speech helped them the most. Besides, they need the help with language accuracy. As one day division student recalled:

What I hope is that teacher can help me with language accuracy
Or my body language..... As long as I can improve my
presentation. (John, personal interview, May 21,2015)

Night division students claimed that they didn't have much life experiences. It was difficult to give examples related to the speech and writing an outline for the presentation also needed teacher's help. Night division students even mentioned that having interaction with classmates was very challenging and they also needed help with how to relate the topic to the audience. As Mary mentioned:

If the topic is a big one that needs more life experience to give example...
...I have difficulty in finding examples to support my idea. Besides, writing
an outline is also problematic. (Mary, personal interview, June 2, 2015)

The fourth asked what they had learned most from teacher critiques. Day division students thought that having strong eye-contact and the use of language, including grammar and fluency were very helpful. Night division students believed that giving examples, having eye-contact and natural body language and the use of language were very useful. Question 5 asked participants what they had most learned from peer critique. Day division students responded that peer's comments were quite similar; most of them focused on eye-contact, pitch and posture. Their comments were as detailed as teacher's; for example, they never had comments on speaker's visual aid design and the topic selection.

Besides, both day division students and night division students thought peer comments were as professional as teacher. They cared more about teacher comments than peer comments. One night division student even commented that peer critiques were useful and helpful.

Question 6 asked participants whose critique helped them the most and the reason why. Day division students claimed that peer comments were also helpful, but not as professional as teacher's. Teacher gave more comments on the body of the speech while peer's comments are more about delivery. Both day division students and night division students believed they learned the most from teacher's comments.

Discussion and conclusion

This study aims to investigate day division and night division students' perception of teacher critiques and peer critiques. The result of the t-test reveals that there is no significant difference in the two groups' opinion of peer critique on the *introduction, the body, the conclusion* and *overall performances* except that night division students agree more than day division students that peer critiques could help students with the choice of interesting topics. Day division students agree more than night division students that teacher critiques are more useful in helping *organize speeches, maintaining eye-contact, developing content relevant to audience and content appealing to audiences*. The results of interviews are quite similar to the results of the questionnaires. Both day division and night division students respond that choosing an appropriate topic and confidently delivering the speech are the biggest challenges. Day division students think that impromptu speech is relatively easy because the topics are much easier and the given time is not too long. Night division students think that having eye-contact and various pitches are less challenging. Based on these results, night division students seem to be less confident in delivering speeches than day division students. Night division students even think that having interaction with classmates is very challenging and they also need help with *how to relate the topic to the audience*. Both day division and night division students claim that teacher critiques are more professional and useful; they care more about teacher critiques than peer critiques. They believe that peer critiques are not as professional as teacher critiques.

Pedagogical implication

In public speaking class, giving constructive comments to the speakers about their presentations is a very important learning process. Both teacher critiques and peer critiques play an essential role in the course. Students do learn from teacher critiques and peer critiques. However, from the results of the questionnaire and the interview, it is found that day division students seem to be more confident than night students in the course of Public Speaking. Both day students and night students believe that teacher critiques are more professional and useful and they learn more from teacher critiques and they also care more

about teacher critiques. Besides, it is suggested that both day division and night division students should receive training before they could give comments to their peers for their presentations.

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