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Minimum (technical) vocabulary – some issues in Maritime English

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“Lexical problems frequently interfere with communication: communication breaks down when people do not use the right words”. (Allen 1983: 5)

“Lexical competence is at the heart of communicative competence.” (Meara 1996:35)

Abstract

The paper presents the concept of minimum vocabulary, research and methodology of arriving at a minimum vocabulary, and the applicability of the concept of minimum vocabulary to Maritime English. Also, reference is made to such limited vocabulary lists as GSL, AWL etc. Reference is also made to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, teaching, assessment, issued by the Council of Europe. The paper aims to raise the issues in establishing minimum vocabulary requirements in Maritime English for various purposes: a BSc course in Nautical Studies and Marine Engineering; levels of competence as per STCW convention, etc. Group and final panel discussion is envisaged on some topics such as the vocabulary for the support, operational and management level, naming concepts, compounds and collocations, lexical families and lexical sets.

Key words: Maritime English, Basic English, vocabulary, General Service List (GSL), Academic Word List (AWL)

1. Basic concepts and definitions

Vocabulary is the meaning-carrier constituent of language. Together with grammar it adds words, i.e. flesh to the body of language. In this paper we shall be dealing with the minimum requirements on the knowledge of vocabulary in Maritime English (ME).

Although minimum requirements are dependent on language learning levels and the purpose or function of language usage, a brief survey of the basic concepts is necessary for establishing a definition of the notion of *minimum vocabulary*. These concepts carry various labels, e.g. *core English*, *basic English*, *technical vocabulary*,

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minimum vocabulary, nuclear vocabulary, etc., and are sometimes identical or may tend to overlap in scope and general usage.

Basic English is a [constructed language](#) with a small number of words, created by Charles Kay Ogden and described in his book *Basic English: A General Introduction with Rules and Grammar* (1930). It is a subset of English language, based on a simplified version of the language. The whole idea worked on the following assumption:

“If one were to take the 25,000 word Oxford Pocket English Dictionary and take away the additions of our overly full language and take away the words that are able to be said by putting together simpler words, we see that 90% of the ideas in that dictionary are able to be done with 850 words.” (<http://www.basic-english.org/projects/452.html>)

According to Ogden it would take seven years to learn English and seven weeks for Basic English. Essentially, Basic English is used by some language schools that need to give people some knowledge of English in a short time. It contained words that could not be paraphrased with other words. Ogden put his set of words through a large number of tests and used simplified grammar. One of the strongest advocates of Basic English was I.A. Richards, who lobbied to teach it in schools especially in China. More recently, it has triggered the creation of “simplified English” - a standardized version of English intended for writing technical manuals.

Simple English (or *Everyman's English*) is an expansion of basic English, in the order beyond 850 words of basic English and up to the level of 2000 words – a threshold of Standard English as set by Ogden. While Basic English meets the requirements of primary school, Simple English can be defined as „Basic plus the 1,000 most frequent words in English“, which

„adds four general area words plus the Subsequent 350 and the Next Step 150 words of common foods, plants and animals (when found or a guess is made.) and the six affixes plus a couple from Basic compounds: -able (-ible), -like, -ive (from have, -ive, etc.), -th (for numbers). (URL: <http://www.basic-english.org/projects/452.html>)

Core vocabulary is considered to be the basic and the most frequent vocabulary, used for defining other words, the nucleus of communication, necessary for text coherence and cohesion, vocabulary having great derivational and collocation potential. Some of the features of Core Vocabulary are as follows:

- it is common to all native speakers of a language
- it does not normally include loan-words,
- it does not include words with unstable pronunciation and spellings,
- it tends to be more regular,
- it has greater orientation towards the middle neutral point on the scale,
- it has an accepted antonym,
- it cannot be easily defined in terms of other words.

Core vocabulary is mainly applied in setting the defining vocabulary of a monolingual dictionary and for semantic description of other words. It is arrived at by applying a number of tests (syntactic substitution, antonymy, collocability, extension into compounds, idioms, multi-word units, phrasal verbs, superordinateness, culture-free, associationisms, neutral field of discourse). It can be classified into General Core Vocabulary (GCV – about 450 words), and Extended Core Vocabulary (appropriate to individual users for communication purposes across all environments).

Some of the main problems in respect of core vocabulary are:

- the relationship between core vocabulary items and their learnability and teachability
- different subjects or domains (in the curriculum) will need their own lexical cores
- specification of core vocabulary in relation to learning purpose,
- frequency, range and distribution of occurrence across a corpus, etc.
- should, e.g. *start* be taught before *begin*, etc.

The best known studies in core vocabulary are the famous *word lists*, minimum vocabulary for a particular purpose, e.g. Ogden's Basic English, Michael West's controlled vocabulary lists (GSL: General Service List), Quirk's international 'nuclear English', etc.. In terms of relevance for Maritime English, we shall briefly describe the following corpus-based general service lists:

- *General Service List* (GSL - West 1953)
- *A General Service List of English Words* (Xue & Nation 1984)
- *A University Word List* (UWL - McArthur 1998)
- *The Academic Word List* (AWL – Coxhead, Averil 2000)

General Service List (GSL)

The General Service List (GSL) (West. 1953) is a set of 2,000 words selected to be of the greatest "general service" to learners of English. They are not the most common 2,000 words, though frequency was one of the factors taken into account in making the selection. Each of the 2,000 words is a headword representing a word family. Frequency numbers are given, and frequency data is also given for the various meanings of words. This list has had a wide influence for many years, serving as the basis for reading, etc. For a more information on GSL, and word lists in general, see Nation (1990, pp 21-24) and Carter and McCarthy (1988, Ch. 1).

The GSL is organized like a dictionary. Each of the 2,000 headwords is listed alphabetically with brief definitions and example sentences. A number is given for each word, representing the number of occurrences per 5 million words. A percentage number is given for each meaning, representing the frequency of that meaning in the occurrences of the word.

The frequency numbers given for the words provide a way to rank the words in importance for students of English. But, the following problems arise. First, the transcription of the numbers and words is a tedious task. Second is the issue of whether the frequency numbers of related forms should always be added to the headword before the words are ranked. If not always, in which cases should the numbers be added? A third concern is related to the age of the written material that the frequency numbers come from. This data was originally published in 1938 and 1949. Is this data sufficiently relevant to the current state of English? It remains the only available such list to provide frequencies for words in particular senses (word-in-sense frequencies) rather than raw word frequencies (or frequencies of words according to word-class). (<http://jbauman.com/aboutgsl.html>)

Here is some interesting statistics:

The articles, *a, an, the* comprises 9% of English word usage

- The ten top words comprise 27%.
- 25 words comprise 36%
- 42 words comprise 42%
- 50 words comprise 43%
- 75 words comprise 50%
- 100 words comprise 52%
- 1000 words comprise 75%

[Extended Versions of A General Service List of English Words](#)

There is a number of extended General Service Lists. One of the extended versions, maintained in Excel format, allows for sorting and extraction of materials according to the following categories:

- A. Line numbering (order in which entries appear in the printed version of the General Service List);
- B. Headword as given in the General Service List;
- C. Lemmatized headword, i.e. standard dictionary-type headword;
- D. McArthur category;
- E. Word-class;
- F. Word count 1, as given in the General Service List;
- G. Word count 2, 'raw' word count without additional information given in the General Service List;
- H. Percentage scores for occurrences of words in a particular sense in the General Service List;
- I. Word-in- sense frequency;
- J. Source of information (given throughout as GenSerList);
- K. Meaning (as given in General Service List).

Further information regarding these categories can be obtained at <http://www.languages.salford.ac.uk/staff/dickins/ReadGSL2.doc>.

The Academic Word List (AWL)

The Academic Word List, compiled by Coxhead (2000), is one of several vocabulary lists that does not connect directly with a single particular piece of literature. It includes ten units of sets of words most frequently found in school text books of all types, hence applying to non-fiction. The AWL, consists of 570 word families that are not in the

most frequent 2,000 words of English but which occur reasonably frequently over a very wide range of academic texts. These 570 words are grouped into ten sublists that reflect word frequency and range. A word like analyze falls into Sublist 1, which contains the most frequent words, „while the word adjacent falls into Sublist 10 which includes the least frequent (amongst this list of high incidence words)... knowledge of the most high-incidence academic words in English can significantly boost a student's comprehension level of school-based reading material“

Technical Vocabulary

'Technical vocabulary' is a loose term, with 'specialised vocabulary' being almost synonymous to it. It is generally defined as a set of lexical items typical and statistically most likely to appear in specialised registers and genres, used for written and spoken communication among specialists.

It should be distinguished from 'technical terminology' in that the latter refers to standardised by a body of peers or an institution, contextually independent, and semantically unequivocal set of terms in a particular field of human activity.

Both technical vocabulary and terminology can however be narrow and wide in scope. Thus the vocabulary of non-fiction text may be considered to fall within the scope of 'technical vocabulary' (cf. Nation & Hwang 1995: 35). In this work we are interested in the minimum vocabulary within a wider scope, i.e. encompassing not only technical terms (usually nominal phrases) but also minimum necessary semi-technical and general English vocabulary.

Before dealing with the *minimum vocabulary* in individual maritime sectors and in a general maritime setting, a brief survey will be made of what is understood and implied under the term Maritime English Vocabulary.

2. A typology of vocabulary in Maritime English

A typical Maritime English text represents one prominent register and a genre in the foreground, combined with one or two more registers in the background. Very generally, according to the subject-matter or extra-linguistic contents to which it refers, Maritime English can be sub-divided into the following sub-types:

1. Nautical English (the most traditional, narrow term for Maritime English, also referred to as 'seafaring English', 'the language of the sea', etc.)
2. Technical English (mainly marine engineering English, but also covering electrical engineering, marine technology, technology of transport, etc.)
3. Maritime English for communications, electronics, automation, information science, computer science
4. Legal English (used in shipping, maritime administration; maritime law and law of the sea also IMO conventions, codes, the language of IMO's mandate such as institutional texts on maritime safety and marine pollution prevention, etc)

5. Business English (shipping, logistics and management of maritime transport, etc.).

Accordingly, in view of registers and genres above, and in addition to highly frequent general English vocabulary (function words, etc.) and semi-technical vocabulary, the lexis of Maritime English can be categorised as follows (Pritchard 2003a):

- (i) a very limited number (up to 5-7 %) of strictly technical / nautical terms, whose central lexical meaning (i.e. the word used in isolation, outside the context) is restricted to maritime use only and thus 'unambiguous' by nature (e.g. some terms referring to ship design and construction, general seamanship, cargo work, ship handling, etc. *fore-and-aft, halyard, starboard, bow, rudder, stevedore*),
- (ii) numerous semi-specific items (usually a semi-technical words), often highly polysemous, which are disambiguated in the maritime context only, e.g. some verbs, descriptive adjectives and basic concept nouns or semi-lexical nouns (*heave, haul, steer; clear, bound; line, set, position, time, situation*),
- (iii) function words (e.g. auxiliary verbs) and semi-lexical items (*let, make, provide, set, get*).
- (iv) an unlimited number of very productive multi-word lexical units consisting of the words of general vocabulary having specific meaning in the maritime context and setting: compound nouns (*shipping forecast, deep-see trade, close-quarters situation, vessel traffic service, muster station, master station, land earth station, assistant engineer, finger pier, blue water, beat up*) and prepositional / adverbial phrases (*heave in, heave on, heave up, heave to, heave away*).

Another, more detailed division, adapted to the requirements of the Maritime English learner, includes the following vocabulary categories (Pritchard 2007):

- a) terms used in ME only
- b) general English words acquiring a new (technical, specialised) meaning
- c) word families (e.g. inflections, derivations), morphology
- d) multi-word lexical units (MWU) in ME:
 - a. compounds
 - b. collocations
 - c. verbal phrases
 - d. idioms, phrases
- e) ME vocabulary across semantic relations (synonymy, antonymy, hyponymy; polysemy and homonymy/homography)
- f) word or term associations (lexical sets - clustering around some maritime-related topics or maritime situations)
- g) words with a high degree of recurrence/frequency in ME
- h) fixed expressions in ME
- i) metaphoric use in ME
- j) terms belonging to a particular maritime register (field subject-matter)

- k) lexical elements of speech acts in ME (e.g. VHF conversations, etc.)
- l) lexical elements of maritime discourse
- m) archaisms in ME
- n) function words in ME text and discourse

The classification above can be compared with the subdivision of vocabulary into four levels based on frequency of occurrence, as shown in Coxhead 2000, Chung and Nation 2003:

- 1st level: **high frequency words** – words belonging to GSL – 2000 most frequent words in English (80% of running words of academic texts and newspapers; 90% of conversation and novels) – all functional words (176 word families) and majority of content words (e.g.: *the, a, is in, out, between, 7, common, late, heavy, especially*); technically unmarked
- 2nd level: **academic vocabulary** (AWL) – a specialised extension of 1st level words – 8.5 % of academic texts, 4% newspapers, less than 2% of words in novels; also termed sub-technical or semi-technical vocabulary in technical texts; used in a wide range of academic fields but not highly frequent, though more closely related to high frequency words than to technical vocabulary (e.g.: *situation, part, time, position, support, forms, describe*); minimally related to a technical register
- 3rd level: **technical vocabulary** – 5% of the running words in specialised texts – words frequent in and related to specialised text or subject area but low frequency or not occurring in other fields (*chest, skin, lungs, bony, ribs; bow, stern, heave up, steer, port side, shaft generator, cove, ridge, Stella Polaris, Bellatrix, relative bearing, Great Circle Sailing*)
- 4th level: **low frequency words** – thousands of words - cover around 5% of the running words in texts (*thorax, trachea; horse latitudes, periscope*); they are specific to a technical register in ME.

Of the four levels above the technical vocabulary and low frequency words have been least investigated.

3. Some issues in determining the minimum technical vocabulary

When dealing with the concept of minimum vocabulary, some questions seem to be relevant, i.e.:

- What is minimum (technical) vocabulary?
- How can technical vocabulary be recognized/identified?
- How many words does it include? How big is it?
- What kind of words make up a technical vocabulary?
- Are there any fixed scope of minimum technical vocabulary?
- How important is technical vocabulary in specialised texts?
- How can technical vocabulary be learned and taught?, etc.

A great deal of research has been done into vocabulary learning and teaching over the last three or four decades. Below are some recommendations for teaching the

minimum number of words which various projects (Schmidt, McCarthy 1997, Nation 2001) have arrived at.

- only numbers from 1 to 10 and WH question words in L2
- 120 items (“survival list”)
- GSL (West 1953) , i.e. ‘the first 2,000 words of a language’ (Meara 1995);
- 3,000-5,000 word families
- 10,000 – (university textbooks)
- 15,000-20,000 word families

No such research has been done on Maritime English though fragmentary findings can be found in some projects as MARCOM, METNET, PROFS and in IMO STCW 95 requirements for operational, management and support levels for deck, engine-room and Watchkeeping duties involving communication on board.

Some authors, e.g. Neil Gratton (www.antimoon.com/forum/2002/157.htm), e.g. in analyzing the lexis of movie scripts, offer the following answers:

- It depends on what you need to be doing... for basic survival needs it's very hard to quantify but I'd guess between 300 and 1000 words (I assume you are already comfortably beyond this level!)
- 40 Movie Scripts were analysed; each script used on average a vocabulary of 3050 words. (some movies like "Seven Years in Tibet", "Ghost" and "Braveheart" used less than 1500 different words each)
- Actually, of these only 186 words were common to all 40 scripts, 37 10 words were common to at least 90% of the scripts.

Tom Cobb (www.wordhacker.com/en/article/userfrequency2learnwords.htm) suggests that 2000 most frequent word families make about 80% of all individual words in any English text. He also adds that 2000 GSL words with an addition of 570 AWL words covers approximately 90% of an academic text. To this amount we could add some more 2000 single maritime-specific words and as many combinations (compounds, collocations) plus several hundreds thematic lexical sets in order to arrive at a minimum maritimer English vocabulary.

For dictionary compilation purposes, most studies today invariably rely on corpora of various sizes and computational corpus analysis. In the latter the minimum vocabulary problem mainly rests on indexing and other domains of information retrieval. Nevertheless, two major issues can be discerned: identification of minimum vocabulary, and computational analysis of the vocabulary. Perhaps the most important question however is: For what purpose do

we need minimum vocabulary? There are two main purposes which impose themselves as most plausible answers in ME:

- safety at sea insured by unequivocal vocabulary
- teaching of Maritime English vocabulary

Thus, in his seminal paper ‘Whither Maritime English?’, F.F. Weeks (1997) categorizes (maritime) Englishes and their corresponding vocabulary for the following purposes:

1. Standard English,
2. Standard English with ‘Belonging’ English (for native English speakers),
3. Survival English for shipboard use,
4. Maritime Business English,
5. Technical English,
6. Communications English, especially for use over voice radio, and
7. IMO SMCP courses.

In Weeks, minimum maritime vocabulary is referred to as Survival English for Shipboard Use (3) and can, together with Nos. 6 & 7, be considered to meet STCW requirements for operational level (Deck) plus No 5 (Engine-Room).

Unfortunately, IMO STCW Convention 1978/1995 is somewhat vague in determining the minimum knowledge and competence in (maritime) vocabulary since it places very low minimum vocabulary requirement for the operational (OOW) level but at the same time requires good knowledge and competence in various domains of maritime communication.

On the other hand, it has been proved that vocabulary is one of the major obstacles for attaining reading fluency in a second language. Therefore, for efficient learning, the vocabulary systems must be structured in terms of frequency groupings so that „the more frequent items are mastered before the less frequent ones“ (cf. D. B. Johnson 1972), Therefore, we have two solutions in determining the relative frequency of the words in a text:

- 1) the establishment of various word frequency groups, and
- 2) marking (identifying) the words in the reading text so that the learner has a clear set of rational priorities.

Statistical studies (conducted by Johnson in as early as 1972) suggest that approximately the most frequent 5,000 words constitute a minimum vocabulary for reading. These account for about 90% of the different words in an average text. This rises the following considerations:

- the learning of the less frequent items should be deferred until these are mastered
- the presentation of the higher frequency words within the 1,000–5,000 range should be sequenced by groups in terms of their relative frequencies.

- each group might correspond to a particular level of language proficiency.
- this goal can be attained by means of a system in which the frequency category of each text word is marked so that the learner knows its relative importance and can structure his vocabulary acquisition accordingly.

There are basically two approaches to dealing with minimum vocabulary in specialised texts, such as those in Maritime English:

- recognizing/identifying technical vocabulary in ME texts
- statistical consideration based on samples (to see how technical vocabulary relates to other types of vocabulary).

As a subset of technical vocabulary, maritime vocabulary can be identified:

- a) by intuition of subject expert(s), usually in close co-operation with experienced Maritime English teachers, and
- b) by a corpus-comparison approach.

Intuitive methods include the use of:

1. a rating scale (cf. Farrell 1990) ,
2. a technical dictionary authored by subject experts (Nation 2001)
3. clues (contextual and others) used by relevant specialists, the author(s) of a maritime-related text (ME teachers or instructors) to mark “the words considered to be important for the message of the text” (Chung & Nation 2003).

4. Some statistical considerations

The corpus-comparison approach compares an analysis corpus with a reference corpus (a general English corpus, another technical corpus, a comprehensive Maritime English corpus, or sub-corpora within Maritime English). The corpus comparison method can partly answer the questions of:

4. vocabulary levels in a technical text
5. the size of technical vocabulary in a set of texts.
6. relationship between GSL vs technical vocabulary,
7. kind of words making up the technical vocabulary and
8. the role of technical vocabulary.

We shall make use of the method applied in the research on technical vocabulary and study how this applies to Maritime Vocabulary, which can also be termed ‘technical vocabulary’. Statistical research on technical vocabulary (showing, of necessity, minimum vocabulary as well) is presented in Sutarsyah, Nation and Kennedy 1994, Chung 2003 and Chung and Nation 2003. Their research has shown that the role of technical vocabulary in technical texts has been unjustly underestimated and that there has been little research as to how technical vocabulary relates to other types of vocabulary. They also show how relevant such research may be for second language learners and teachers.

For this purpose, in this paper we have selected three texts considered to be representative of three typical registers of Maritime English (nautical – F1, maritime law – F2, and marine engineering – F3). These have been transformed into text files and run through two programmes: RANGE and FREQUENCY available free at http://www.vuw.ac.nz/lals/staff/paul_nation./index.html. The programmes use word types (rather than word families) and tokens and compare the vocabulary of any set of up to 32 different texts against GSL and AWL and generate the technically-related part of the texts. Level (step) four provides a list of words having very low frequency as compared to other three levels and is highly interesting in determining the technical vocabulary specific to a specialised text such as the three Maritime English texts mentioned above, in that they are likely to occur in one specific type of text (register/genre) only. Table 1 shows the distribution of the vocabulary of the three texts taken together across the four levels:

Table 1: Word list (types/%, tokens/%)

VOCABULARY LEVEL	NAVIGATION	MARITIME LAW	MARINE ENGINEERING
<i>GSL (1st 2000)</i>	578 /44.33%	416 /46.38%	388 /51.05%
<i>AWL</i>	152 /11.66%	61 / 6.80%	82 /10.79%
<i>General technical words</i>	262 /20.09%	162 /18.06%	112 /14.74%
<i>Low frequency words ('maritime only' words)</i>	312 /23.93%	258 /28.76%	178 /23.42%
<i>Total types</i>	1304	897	760
<i>Total tokens</i>	6880	4530	3081

As expected, the 1st 2000 GSL words cover roughly 50% of all types (here we shall deal with lexical types rather than tokens) in each of the three texts. The share of GSL words is appr. The same as in e.g. medical texts (cf. Chung & Nation 2003) though much less than in social science texts. The incidence of AWL types is much higher for navigation (11.66%) and marine engineering (10.79 vs 6.9%) than in medical texts (3.7%). However the maritime law text contains much less types than in other two texts, which can be attributed to text genre (report on a law case / court ruling).

The most significant, general technical words, are close on or slightly lower than in e.g. medical texts but much higher than in social science texts. These words become especially interesting when their collocability, lexical association patterns and other lexical features are studied.

The Table above also shows that, statistically, technical words could be relatively easily isolated from other types of vocabulary. This allows us to focus on levels 3 and 4 in order to distinguish technical from general English vocabulary and also to establish the similarities and differences among the three sub-maritime

vocabularies. It should also be noted that word types rather than word families are studied in Table 1.

Our corpus encompasses three types/registers of maritime texts, considered to be sufficiently representative of maritime English:

- a marine reporting genre (*TSB Report – Marine 2003 – M03C001*) – 6880 tokens,
- a marine engineering report (M93M002 - 2003) – 3081 tokens, and
- a maritime law – court ruling report (*Contichem v Parsons Shipping, 2nd Cir. 2000*) – 4530 tokens.

Table 2 shows the presence of the four level words in the three specialised texts taken as a whole.

Table 2

WORD LIST FAMILIES	TOKENS/%	TYPES/%
one 562	9810/67.70	923/40.11
two 169	793/ 5.47	257/11.17
three 259	1385/ 9.56	431/18.73
not in the lists ?????	2503/17.27	690/29.99
Total 990	14491	2301

It also shows what GSL, AWL and Gen Techn words these texts have in common (Table of Ranges):

1773 **Words appear in 1 input files**
396 **Words appear in 2 input files**
132 **Words appear in 3 input files**

More interesting for the Maritime English teacher and the learner are the compared lists of words belonging to the fields of navigation, maritime law, and marine engineering) occurring on the particular levels. Here are three samples selected randomly:

1. Words from GSL (Base list one):

	Range	Frq	Nav	Law	Engin
BACK	1	2	0	2	0
BACKGROUND	1	1	0	1	0
BANK	1	11	0	11	0
BANKS	1	2	0	2	0
BAR	1	2	0	2	0
BASED	2	3	2	1	0
BASIC	1	1	1	0	0
BASIS	3	3	1	1	1
BE	3	82	41	29	12
BEARING	1	11	0	0	11
BEARINGS	1	2	0	0	2
BECAME	2	2	1	0	1
BECAUSE	3	21	3	13	5
BECOME	1	2	2	0	0
BECOMES	1	1	0	0	1
BED	1	5	5	0	0
BEEN	3	33	17	2	14
BEFORE	3	17	6	7	4
BEGAN	1	1	1	0	0
BEHIND	1	1	0	0	1
BEING	2	4	2	2	0
BELIEVES	1	1	0	0	1
BELONGING	1	1	0	1	0
BELOW	3	8	5	1	2
BEST	1	1	1	0	0
BETTER	1	4	4	0	0
BETWEEN	3	25	14	3	8
BEYOND	2	2	0	1	1
BOARD	2	19	12	0	7
BOARDED	1	1	1	0	0
BOARDING	1	1	1	0	0
BODIES	1	1	1	0	0
BOTH	2	3	0	2	1
BRANCH	1	1	0	1	0
BREAKAGE	1	1	0	0	1
BRIDGE	1	15	15	0	0
BRIGHT	1	1	0	0	1
BRING	1	2	0	2	0
BROKEN	1	4	0	0	4
BROUGHT	1	1	0	1	0
BURNED	1	1	0	0	1
BUSINESS	1	1	0	1	0
BUT	3	15	6	4	5
BY	3	91	45	30	16
C	1	52	0	52	0
CALL	1	3	3	0	0
CALLED	1	3	3	0	0
CALLING	1	7	7	0	0
CAME	1	1	0	0	1
CAN	3	10	4	3	3
CANNOT	2	7	2	5	0
CAREFULLY	1	1	1	0	0
CARRIED	2	4	1	0	3

2. Words from AWL (Base List Two)

	Range	Frq	Nav	Law	Engin
ABSENCE	1	3	3	0	0
ABSENT	1	2	0	2	0
ACCIDENT	2	6	5	0	1
ACCIDENTS	1	1	1	0	0
ADVICE	1	5	5	0	0
ADVISE	1	3	3	0	0

ADVISED	2	3	2	1	0
ADVISORY	1	4	0	4	0
AFTERNOON	2	2	1	0	1
ANGLE	1	1	1	0	0
APPROVAL	1	3	3	0	0
ARGUE	1	1	0	1	0
ARGUED	1	1	0	1	0
ARGUES	1	2	0	2	0
ARRANGE	1	1	1	0	0
ARRESTED	1	1	0	1	0
ARRESTING	1	1	0	1	0
ASH	1	1	0	0	1
ATTENDANCE	1	1	0	0	1
AVOID	1	1	1	0	0
BALANCE	1	2	2	0	0
BLOCKED	1	1	1	0	0
BOILER	1	1	0	1	0
BOTTOM	1	3	3	0	0
BOTTOMS	1	1	1	0	0
BOUND	1	1	1	0	0
BOW	1	1	1	0	0
BROADCAST	1	2	2	0	0
BUSH	1	7	0	0	7
CAUTION	1	5	5	0	0
CAUTIONED	1	1	1	0	0
CENT	2	7	1	0	6
CHECK	1	1	1	0	0
CHECKED	2	3	1	0	2
COMPLAINT	1	2	0	2	0
CONFUSION	1	1	1	0	0
CONNECT	1	1	0	1	0
CONNECTING	2	6	1	0	5
CONNECTION	1	2	0	2	0
CONNECTS	1	1	1	0	0
COOL	1	1	0	1	0
COPIES	1	2	2	0	0
COPPER	1	2	0	0	2
COPY	2	3	2	0	1
CORRECT	1	1	1	0	0
CRACK	1	3	3	0	0
CRACKS	1	2	2	0	0
CRIMINAL	2	2	1	0	1
CRITICAL	1	2	2	0	0
DAMAGE	2	7	4	0	3
DAMAGED	1	1	0	0	1
DAMAGES	1	3	0	3	0
DEBT	1	1	0	1	0
DELAY	1	2	2	0	0

The words in the list above can be used for distinguishing general from technical or specialist use (for studying semantic change, pragmatic use, register labeling etc.)

3. General technical words: Base List Three)

Levels 3 and 4 are of particular interest for the maritime specialist and ME teacher/instructor because they refer to the words or word classes to which more attention should be paid in teaching. In addition, word lists (collocations, lexical sets) and concordances (KWIC) could be quite important in providing examples for all three stages of vocabulary teaching/learning: presentation, practising, production (PPP).

	Range	Frq	Nav	Law	Engin
REQUIRED	2	13	12	1	0
REQUIREMENT	1	1	1	0	0
REQUIREMENTS	2	5	4	1	0
REQUIRES	1	2	2	0	0
RESEARCH	1	1	0	0	1
RESIDES	1	1	0	1	0
RESOURCE	1	4	4	0	0
RESOURCES	1	1	1	0	0
RESPOND	1	1	1	0	0
RESPONDENT	1	1	0	1	0
RESPONDING	1	1	1	0	0
RESPONDS	1	1	0	1	0
RESPONSE	1	3	3	0	0
RESTRAINED	1	1	0	1	0
RESTRAINING	1	28	0	28	0
RESTRICT	1	1	1	0	0
RESTRICTED	1	2	0	2	0
RESTRICTION	1	1	1	0	0
RETAINED	2	2	1	0	1
RETAINS	1	1	1	0	0
REVEALED	1	4	0	0	4
REVERSE	1	1	0	1	0
REVOLUTIONS	1	1	0	0	1
ROLE	1	1	1	0	0
ROLES	1	1	1	0	0
SOLELY	1	2	2	0	0
SOUGHT	2	10	1	9	0
SOURCE	1	1	0	0	1
SPECIFIC	2	3	0	1	2
SPECIFICALLY	1	5	0	5	0
SPECIFICATIONS	1	1	0	0	1
SPECIFIED	1	6	0	6	0
SUPPLEMENT	2	2	1	1	0
SURVEY	1	15	15	0	0
SURVEYS	1	3	3	0	0
SUSTAINED	2	3	2	0	1
TARGET	1	1	0	1	0
TEAM	1	9	9	0	0
TEAMED	1	1	1	0	0
TECHNICALLY	1	1	0	1	0
TEMPORARILY	1	1	0	1	0
TEMPORARY	1	26	0	26	0
THEREBY	1	1	1	0	0
TRACE	1	2	0	0	2
TRACED	1	1	0	1	0
TRANSFER	2	15	4	11	0
TRANSFERRED	2	7	6	0	1
TRANSFERRING	2	5	1	4	0
TRANSFERS	1	1	0	1	0
TRANSIT	1	2	2	0	0
TRANSPORT	1	3	3	0	0
TRANSPORTATION	2	7	4	0	3
UNAWARE	1	2	2	0	0
UNDERGOING	1	1	1	0	0
UNDERLYING	1	3	0	3	0
UNDERTAKE	1	1	1	0	0
UNDERTAKEN	1	1	1	0	0
UNDERWENT	1	1	1	0	0

4. Specific technical words (not found in any list)

	Range	Frq	Nav	Law	Engin
ABEAM	1	1	1	0	0

ABOVE-WATER	1	1	1	0	0
ABRASIVE	1	6	0	0	6
ABREAST	1	1	1	0	0
ABUSE	1	1	0	1	0
ABUSED	1	1	0	1	0
ACCELERATED	1	1	0	1	0
ACCOMPLISH	1	1	0	1	0
ACIDS	1	1	0	0	1
ACTIVATION	1	1	1	0	0
ADJUDICATED	1	1	0	1	0
ADJUDICATION	1	1	0	1	0
ADMINISTERED	1	1	1	0	0
ADMIRALTY	1	8	0	8	0
AFFIDAVIT	1	1	0	1	0
AFFIRM	1	3	0	3	0
AFFIRMED	1	1	0	1	0
AFT	2	2	1	0	1
AFTER-ACQUIRED	1	1	0	1	0
AGENDA	1	1	1	0	0
AGGRAVATES	1	1	0	0	1
AGROUND	1	2	2	0	0
ALGOMA	1	2	2	0	0
ALGONOVA	1	8	8	0	0
ALLEGED	1	1	0	1	0
ALLEGEDLY	1	1	0	1	0
ALLIANCE	1	1	0	1	0
ALONGSIDE	1	1	1	0	0
ALUMINIUM	1	2	0	0	2
ALUMINIUM-BASED	1	1	0	0	1
AMERICAN	2	2	1	1	0
ANCHOR	1	1	1	0	0
ANCHORAGE	2	2	1	1	0
ANCHORED	2	2	1	1	0
ANOMALY	1	1	1	0	0
ANTHONY	1	1	0	1	0
APPEAL	1	5	0	5	0
APPEALABLE	1	4	0	4	0
APPEALS	1	7	0	7	0
APPELLATE	1	3	0	3	0
APPROVALS	1	3	3	0	0
ARABIA	1	1	0	1	0
ARBITRABLE	1	5	0	5	0
ARBITRAL	1	2	0	2	0
ARBITRATE	1	1	0	1	0
ARBITRATION	1	45	0	45	0
ARBITRATIONS	1	5	0	5	0
ARMAND	1	1	0	1	0
ASA	1	3	0	3	0
ASCERTAIN	1	1	1	0	0
ASSERT	1	1	0	1	0
ASSERTION	1	2	0	2	0
ASSERTS	1	1	0	1	0
ASSETS	1	6	0	6	0
ASTERN	1	1	1	0	0
ATELIERS	1	1	0	1	0
ATKINS	1	1	0	1	0
ATMOSPHERIC	1	2	2	0	0
AUG	1	1	0	1	0
AURORA	1	1	0	1	0
AUTHENTIC	1	1	0	1	0
AUTHORIZATION	1	3	3	0	0
AUTHORIZED	2	2	1	0	1
AUTHORIZES	1	2	0	2	0
AUX	1	1	0	0	1
AVAIL	1	3	0	3	0
AVERTED	1	1	0	0	1
AWAITING	1	1	1	0	0
AWARD	1	4	0	4	0

AWARDS	1	2	0	2	0
BALLAST	2	2	1	0	1
BARRIER	1	2	0	2	0
BAYFIELD	1	2	2	0	0
BECKWORTH	1	1	0	1	0
BERTH	1	4	4	0	0
BERTHED	1	2	2	0	0
BERTHING	1	2	2	0	0
BERTHS	1	1	1	0	0
BLOW-BY	1	6	0	0	6
BLURS	1	1	0	1	0
BOATING	1	1	1	0	0
BORDEN	1	2	0	2	0
BOTTOM-END	1	4	0	0	4
BOWLES	1	1	0	1	0
BRACKET	1	1	1	0	0
BRANDS	1	1	0	1	0
BREACH	2	5	2	3	0
BREAKDOWN	1	4	0	0	4
BRUNET	1	1	0	0	1
BRUNSWICK	1	1	1	0	0
BUILTGERMANY	1	1	1	0	0
BULKHEAD	1	3	3	0	0
BUOY	1	21	21	0	0
BUOYAGE	1	1	1	0	0
BUOYS	1	50	50	0	0
MANIFOLD	1	1	1	0	0
MANNED	1	1	0	0	1
MANOEUVRE	1	1	1	0	0
MANOEUVRED	1	2	2	0	0
MANOEUVRING	1	2	0	0	2
MARIE	1	21	21	0	0
MARINE	2	23	20	0	3
MARINE-RELATED	1	1	1	0	0
MARINER	1	1	1	0	0
MARINERS	1	8	8	0	0
MARITIME	3	34	1	32	1
MARYS	1	3	3	0	0
MATANE	1	4	0	0	4
MATE	1	1	1	0	0
MAVRNICOLAS	1	1	0	1	0
MCKENNA	1	3	0	3	0
MCKINNEY	1	2	0	2	0
MCLAUGHLIN	1	1	0	1	0
MCTS	1	2	2	0	0
MEDIUM-SPEED	1	1	0	0	1
MEIJI	1	1	0	1	0
MEMBERS14	1	1	1	0	0
MEMORANDUM	1	2	0	2	0
MERITS	1	1	0	1	0
MESSIH	1	1	0	1	0
METAL-	1	1	0	0	1
METAL-TO-METAL	1	1	0	0	1
METALLIC	1	1	0	0	1
METRIC	1	1	0	1	0
MEXICANO	1	1	0	1	0
MISSION	1	3	3	0	0
MIST	1	5	0	0	5
MM	2	11	1	0	10
MM-LONG	1	2	2	0	0
MOHAMED	1	1	0	1	0
MONTREAL	1	1	0	1	0
MONTRÉAL	1	1	1	0	0
MORTGAGE	1	2	0	2	0
MOTOBECANE	1	2	0	2	0
MOTOR-DRIVEN	1	1	0	0	1
NAUTICAL	1	2	2	0	0

NAVIGABLE	1	2	2	0	0
NAVIGATE	1	5	5	0	0
NAVIGATING	1	1	1	0	0
NAVIGATION	1	37	37	0	0
NAVIGATIONAL	1	9	9	0	0
NECESSITATING	1	1	0	0	1
NEGOTIATING	1	2	2	0	0
NICOLET	1	1	1	0	0
NOAA	1	5	5	0	0
NOMINAL	1	1	0	0	1
NOMINATED	1	1	0	1	0
NON-CONFORMITIES	1	1	1	0	0
NORDIC	1	10	0	0	10
NORSKE	1	10	0	10	0
NORTH-NORTH-EAST	1	1	1	0	0
NOS	2	7	3	0	4
NOTIFICATION	1	1	1	0	0
NOTIFIED	1	1	1	0	0
NOTSHIP	1	5	5	0	0
NOTSHIPS	1	1	1	0	0
NOURSE	1	1	0	1	0
NOVA	2	2	1	0	1
NTERTAINING	1	1	0	1	0
NUMBER814361	1	1	1	0	0
NY	1	4	0	4	0
OBJECTIVES	1	2	2	0	0
OBLIGATIONS	1	1	0	1	0
OCCURRENCE-RELATED	1	1	1	0	0
OCEANIC	1	2	2	0	0
OEUFS	1	1	0	0	1
ONTARIO	1	12	12	0	0
ONUS	1	1	1	0	0
OPERATORRIGEL	1	1	1	0	0
OVERHAUL	1	2	0	0	2

The list above is the most ‘maritime-specific’ list and also offers words peculiar to a particular maritime register or a specific maritime topic. An instructor can make extensive use of the word lists and concordances in planning her/his course design and conducting actual teaching. Students can also get involved in searching for examples and provide their own contextual and semantic information.

5. Practical considerations for learning second language technical vocabulary

For the Maritime English teacher three valuable results of computational analysis of a maritime corpus are: (a) the keyword list, (b) list of compounds and collocates, (c) list of thematic lexical sets and (d) list of concordance lines for a given word from any of the four levels above. These are obtainable by using software tools such as OxfordWordsmith Tools Ver. 4.0 and M. Barlow’s MonoConc Pro.

For the sake of an example we shall show the concordance list for the word ‘wear’ (noun):

1. ... e liner wear and abrasive liner [[wear]]. 1.7.1.1 Corrosive Liner Wear ...
2. ... ntributed to the cylinder liner [[wear]]. 2.4 Monitoring of Wear Rate an ...
3. ... is case. 1.7.1.2 Abrasive Liner [[Wear]] Abrasive liner wear occurs when ...
4. ... cylinder liner wear are corrosive liner [[wear]] and abrasive liner wear. ...
5. ... ar; iron, liner and piston ring [[wear]]; and aluminium may be introduced through ...

6. ... The two types of cylinder liner [[wear]] are corrosive liner wear and abrasive ...
7. ... 2.2.1 Lubricating Oil and Main Engine [[Wear]] As the main engine components ar ...
8. ... were the following: 1) Abnormal [[wear]] beyond the manufacturer's recommended l ...
9. ... in the oil could indicate bearing [[wear]]; chromium, piston ring wear; iron, ...
10. ... associated with engine component [[wear]]. For example, the presence of copper ...
11. ... erved about the excessive liner [[wear]] found in the No. 7 unit and decided to ...
12. ... sample are consistent with the [[wear]] found in the engine. As the No. ...
13. ... nos. 2, 3, 8 and 9 and over 50 per cent [[wear]] in the No. 6 unit. 2) Abnormal ...
14. ... nd checked, by touch, the liner [[wear]] in these units. Some wear was detected ...
15. ... ual evidence to suggest corrosive liner [[wear]] in this case. 1.7.1.2 A ...
16. ... ate bearing wear; chromium, piston ring [[wear]]; iron, liner and piston ring we ...
17. ... 1.7.1 Cylinder Liner Wear Liner [[wear]] is unavoidable in any engine. Excessive ...
18. ... ton moves within the liner. The [[wear]] is caused by metal- to-metal contact be ...
19. ... ting Instruction Manual, is 450 mm. The [[wear]] limit is 451 mm and an out of r ...
20. ... isfactory. 1.7.1 Cylinder Liner [[Wear]] Liner wear is unavoidable in any ...
21. ... ases the liner wear rate. Liner [[wear]] material becomes trapped in this carbon ...
22. ... unning time. The cylinder liner [[wear]] measurements taken at the time of the o ...
23. ... ch has shown that the corrosion [[wear]] occurs primarily during manoeuvring, lo ...
24. ... mal operating conditions, maximum liner [[wear]] occurs at or near the combustio ...
25. ... rasive Liner Wear Abrasive liner [[wear]] occurs when the piston moves within the ...
26. ... groove landing, resulting in higher [[wear]] of the ring and the groove. As ...
27. ... 3.1 Findings The substantial [[wear]] on the cylinder liners can be attribute ...
28. ... No. 8 liner was 4,307, giving a [[wear]] rate of 0.3761 mm/1,000 hours, i.e., 25 ...
29. ... to the manufacturer, the cylinder liner [[wear]] rate is expected to be between ...
30. ... process and increases the liner [[wear]] rate. Liner wear material becomes trapp ...
31. ... were recorded. From this, the liner [[wear]] rate per 1,000 hours could have ...
32. ... i.e., over 14 times the normal [[wear]] rate. Between the last two cons ...
33. ... ours, i.e., 25 times the normal [[wear]] rate. Perusal of the liner meas ...
34. ... r liner wear. 2.4 Monitoring of [[Wear]] Rate and Preventive Action Perio ...
35. ... program in place. However, as abnormal [[wear]] rates of the main engine compon ...
36. ... tenance periods showed that the average [[wear]] rates varied between 0.157 mm/1 ...
37. ... ombustion gas blow-by in the crankcase. [[Wear]] rates are kept to a minimum by ...
38. ... h 1993 revealed that higher-than-normal [[wear]] rates were experienced in all b ...
39. ... s crew since 1991 showed abnormal liner [[wear]] rates. The lubricating oil sy ...
40. ... aterial) and, as abnormal liner [[wear]] rates were observed in some units durin ...
41. ... ated. Abnormal cylinder liner [[wear]] rates were found in six out of the nine ...
42. ... but the No. 5 liner. In the latter, the [[wear]] rates were marginally above nor ...
43. ... as again examined for excessive [[wear]]. Subsequently, the main engine piston c ...
44. ... ay be introduced through piston [[wear]]. The elevated levels of these four elem ...
45. ... ch, the liner wear in these units. Some [[wear]] was detected on the No. 2 liner ...

6. Conclusions

Instead of conclusion the author would like to instigate a piece of vocabulary research in groups among peers during the paper delivery and a panel discussion on some key issues in determining minimum technical vocabulary in Maritime English for the various levels as per STCW 78/95. The following issues will be studied and discussed in groups:

1. What kind of words make up a maritime vocabulary?
2. How many Maritime English words does a deck or engine-room department rating or officer need: (a) for support level, (b) for operational level, (c) for management level (STCW)?
3. How many ME words would be appropriate for obtaining a three-year BSc degree in nautical studies and marine engineering?
4. Working in groups (nautical, engineering, maritime law) on a particular text (see the discussion of corpus in Section 3) IMEC 19 attendants make their own lists, then check and discuss their ideas (i.e. support their cause) of the four levels of vocabulary in a given ME text.
5. How do we recognize a ME word?
6. Reliability check: working in three groups IMEC 19 attendants assess the degree of specificity of the lexical item/s (i.e. word-form ascribed only one meaning in an utterance) in the field of Maritime English). Participants first work individually and then in groups. Their task is to assign the fifty words to the four-point scale/steps: (GSL, AWL, general technical words, maritime- or text-only words).

Finally, this paper urges for a compilation of a sizeable and representative corpus of maritime English texts to serve as the basis for determining

- (a) the four levels of ME vocabulary
- (b) ME compounds and collocations, and
- (c) Lexical sets in ME (thematic vocabularies).

The results will be reported to the plenary and carried over for further research. The outcome and further research is to be presented at IMEC 20.

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Sociocultural Competence as an Indicator of Seafarers' Readiness for Cross-Cultural Communication

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Abstract

A systematic inclusion of culture elements into the training process at all its stages is one of the leading tendencies of modern pedagogy. For future seafarers the development of sociocultural competence must become one of the most important components of their professional performance in the multilingual crew. Owing to this fact it will become possible to organize successful work on board, prepare plans of cooperation in the crew, distribute functions and carry out emergency and routine tasks. Thus, the development of sociocultural competence of mariners as a component of their professional training process must get complete explanation on the level of functional pedagogical theory. The necessity to specify the basic characteristics and elaboration of such a theory caused the actuality of this paper. The main goal of developing sociocultural competence of seafarers is to gain better understanding and appropriate responses to different cultural and professional situations, because the lack of such information can negatively affect their cooperative work. In this case, English serves as the most successful medium of communication. Seafarers must be able to understand the differences in their native and other countries cultures, accept them positively and overcome sociocultural contrasts. The results of this research will help to motivate maritime cadets to develop a wider outlook on successful communication on board the ship. Instructors can also find some useful ideas how to help students build up sociocultural competence.

Key words: sociocultural competence, training process, modeling, job-related areas and situations, multinational crew

Introduction

The need of maritime students to develop sociocultural competence derives from close relationship between language and culture. They are tied to one another and have a great influence on communication. Developing an understanding of general cultural contexts will enable future seafarers who usually work in

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multinational crews to improve their cultural awareness. That is why one of the basic aims of ESP Curriculum (2005) is sociocultural one. It focuses at developing understanding and interpreting different aspects of culture and language behavior in the world of work, for instance on board the ship. The basic idea of this paper is to analyze what is behind sociocultural competence and its use in teaching ESP for mariners.

The idea of developing sociocultural competence of future seamen is fairly recent. Nevertheless, many cross-cultural and intercultural issues were fundamentally studied by Joseph Okon Joe (2010), Carmen Chirea-Ungureanu (2010) and Lieve Vangehuchten (2010) respectively. Cultural values (time, individual space, etc.) and their key role in communication with members of a multinational crew was analyzed by Tatiana Oleneva (2010).

In spite of this, there has been a slow progress in developing instructions and materials that would help English language teachers to understand the importance of sociocultural competence for maritime students and to implement it in their classrooms. Several papers have been published recently which explain its great role and how the absence or lack of this sort of information can negatively affect future seafarers. This paper is an attempt to summarize the ideas of different theories and suggest a methodological strategy for sociocultural competence implication into ESP teaching in maritime educational institutions.

General issues of sociocultural competence

Definition and objective of sociocultural competence

Sociocultural competence is an integral part of ESP teaching and there are a number of its definitions. Some of them would be analyzed and one which seems to be the most sufficient would be suggested.

ESP National Curriculum for Universities defines that sociocultural competence “aims at developing understanding and interpreting different aspects of culture and language behavior in the world of work. It encourages the development of the skills involved in appropriate behavior in and responses to different cultural and professional situation” (2005).

Romanenko Oksana (2008) considers that sociocultural competence is “an adoption of cultural and religious values of native and other nations, norms which regulate relations between generations, genders, nationalities, encourage aesthetic and moral growth”.

“Sociocultural competence – a complex of verbal and non-verbal skills needed in cross-cultural communication”, the definition given by Kuzmenko Yulia (2007).

In our conception *sociocultural competence is a human ability to accept, understand, interpret adequately and be aware of nation and culture focused information in intercultural communication.*

Components of sociocultural competence

The majority of researchers raised questions about multicomponent structure of sociocultural competence. There are a number of different theories on this issue.

In the American methodological literature we found the following structure. According to the thesis there are four components of sociocultural competence: social contextual factors, stylistic appropriateness factors, cultural factors, and non-verbal communicative factors. Moreover, authors mention that some of these components are often neglected in ESL education, leading to comprehension difficulties or confusion (Celce-Marcia, Dorneyi & Thurred, 1995). For example, forms of non-verbal communication, such as body language, eye contact, and use of personal space are an integral part of each culture, whose norms are simply understood and are not discussed by its culture beams. However, people of other cultures usually have different customs of body language use. Seafarers who are usually unaware of such communication standards can have frequent misunderstanding problems in their multinational crews.

Russian researcher P.Sysoyev considers that sociocultural competence consists of four components:

- sociocultural knowledge (information about the country of a studied language, cultural traditions, including representatives of different ethnic groups, features of national mentality and behaviour);
- communication experience (a choice of tolerable and acceptable style in communication);
- personal attitude to culture facts (including ability to overcome and resolve sociocultural conflicts in communication);
- application of language (the correct use of national-marked language in speech in various spheres of intercultural communication) (Sysoyev 2001).

Sociocultural competence in I.Bim's interpretation includes sociolinguistic, presentive, common cultural and national cultural competences (Bim 2002).

V.Safonova also considers sociocultural competence as a complex phenomenon which includes a set of components, referring to various categories. In her opinion, sociocultural competence consists of:

- national lingual component (lexical units with national-cultural semantics and ability to use them in situations of intercultural communication);
- sociolinguistic component (language features of social strata, representatives of different generations, groups, dialects);
- common cultural component (common and universal culture elements, e.g. friendship, love, beauty, evil, harm etc.);
- culturological component (historical and ethno cultural background) (Safonova 1996).

Above mentioned theories about multicomponent structure of sociocultural competence show that all of them can be changed and updated in the future, thus their common basic core remains invariable.

Modelling of educational situations of seafarer's professional work as the method of developing sociocultural competence

The general model of job-related situations in the course of ESP (maritime profile)

Modelling of educational situations reflecting professional work of the seafarer, is one of effective ways of ESP teaching in the higher maritime educational institution. Use of educational situations allows to introduce novelty, a creative training, helps the teacher to individualize training process, to create a friendly atmosphere in the class. Principle realization of educational situations promotes the development of oral speech skills, and also listening skills. It causes a high actuality of educational situations modelling which contents is professional work of the seafarer, and their use in the course of teaching ESP (maritime profile).

It is necessary to mention, that the role of professional situations in the course of ESP has been studied by many scientists and experts. In the last decade a lot of interesting publications have started to appear. They affirm that the modelling problem in methodology cannot be limited to questions of the organisation of a language material, and on this basis it is offered to create models of job-related situational dialogue, which allows to optimize training process of the English language. Practical experience of use of certain models and method of modelling in the course of teaching ESP in maritime educational institution has shown, that application of a separately taken model is not enough for effective training. Absence of the system approach in modelling does not allow to realize completely diverse possibilities of use of models in the professionally-focused training.

It has caused the necessity of systematic development of educational situation models which reflect the main characteristics of professional work of the seafarer. The model below shows the interconnected set of different types of situations used in the course of teaching ESP (maritime profile). Components of this model which are based on six criteria, we submit in the form of the table (tab.1).

Table 1. Educational situations of seafarer's professional work (model components)

<i>Criterion</i>	<i>Variety of job-related situations</i>
On a functional orientation of the educational problem	Situation-problem, situation-exercise, situation-illustration, situation-evaluation, situation-information, situation-inquiry, situation-statement
On the form of the educational activity	Group, individual, collective, (cadet – cadets, teacher – cadet, officer – cadets, officer – cadet, cadets – cadets)
On a thematic orientation	Theme 1. Personal identification. Theme 2. Nautical education. Plans for the future. Theme 3. Types of vessels and cargoes. Theme 4. Crew roles and routines. Theme 5. Ship construction. Theme 6. Safety on board. Theme 7. Emergencies and alarms. Theme 8. Life-saving appliances. Theme 9. Security at sea. Theme 10. Weather conditions. Theme 11. World map. Theme 12. Injuries at sea. etc.
On a purpose	Training, informative, monitoring and self-checking
On complexity degree	1) beginner, 2) elementary, 3) pre-intermediate, 4) intermediate, 5) upper-intermediate
On character of a language material	1) lexical, 2) grammatical

Proceeding from the allocated criteria, the general schematic model of typical situations of professional work of the seafarer has been developed. Its basis includes those situations which are classified according to a functional orientation of a certain educational task. Each of the basic types of situations can have hundreds of variants depending on the chosen type of the tasks defined by several types of systematic approach. We apply its schematic model below (fig.1).

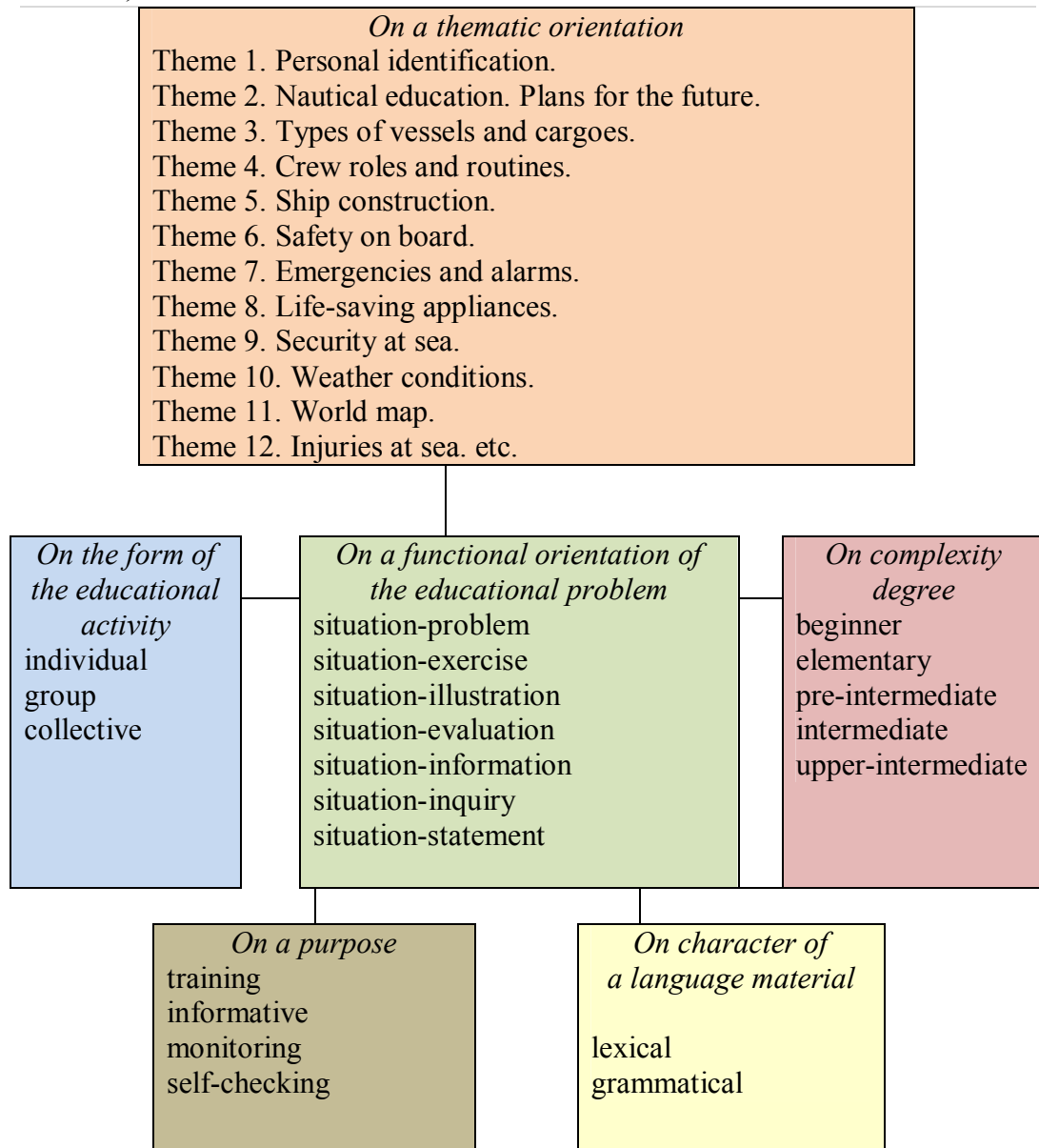


Figure 1. The general model of educational situations

The general model of situations of professional work is developed by us on the basis of the complex analysis of the theory of modelling, the purposes and training problems of teaching ESP, correlated with the contents of professional training of cadets. In the system of models of educational situations reflecting characteristic aspects of activity of the seafarer, the important role is given to the creation of the models corresponding to certain organizational forms of training.

Before developing educational problems intended for educational purposes, it is necessary to analyze the program of ESP (maritime profile), structure of real tasks and processes of their solution by future seafarers. In their professional work

marine officers execute different functions. Whatever was the sphere of cadet's activity, then the officer's, in all cases it faces various problems which solution demands high degree of his competence development, professional thinking and knowledge of a foreign language. It is practically impossible to develop all variety of situations and problems solved by the seafarer. Each marine officer makes his decisions in each concrete situation which is dynamically changed, and in each new situation his new reaction is required. In a training process it is necessary: to allocate the general types of problems solved by the seafarer; to develop methods of their reconstruction and the organization of trainees' activity in educational problems of various type; ability to formulate their decision in a foreign language (fig.2).

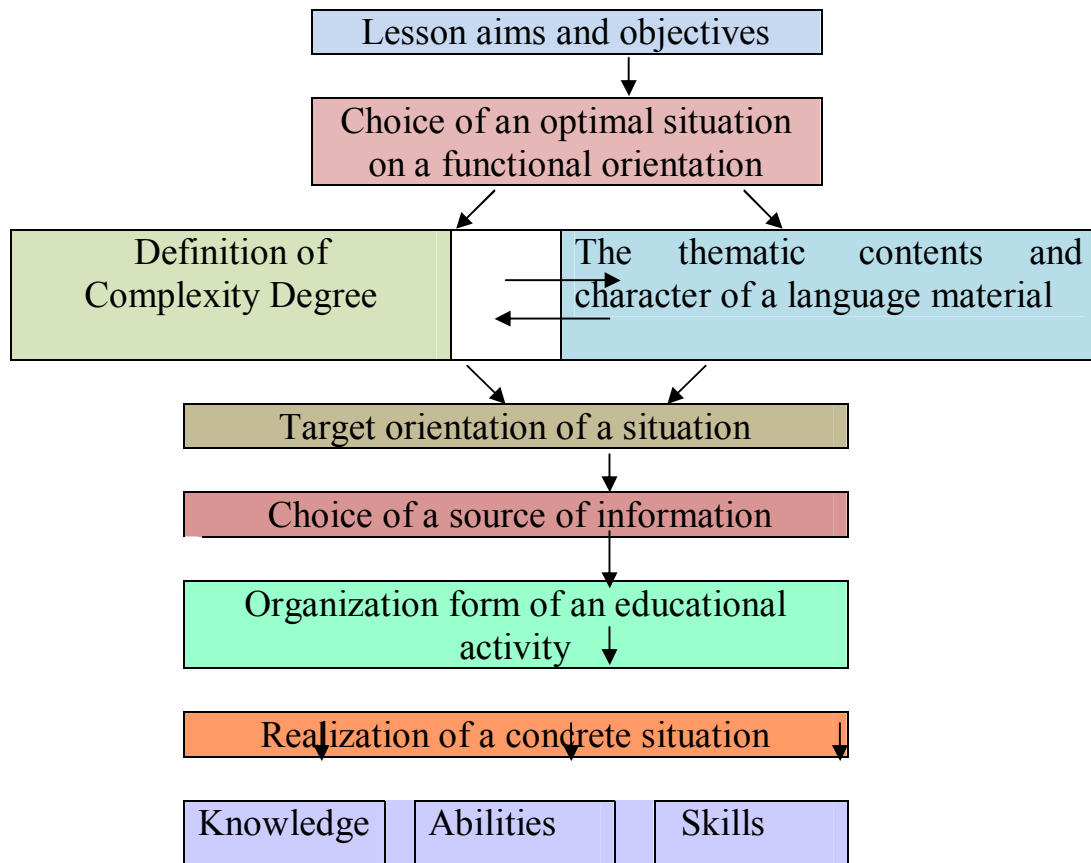


Figure 2. The general model of job-related situations

Advantages of the general model of situations in the training process:

- 1) Brings a variety in ESP (maritime profile) teaching;
- 2) Positively stimulates educational motivation of trainees;
- 3) Creates a friendly atmosphere in the class;
- 4) Gives additional possibilities for realization of more intensive ESP studying;

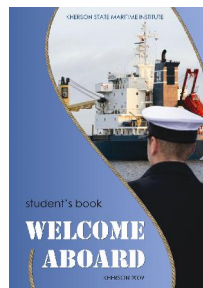
- 5) Increases a professional standard of the seafarer.

The analysis of practical use of models in practice of ESP studying has shown expediency of its application. Modelling of situations of professional work represents itself as one of the important activation means of communication in a foreign language.

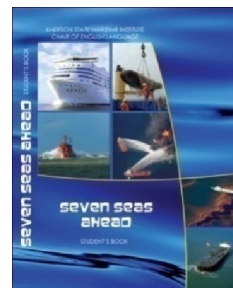
Generic job-related areas and situations with sociocultural component in *Welcome Aboard and Seven Seas Ahead*

The main aim of ESP teaching and learning is to prepare students to communicate effectively in their academic and professional environments. The Curriculum developed by English Language Department of Kherson State Maritime Academy in 2009 proposes that real-life situations should be given priority in the class.

Since 2009 *Welcome Aboard* and *Seven Seas Ahead* have been published.



Welcome Aboard



Seven Seas Ahead

It is not possible to provide a complete list of job-related areas and situations given in these textbooks, as they are too numerous. So, a sample list of them illustrates how language serves various professional needs in *Welcome Aboard* and *Seven Seas Ahead* (tab.2 and 3).

Table 2. List of job-related areas and situations in *Welcome Aboard*

Job-related areas	Job-related situations
1. Applying for a job	Job interview Appointments and meetings (Do's & Don'ts)
2. Nautical education	Lectures Seminars Choosing a profession Student life
3. Types of vessels and cargoes	Exchange information on vessels and their design Exchange information on cargoes and their properties Warning marks

4. Ship construction	Identification of vessel parts Working place General arrangement plan
5. Crew organization and routine operations	Crew roles Establishing contacts/relations Briefings
6. Safety Aboard	Identification of oral commands Safety signs Use of checklist for life-saving appliances

Table 3. List of job-related areas and situations in *Seven Seas Ahead*

Job-related areas	Job-related situations
1. Around the world	Continents and oceans Distances on land and sea Countries and nations Description of a ship's route
2. Emergency & survival at sea	Oral commands in simulated emergency situations Use of life-saving appliances Survival techniques
3. Medical assistance	Identification of injury type Basic reports of the causes of accidents
4. Environmental protection	Potential problems of marine environment Description of pollution avoidance procedures
5. Security at sea	Report of events that occurred during a sea passage Pirates' high spots on the world map Stowaways on board
6. Shipboard training	Cadet's training program Future predictions

Though the sample list provides a variety of job-related areas and situations, it is necessary to choose those which contain sociocultural component and can be used for realization of a sociocultural aim - *developing a broad understanding of important and different international sociocultural issues in order to operate appropriately in culturally diverse professional and academic environments* - in ESP (maritime profile) Curriculum (2005).

The following job-related areas and situations can be used for developing sociocultural competence of future seafarers (tab.4).

Table 4. Sociocultural component in *Welcome Aboard* and *Seven Seas Ahead*

Job-related areas	Job-related situations	Sociocultural component
1. Applying for a job	Job interview Appointments and meetings (Do's & Don'ts)	Negative effect of crew cost variation
2. Nautical education	Lectures Seminars Choosing a profession Student life	Negotiation of a social arrangement that incorporates the wishes of everyone in the group
3. Crew organization and routine operations	Crew roles Establishing contacts/relations Briefings	Understanding of the cultural norms of different nationality groups on board
4. Safety Aboard	Identification of oral commands Safety signs Use of checklist for life-saving appliances	Demonstrating awareness of how sociocultural issues can affect team work and safety at sea
5. Emergency & survival at sea	Oral commands in simulated emergency situations Use of life-saving appliances Survival techniques	Recognition of differences in types of non-verbal communication
6. Around the world	Continents and oceans	Maritime beliefs and

		Distances on land and sea Countries and nations Description of a ship's route	superstitions from different countries
7.	Security at sea	Report of events that occurred during a sea passage Pirates' high spots on the world map Stowaways on board	Pressures that face seafarers in their work and give some advice
8.	Shipboard training	Cadet's training program Future predictions	Expected standards of work and behaviour on board

Thus, sociocultural component presented in textbooks developed by English Language Department of Kherson State Maritime Academy seems to be an integral part of their contents. It aims at developing understanding and interpreting different aspects of culture and language behavior in the world of maritime work.

Conclusion

Sociocultural competence encourages the development of the skills involved in appropriate behavior in and responses to different cultural and professional situations that take place on board the ship. It means that alertness must be stimulated in future marine officers to various unexpected sociocultural differences between their crewmembers and themselves. This is very important because English is in use as a medium of intercultural communication on board between non-speakers from different countries.

It should be mentioned, however, that teaching sociocultural competence in maritime educational institutions is not asking cadets and students to abandon their own cultures and adopt another identity. Instead, it is meant to offer sociocultural information which can help them understand their future multinational crews.

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Discourse Analysis and the Dynamics of Word and Gesture in Robert Browning's 'Andrea Del Sarto'

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Abstract

In this article, the writer uses the techniques of discourse analysis and studies the dynamics of word and gesture in Robert Browning's 'Andrea del Sarto.' The powerful interplay of word and gesture performs an important role in the communion of Andrea del Sarto with Lucrezia. The characters determine the pattern of their words by their attention or lack of it. Supporting and reinforcing the function of words is the unspoken but eloquent language of gesture. The characters invest on the words with the sound and feel of an interior monologue or a soliloquy.

Keywords: Word, Gesture, Robert Browning, Poetry, Andrea del Sarto.

Introduction

The poetry of Robert Browning is sometimes considered as difficult and obscure, probably because he assumed that the reading public shared his enormous erudition, acquired from private tutoring and intensive reading in his father's excellent library. Yet these qualities, along with the psychological insights he displayed, particularly in his dramatic monologues, are what make him seem almost modern to readers today.

Robert Browning is a great poet who stands among the most erudite of English poets. Browning was the son of a well-to-do banker and at the age of twenty two made the "grand tour of Europe, spending much time in Russia and Italy. His first important work, the dramatic poem *Paracelsus* appeared in 1835. In 1855 Browning published *Men and Women*, which contained some of his finest dramatic monologues, including 'Andrea del Sarto.'

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The powerful interplay of word and gesture performs an important role in the extended and at times volatile communion of Andrea del Sarto with Lucrezia, his beautiful but unfaithful wife. It leads us to the meaning of the poem, making us empathetic spectators of the drama unfolding in the depths of the speaker's mind. Though we hear only Andrea's end of the conversation, we remain constantly aware of Lucrezia's verbal and physical responses.

Silently yet decisively, she determines the pattern of his words by her attention or lack of it, her interruptions and disagreements, her approval or annoyance. Supporting and reinforcing the function of words is the unspoken but eloquent language of gesture – the touch of the hands, the nod of the head, a fleeting smile or a certain look. Lucrezia's very presence in the room colors all that Andrea says. The turn of her head, the sweep of her robes against wet paint, her lack of interest in his artistic aims, her restlessness and impatience as she waits for her lover – all combine to elicit from Andrea's varied and complex responses.

Discussion

The sense of an active exchange is marked in the opening and the concluding sections of the dramatic monologue, but in the long middle portion, Andrea tends to speak more to himself than directly to Lucrezia. He is caught reminiscing, justifying and accepting all that he has accomplished or failed to accomplish in his life. The process of soul-searching as Smalley (1956) mentions "distances him from his auditor," (14) reducing the play of the hand and the eye between them and investing the words with the sound and feel of an interior monologue or a soliloquy.

The dynamics of word and gesture render a moment in time into an insightful perception of a life time – its triumph and tragedy, talent and failure, aspiration and achievement. The utterance lasts through an autumn evening but it crowds so much into the twilight hour that at the close, we well exclaim in unison with Andrea,

This hour has been an hour!

The opening words picture the scenario with striking lucidity and precision:

But do not let us quarrel any more,
No, my Lucrezia; bear with me for once....¹
(11. 1-2)

¹ - All citations from the poem are from *Selected Poetry of Robert Browning*. Edited by: Kenneth L. Knickerbocker. (1951). Henceforth, only the line numbers are indicated.

The speech tones are colored by urgent persuasion of the duplicated negative: "But do not," and "No, my Lucrezia." Andrea chooses his words with care but his misgivings are reflected in the implicit suggestion of the phrase "for once." In fact the entire scene communicates a sense of déjà vu and the reader recognizes that the painter and his wife are in the throes of yet another quarrel and reconciliation.

Even in the past Lucrezia has lost her patience with Andrea and compelled him to surrender to her will. Though silent and perhaps still sullen, Lucrezia is mollified by Andrea's conciliatory tone:

Sit down and all shall happen as you wish
(1. 3)

And promptly her averted face comes back in full view. A striking example of how word and gesture combine to create interplay between the characters of the poem is Andrea's immediate question:

You turn your face, but does it bring your heart?
(1. 4)

In the course of the monologue, Andrea as Philip Drew (1970) says: "pitches a number of rhetorical questions" (64) at Lucrezia but most of them are left unanswered or the answers are contained in the questions. Andrea's total capitulation to Lucrezia's pecuniary designs is necessitated by his desire to bring her round:

I will work then for you friend's friend, never fear,
Treat her own subject after his own way,
Fix his own time, accept too his own price....
(11. 5-7)

The repeated use of "his" embodies Andrea's thinly-veiled exasperation and helplessness in the face of compulsion forcing his choice of subject, treatment, time and price of the proposed paintings. The repetition also reflects the nagging sense of defeat and "weariness in the aftermath of the quarrel" (Benjamin Woods, 1930:145).

Andrea's speech in the stressful opening moments is agitated, abrupt and tense. The flow of words begins only after Lucrezia agrees to sit with him at the window, surrendering her hand to him in a gesture of love and harmony. Her response emboldens Andrea to confide in her:

I often am much wearier than you think,
This evening more than usual....
(11. 11-12)

With "This evening," "Here by the window," words are rooted in time and place. The specificity of "This chamber," "This house," "This hour," "this face" and

“tonight” renders the dramatic context in graphic details. The sense of immediacy is so palpable that the reader feels himself to be a part of what is happening.

The sequence of time, however, is more fluid. Quite often words leap the limits of time, linking the present to the time past as well as the time to be. The flow of temporal sequence unravels the essence of Andrea’s personality – the explicit and the hidden, the high and the low, the ideal and the real.

Browning has captured Andrea at a particularly vulnerable moment. At the end of the day and the quarrel, the speaker’s vision is colored by the season and the hour:

A common grayness silver everything,
All in a twilight, you and I alike....

(11. 35-6)

The words mingle the outer and the inner escapes in such a way that the pervasive “grayness” is more than a metaphor; it is a state of being, when Andrea’s “youth,” “hope,” and “art” are so much “toned down” that the prime time of his life, the time of her “first pride” in him, painted in images of contrasting gold, is a distant and painful memory informed by regret and nostalgia.

The quarrel, resulting from their differing perceptions about art, has recharged the existing tensions between them, compelling Andrea to address himself to the basic conflict between his artistic conscience and his love of Lucrezia. Apparently Lucrezia wins yet again, Andrea’s submission to her assumes an enormity he seems to comprehend but chooses to ignore. The moment of speech crystallizes the awesome hold the lady wields over her husband’s life and art. Words also reflect Andrea’s painful awareness of his personal situation and his deliberate choice to live with it. In the words of Roma King (1964): “He comes to see that his failure is at least twofold – both as artist and as lover – and that somehow these two are inseparably related. His initial surrender of his art to Lucrezia is paralleled by a final surrender of Lucrezia to her lover” (12).

Andrea realizes that he can never hope to possess Lucrezia in a way that he wants to but he reaches out to her, holding her hand in his, reviewing his life and speaking with an abandon which is in sharp contrast to the jerky and broken rhythm of the opening words. He seems inclined to lift the barriers and reveal the hidden recesses of his mind. Words flow gently and smoothly as his eyes feast on Lucrezia’s ‘perfect’ beauty and his hands hold her captive. Lucrezia’s flesh and blood reality is most forcefully felt at this point.

Andrea records the changing expressions on her face with the eye of a painter:

So! Keep looking so.

(1. 25)

You smile? Why, there’s my picture ready made.

(1. 33)

The tone of voice is shaded by the painter's delight and pride in her form. He is fascinated by the rounded beauty of her hands and ears:

Your soft hand is a woman of itself,
And mine the man's bared breast she curls inside.

(11. 21-2)

Her hand curling in his symbolizes the union which he desires and has managed to achieve at this moment. The gesture also signifies the assertion of his masculine strength. As his fingers run through her hair, he seems to relish his control over her:

My serpentine beauty, round on rounds!

(1. 26)

The epithet is reminiscent of the serpent as the tempter who led to the Fall of Man and the loss of Eden. Andrea too loses his heaven for the love of a woman whose seductive beauty enslaves him. The eulogy culminates in the hyperbole of his tribute,

My face, my moon, my everybody's moon

(1. 29)

Ironically, the moon image suggests not only beauty but distance and as Newton (1941) mentions: "inconstantly and coldness" (96). The juxtaposition of "my" and "everybody's" moon highlights Andrea's fragile hold over the woman he so possessively calls "my Lucrezia," "my love," and "You beautiful Lucrezia, that are mine." Like the moon in its distant splendor, she is "no one's," not even Andrea's. Moreover, the observation that she is the moon whom "everybody looks on and calls his," implies her promiscuity.

Andrea's glowing account of Lucrezia's "perfect brow" and "perfect eyes, and more than perfect mouth" (1. 123) is shaded by irony because this perfection is unformed by soul. Andrea's awareness of its limitations is mirrored in his regret:

Had you, with these the same, but brought a mind!

(1. 126)

Significantly, the perfection of Lucrezia's beauty resembles the perfection of Andrea's heart: it excels in symmetry and proportion of form but lacks

The play, the insight and the stretch

(1. 116)

But Andrea brushes aside the stirring of regret and willingly accepts his bondage to a woman who is not only unfaithful to him but also exploits him emotionally and materially. His obsession indicates a personal and artistic flaw in his character. The most revealing epithet suggesting surrender and captivity is that of a "snare":

And the low voice my soul hears, as a bird
The fowler's pipe, and follows to the snare...

(11. 124-25)

The metaphor recurs in a later reference to her “hair’s gold,” strengthening the impression that Andrea both welcomes and resents her hold over him. He feels confined but he does not crave freedom from the snare which entangles his soul.

Lucrezia’s smiles speak of the harmony they have salvaged together but she fails to match Andrea’s complete absorption in the present moment when “of one mind,” they look out of the window at the gathering dusk. The monologue captures her restless and distracted movements. In the middle of a sentence, Andrea calls out for attention:

This chamber, for example—turn your head....
(1. 53)

It is apparent that the lady’s attention frequently wanders away from the shadowed room. Andrea is aware of her lack of interest in what is important to him:

You don’t understand
Nor care to understand about my art....
(11. 54-5)

Lucrezia’s disinterestedness is captured in a telling gesture:

You don’t know how the others strive
To paint a little thing like that you smeared
Carelessly passing with your robes afloat....
(11. 73-5)

In his heart Andrea believes that he failed to scale the heights of great art because Lucrezia did not inspire him. On three different points, Andrea holds her responsible for his failure. The pattern of words is repeated in each context:

Had you enjoyed them on me, given me soul....
(1. 118)

Had you, with these the same, but brought a mind!
(1. 126)

Had you not grown restless....
(1. 166)

But in each case, the accusation is withdrawn because of the basic timidity of his character or Lucrezia’s unspoken protest or his own fear of widening the distances between them. A closer scrutiny illustrates this point. The knowledge that he is a skilful but uninspired craftsman while in the works of his contemporaries:

Burns a truer light of God....
(1.79)

haunts Andrea’s mind. He blames his wife for the insight and the power that is missing in his art:

Had you enjoyed them on me, given me soul

We might have risen to Rafael, I and you!
(11. 118-19)

But in the very next line he retreats:

Nay, love, you did give all I asked, I think—
More than I merit, yes, by many times.
(11. 120-21)

The slight hesitation of “I think,” followed by the deliberate assertion of “yes” sketches the modulations in thought and feeling. Andrea’s doubts about his promise as an artist are again voiced in these words:

I might have done it for you. So it seems:
Perhaps not. All is as God over-rules.
(11. 132-33)

It was for Lucrezia that he poured his soul into the finest work of his “kingly days,” the time he remembers as “golden and not gray” (1. 168). The admiration of King Francis and the courtiers inspired him but much more than that was the thought of her motivating him from a distance:

And, best of all, this, this face beyond
(1. 162)

The repetition communicates the intense emotion at work. Holding her face in his hands, he remembers how she called him back:

And had you not grown restless....
(1. 165)

In the next line, however, he brushes aside the tentative reproach:

It’s done and past;
‘twas right, my instinct said....
(1. 167)

Lucrezia summoned him and he obeyed:

I came home to your heart
(1. 172)

The pattern of accusation and its withdrawal culminates in an eloquent gesture:

Let my hand frame your face in your hair’s gold,
You beautiful Lucrezia that are mine!
(11. 175-76)

It was for his “beautiful Lucrezia” that he sacrificed the triumph and the glory which is “Rafael’s daily wear” (1. 152), but he knows that the wife he came back to is not his, has never been his. The irony is that he cannot even confront her with the sad truths of his past and present life.

Each movement of word pattern brings Andrea back to Lucrezia whom we come to see as a “living symbol” (Smalley, 1956:15) of his concern with form, line and

proportion. Even when passive and uncomprehending, she has the power to influence the pace and tone of words. Whenever Andrea turns away from her and looks back on the course of his life, the complexion of his speech changes.

In the middle section of the monologue, the inward movement is so strong that the speech approximates the cadences of a soliloquy. Caught in an internal stream of thought, the speaker's mind mediates upon and rationalizes his choices not so much to his wife as to himself. Though Lucrezia is still present in the room, there is virtually no interplay between the couple. David Shaw (1968) believes that:

(The person Andrea) most wants to persuade, is not Lucrezia but himself. He is only ostensibly trying to defend his art or persuade Lucrezia to remain at home with him. The rhetoric is designed to fail in its apparent aims, so that Andrea may discover new connections between his failures and his marriage. If he can appear mistreated in his own eyes, then he can blame Lucrezia, not simply for abandoning him that evening, but for all his failures, particularly the moral crimes against king Francis and his parents (146).

The realization that Lucrezia is central to his brooding, tragic vision of his life and his art comes to him not in a flash in the course of his utterance but it seems to have grown within him in time (Drew, 1970:65). For Andrea the moment of speech is also the moment to face the truth about himself – a necessity more compelling than the desire to persuade his wife for the gift of an evening. In the process of self-analysis, he arrives at perceptions and insights echoed in vivid images:

The whole seems to fall into a shape,
As if I saw alike my work and self,
And all that I was born to be and do,
A twilight-piece.

(11. 46-9)

Lucrezia's loss of pride in his work is to Andrea the most painful awareness of his failure. The painter refers to it almost casually ("that's gone, you know") giving it the sound of an aside, certainly not an accusation. His

low-pulsed fortnight craftsman's hand

(1. 82)

is unable to create "a fire of souls" (1. 60). The perfection of his technique earns him the distinction of "The Faultless Painter" but it traps and limits him:

I, painting from myself and to myself
Know what I do....

(11. 90-1)

Like his paintings, he is a "twilight – piece," awash in colors symbolizing decline and sterility.

In the entire utterance, words keep coming back to the point from where they take off, making circles within circles and indicating the fixity of Andrea's situation.

I regret little. I would change still less.
Since there my past life lies, why alter it?

(11. 245-46)

Ian Jack (1973) believes: "Andrea sees the truth, with a sad lucidity, from the opening lines. He knows that he is a cuckold and he knows that he is a failure. The fact that Lucrezia remains 'very dear, no less' is due not to magnanimity but to uxoriousness" (229-30). Hence the tragic flaw in Andrea's character is his failure to strike a balance between his love for Lucrezia and his devotion to art. Even he cannot answer the question he addresses to Lucrezia:

Why do I need you?
What wife had Rafael, or has Angelo?

(11. 135-36)

Lucrezia's impassive and disinterested response is particularly evident when Andrea relates to her Michelangelo's praise of his work. In her distraction, Lucrezia forgets who paid the compliment. The painter is quick to react:

What he? Why, who but Michel Angelo?
Do you forget already words like those?

(11. 199-200)

The emphasis on "already" is marked; Lucrezia makes hasty amends with a smile that melts away Andrea's annoyance, encouraging him to strike a bargain with her in an idiom that she well understands:

If you would sit thus by me every night
I should work better, do you comprehend?

(11.205-6)

But Lucrezia is only half reasoning as she waits for the whistle, lingering at the window and peering through the darkness till Andrea draws her back into his ambit:

Come, from the window, love, -- come in, at last,
Inside the melancholy little house
We build to be so gay with.

(11. 211-13)

The pause and breaks, the insistent tone, the underlying irony, the contrast between what they dreamt of and what they found – everything suggests the tense atmosphere within the room.

Andrea comes to see that the woman, for whom he cheated King Francis, neglected his parents and compromised his conscience, is too close to his own self. As Park Honan (1961) mentions: "Her lack of moral fiber reflects Andrea's own lack: her waywardness is equivalent to his own spiritual deficiency. But

Lucrezia is included in Andrea in an even more important sense. She is one of his paintings, come to life” (157).

He accepts her as she is and entreats:

“Let us but love each other.”

In the same breath he asks:

“Must you go?”

(1. 219)

His staccato questions reflect none of the predictable emotions – anger, exasperation, protest horror; on the contrary, Andrea sounds sad but resigned and certainly not shattered. He knows that Lucrezia helps her lover settle his gaming debts with the money she coaxes, browbeats, and charms out of Andrea:

Well, let smiles buy me! Have you more to spend?

.....

I’ll pay my fancy.

(11. 223-26)

All his indulgence of her whims and her lover’s “freak” gains him joy which is transient and fickle and even for that he has to “pay” a price.

His pleas, promises and bribes fail to match the pull of her passion for another man:

Ah, but what does he,

The cousin! What does he to please you more?

(11. 242-43)

Like most other questions, this too remains unanswered or perhaps it is answered in the depth of Andrea’s mind. Langbaum (1957) in *The Poetry of Experience* views: “Cousin as a symbol of Andrea’s failure in his marriage, and in his art. Actually aware of this absent man, Andrea introduces and re-introduces the ‘cousin’ deliberately even using him in the final line as the final excruciating pleasure and to set the seal upon the special kind of victory he wins over Lucrezia in those last four lines” (150).

But Andrea’s “victory” must be tempered by the fact that Lucrezia goes to her lover without any visible sight of guilt. The fact that Andrea himself sends his errant wife into the arms of another man:

Again the Cousin’s whistle! Go, my love

(1. 267)

soon after his declaration:

There is still Lucrezia, - as I Choose”

(1. 266)

completes the ironic circle.

Conclusion

Our last view of Andrea is of a man caught in limbo even as the world of laughter and motion outside the window of his chamber moves on its course. The languid rhythm of his words in the concluding portion brilliantly captures the nuances of his feeling.

As the autumn twilight descends on the small hill town of Fiesole, it becomes a reflection of his inner condition. In the “gray remainder of the evening,” Andrea is essentially alone. His vision of the “New Jerusalem” and its promise of “one more chance” may seem an idle fancy to us but it sustains him.

As he sits within the confines of the four walls of the room, he is besieged with the knowledge that Lucrezia in choosing the passionate and vigorous life beyond the chamber has gone even further away from his reach but he clings to her as an ideal he must strive to achieve “or what’s a heaven for?”

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The Impact of Production Practice – Text Creation and Corrective Feedback on Iranian Students' Control over Grammatical Structures

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Abstract

Various techniques have been recommended in the literature in teaching grammar but there is still debate on how to teach grammar and which technique would be the most effective. Also, an important issue which exists whenever students produce a piece of language is whether or not providing students with corrective feedback can help them improve. The present study used the text-generation technique to teach two grammatical structures, namely gerunds and participle phrases. Meanwhile, corrective feedback was applied to students' produced sentences to see if it can help improve their erroneous sentences. For this purpose, after teaching each structure, students were asked to produce their sentences using the target structures and the teacher provided feedback by indicating that an error exists in the sentence they have written. Running a matched t-test on the students' posttest scores, the researcher found that employing the text-generation technique along with corrective feedback is beneficial in learning the grammatical structures.

Key words: corrective feedback, text-generation technique, Production practice, Grammar

Introduction

Grammar teaching is a controversial issue in the teaching of foreign languages. There has been a number of studies on this subject for at least 40 years (Fotos, 2001). The research on grammar teaching has been centered on the comparison of teaching methodologies and sometimes on the efficacy of techniques in improving the grammar. All throughout the history of teaching methodologies, there have

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been debates on the effectiveness of different ways of teaching grammar.

Significance and justification of the study

A serious problem in grammar teaching is that learners do not seem to master the grammar of a second language even when they get plenty of comprehensible input. Studies indicate that even after enough exposure to the target language, learners continue to make a lot of grammatical errors (Ellis, 1991). This proves the insufficiency of depending on grammar instruction whether explicitly or implicitly to help students internalize the structures and the need for using other techniques to use them to produce language. One such techniques is asking students to produce the structure they have been taught. In second / foreign language learning theory, it has been suggested that giving learners the opportunity for output is just as important as giving them input (Swain, 1985, cited in Celce-Murcia, 2001, p.274). When learners try to use the target language to communicate, they face difficulties in expressing themselves effectively. They may ask their fellow students or their teacher for help or use their textbooks or dictionary to correct their wrong language. Hence, they will focus their attention on the difficult language form and notice to the way it is formed. This favorable result may not be produced by the mere resort to comprehension since students sometimes understand the general meaning of the produced language without fully understanding all the grammar. Furthermore, “when students produce the target language or ask/answer questions about grammar points, they are focusing on form, which assists them in expanding their knowledge of the target language” (Ellis, 1997, cited in Celce-Murcia, 2001, p.273).

Production practice will not be sufficient if students do not receive any feedback on the correctness of their language. When learners receive corrective feedback from the teacher on their erroneous utterances, such error correction can provide "negative evidence" which facilitates their noticing of the correct form. In addition, “error correction can encourage students to build form-meaning relationships and, through self-correction”, to make more accurate output (Swain,

1985, cited in Celce-Murcia, 2001, p.274). In fact, when learners produce output - particularly when the teacher corrects this output by providing feedback- it can then be a new input (Celce-Murcia, 2001, p.274).

The following table presents the grammatical structures selected for the purpose of the present research:

Target structures

Gerunds
1. Gerunds as subject
Example: Traveling might satisfy your desire for new experiences
2. Gerund as direct object
Example: They do not appreciate my assistance
3. Gerund as subject complement
Example: My cat's favorite food is salmon
4. gerund as object of preposition
Example: The police arrested him for speeding
5. Gerund phrase as the subject of the sentence
Example: Being the boss made Jeff feel unhappy
6. Gerund phrase as the direct object of the verb
Example: I hope that you appreciate my offering you this opportunity
7. Gerund phrase as the subject complement
Example: His favorite tactic has been lying to his colleagues
8. Gerund phrase as the object of preposition
Example: You might get into trouble for faking an illness to avoid work
Participles
Participle phrase as an adjective
Example 1: Removing his coat, Jack rushed to the river
Example 2: She noticed her cousin walking along the shoreline
Example 3: Children introduced to music early develop strong intellectual skills
Example 4: Having been a gymnast, Lynn knew the importance of exercise

Review of Literature

A debate in second language pedagogy is whether grammar should be taught. On the one hand, there are those who believe in a "zero position". They maintain that the "teaching of grammar has only a minimal effect on the acquisition of linguistic competence in a second language". On the other hand, there are those who argue for grammar teaching. White (1987) claims that some grammatical forms cannot be acquired on the basis of comprehensible input only and that formal instruction may be needed to insure that learners internalize the target structures (cited in Fotos and Ellis, 1991, p.35).

Traditionally, grammar teaching has been conducted by means of activities that give learners opportunities to produce sentences containing the targeted structure. These activities can consist of mechanical pattern-practice drills of the kind found in the audio-lingual method or situational grammar exercises in which the target structure is contextualized in terms of some real or imaginary situation. The underlying assumption of both types of activity is that having learners produce the structure correctly and repeatedly helps them learn it (Ellis, 1995). The followings are types of grammar practice activities ranged from accuracy to fluency:

1. Awareness
2. Controlled drills
3. Meaningful drills
4. Guided, meaningful practice
5. (Structure-based) free sentence
6. (Structure-based) discourse
7. Free discourse (Ur, 1996: 84).
- composition
- composition

A well-established methodological principle in current grammar teaching is to begin with text-manipulation and then move to text-creation activities. Schmidt (1994) notes that "there is a skill aspect as well as a knowledge aspect to L2 learning. Thus, although production practice may not enable learners to integrate entirely new grammatical structures into their interlanguages, it may help them use partially acquired structures more fluently and more accurately". Studies by Harley (1989), Spada & Lightbown (1993), White, Spada, Lightbown & Ranta (1991) which have included production practice have shown that clear and

sometimes durable gains in knowledge can occur (cited in Ellis,1998).

An interesting question is whether production practice based on text manipulation or on text creation is appropriate to improve learners' control over structures.

Castagnaro (1991) examined the effects of two kinds of production practice on Japanese college students' ability to produce complex noun phrases. A control group was given a picture of a kitchen and was required to label the objects in it. One experimental group took part in a repetition and blank-filling exercise based on the same picture and was required to practice complex noun phrases. The second experimental group was asked to work in pairs to produce their own sentences to describe the various kitchen objects. On the posttest which measured learners' ability to produce complex noun phrases, the participants in the second experimental group outperformed the others. The results of the studies suggest that employing techniques which emphasize production practice in the teaching of grammar would be effective (cited in Ellis, 1998).

The literature also includes enough evidence that feedback can improve learners' gains of grammatical structures. Bitchener & Knoch (2008) maintain that second or foreign language teachers as well as researchers who have done studies in the area of feedback assume that written corrective feedback can help students master the use of target structures.

Feedback shows learners that the language they have produced is incorrect. It helps learners notice the gap between their own erroneous productions and grammatically correct productions.

Ellis (2008) provides a typology of feedback used in second or foreign language classrooms:

- | | |
|--|---------------------------|
| 1. Direct | of error code or brief |
| 2. Indirect (including “indicating
+ locating the error or indicating
only”) | grammatical descriptions) |
| 3. Metalinguistic (including use | 4. Focused or unfocused |
| | 5. Electronic |
| | 6. Reformulation |

There are a number of recent classroom studies which suggest that feedback in the context of communicative activities may promote interlanguage development. The research conducted by Lightbown and Spada (1990) reports that the frequency of students' errors was reduced when they received corrective feedback from the teacher (Ellis, 1998, p.53). Spada (1999) reviewed several studies that provide evidence that corrective feedback is "pragmatically feasible, potentially effective and in some cases necessary" (cited in Schultz, 2001, p.244).

A number of other studies like Chandler, (2000); Ferris (1995), (1997), (2006); Ferris & Helt, (2000) and Ferris et al, (2000) have concluded that written corrective feedback can be effective in improving the accuracy of ESL students. Also, Ashwell, (2000); Bitchener, (2008); Ferris & Robert, (2001) and Sheen, (2006) have reported that in their studies they found a positive effect of written corrective feedback on students' accuracy (cited in Bitchener & Knoch, 2008).

And finally, Russell & Spada (2006) did a meta analysis research on the effect of corrective feedback on L2 grammar learning and the findings of their research showed that corrective feedback can be effective in L2 learning (cited in Takimoto, 2006).

Research question:

Does text creation technique and corrective feedback improve the control over grammatical structures?

Research hypothesis:

Ho: Text creation technique and corrective feedback does not improve the control over grammatical structures.

Methods and Instruments:

Participants

The participants were 33 students enrolled in the grammar course II at the Azad University of Bandar Abbas. They were all in their first year of study and from various age groups.

Data collection instruments

1. A grammar test was used at the outset of the experiment as the pretest.
2. Still another grammar test was used at the end of the experiment as the posttest to see the potential effect of the treatment.

Procedures of the study

This study was operationalized in the following steps:

At the outset of the academic semester, a pretest was given to the participants. The teacher, then, taught the two targeted structures. These two structures were selected for the purpose of this study because students usually experience difficulty in using these structures. The instruction was provided explicitly, that is the teacher first explained the rules and then produced sentences containing the two structures as example.

In the third stage, the teacher had students produce their own sentences using the two structures. They were supposed to write a sentence for each above-mentioned function of the target structures.

In the fourth stage, the teacher provided corrective feedback on the sentences students produced. The type of feedback used by the teacher was indirect, that is the teacher underlined the erroneous sentences or part of the sentences which contained an error. Then, the students were asked to correct their sentences. The procedure was carried out for the whole semester.

Finally, at the end of the experiment, the posttest was given to the participants to see if the treatment consisting of text-generation along with corrective feedback resulted in improved accuracy.

Design of the study

This study employed a pre-experimental method of research with a single- group pretest – posttest design using an intact class.

Data analysis techniques

A matched t-test was used at the end of the experiment to see if the class made any progress in their performance from the pretest to the posttest.

Results

This study was conducted to answer the following question:

“Does text-creation and corrective feedback have any impact on students’ learning of grammatical structures?”

In order to answer the research question, a set of statistical analyses were carried out:

First, descriptive statistics was performed on the students’ pretest and posttest scores. The following table reports the results of the descriptive statistics of the pretest and posttest scores.

1. Descriptive statistics

Tests	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
pretest	33	12.90	2.57
posttest	33	14.69	2.60

As the table shows, the means of the pretest and posttest are almost different. As the mean score of the posttest is higher, we may conclude that the students performed better on the posttest. However, to see if this difference is statistically significant or not, a matched t-test was run on the performance of the group on the two tests. The result is indicated in the table below.

2. Matched t-test

Group	df	Mean	Std Deviation	Mean Difference	t	sig
Experimental	32	12.90 14.69	2.04	1.78	5.02	.000

As the t-ratio (sig = .000) shows, there is a significant difference in the performance of the students on the pretest and posttest. It can be realized that the

group performed better on the posttest.

Conclusion and Discussions

On the basis of the inferential statistics, it can be concluded that the treatment of the study worked. This implies that using text-creation and corrective feedback in grammar classes can help students learn the taught grammatical structures. This study confirmed the results of the previous research on the effectiveness of the text-creation as well as corrective feedback.

However, since pre-experimental designs lack a desirable degree of internal and external validity, the findings of this study should be interpreted cautiously.

Pedagogic Implications and Applications

The results of the present study will be beneficial in all educational centers. It can be of great use for language teachers to quit the traditional ways of teaching language grammar and enjoy the effect of the text creation technique and corrective feedback on students' learning. And in the large scale, language program planners, curriculum developers and syllabus designers will also have better choices to present grammar of English language in language syllabuses.

Limitations and delimitations of the study

The study had the following limitations and delimitations:

1. Only freshmen students of the Azad University of Bandar Abbas participated in the study
2. The study was conducted on participle phrases and gerunds only
3. The experiment lacked a control group

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Developing Faculty Members' Writing Competence in EFL Context of Iran

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Abstract

There have basically been two approaches to writing. One approach considers writing as a product while the other regards it as a process. While the product-based writing is a traditional approach the process-based implies a modern one (Flower and Hayes, 1981). The traditional approach models writing as a finished product – the ‘what’ dimension of writing - whereas the modern approach represents a shift in emphasis to a cyclical or retrieval approach (Kroll, 2001, pp. 220-21). On the same line, academic writing is currently concentrated in EFL contexts where researchers and experts in various fields need to introduce their findings in international academic journals and conferences. The main objective is to enable the participants to write down their ideas so as to communicate by well-formed academic papers. In the present study, we tried to offer a new framework to develop the learners' writing competence through making use of both atomic and global techniques of fostering L2 skills. The findings suggest that writing process is primarily dynamic, and it also takes place in recycling periods rather than linear tasks. This is the reason why the role of time-dimension is assumed essential in the functioning of the pushed-out writing tasks focused in this paper. Although not directly aimed at analyzing the temporal dimension of writing, the present research can demonstrate the function of the dynamic character of academic writing, especially regarding the perception and production aspects. In conclusion, the results of the present work indicate how effectively an interactive process-based approach to writing might facilitate the editing process, and, at the same time, promote EFL academic writing development.

Keywords: Process Writing, Product Writing, Pushed-Out Tasks, Writing Competence

Introduction

Current trends of learning English including general academic writing have focused on the role of interaction for the last few decades. Krashen's monitor model of second language acquisition (1977, 1978, 1981, 1982, 1983, 1985), for instance, emphasizes the importance of comprehensible input and Berko-Gleason's interaction hypothesis attracts the attention to the key role of discourse

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in the process of second language acquisition. On the same line, Hatch (1978) stressed the need to study the nature of the input given to L2 learners and its possible role in second language acquisition as well as interactive and discursive characteristics of conversations between non-native speakers. Within this framework, the interaction hypothesis (Berko-Gleason, 1982), which claims that negotiated communication can promote acquisition, combines arguments about the key role of comprehension of input- Krashen's input hypothesis (1980, 1985)- with the discursive and conversational aspects of L2 learning (Hatch). The term 'negotiation' refers to the modification and information restructuring learners' writing output. It usually takes place when the learners and their interlocutors experience difficulty in understanding writing messages. In the course of negotiation, interlocutors communicate to arrive at message comprehension using resources such as hypotheses confirmation, hypotheses modification, clarification request, confirmation request, comprehension checks, and so forth. Long (1981, 1983) believes that these modifications and clarifications processes provide the learners with comprehensible input, which is necessary for acquisition. Thus, negotiation is argued to promote acquisition as it helps learners understand words and structures slightly beyond their present linguistic and communicative competence.

Negotiation and Grammar Acquisition in EFL Context

Research reports indicate extensive evidence of the benefits of negotiated interaction on the acquisition of certain grammatical aspects of the L2 (Long, Inagaki, and Ortega, 1998; Mackey, 1995, 1997, 1999; Mackey and Philip, 1998). Central to all of these studies, interesting enough, may be the function of input in L2 acquisition. A major problem with comprehension as a source of input for analysis is that the speech signal fades so quickly; ... "in comprehension, the L2 learner's performance is paced: he or she cannot stop the input periodically to write it more effectively" (Clark 1982). Therefore, it does not seem reasonable to assume that the second language learner can somehow apprehend the fast-fading message produced by someone else, figure out what it means and how it is put together, and then relate it to similar utterances he has heard. As a result, it is argued that there are serious problems with the assumption that authentic input can be analyzed by the learner on-line, that is, during the comprehension process itself. In fact, in second language learning research the output hypothesis proposes that comprehensible input may not be sufficient for certain aspects of L2 acquisition and that comprehensible output may be needed (Swain 1985, 1995).

Negotiation and Developing Writing Competence in EFL Context

Input and output modules of the writing system, responsible for perceiving and combining words, phrases, clauses, sentences and paragraphs to create academic papers appear to be learned both implicitly, explicitly, atomically and globally. Previous literature shows that typical negotiations of meanings do not focus on

aspects that are unnecessary for comprehension but rather on key elements whose misinterpretation could impair or inhibit communicative writing, and that elaborative attention to the writing's formal and semantic features is conducive to its retention (Ellis 1995). Pica (1994) reported that negotiated interaction facilitates lexical learning and Long (1996) claimed that feedback obtained in negotiation process is facilitative of L2 development, at least for vocabulary, morphology, language-specific syntax and academic writing. Likewise, Mackey et al. (2000) noted that when phonological and lexical feedback are provided in negotiated interaction, learners are more likely to perceive it correctly. In a slightly different report, Ellis (1995) postulates that negotiation may facilitate vocabulary acquisition by inducing learners to notice unknown segments and supra-segments in the input, that is, linguistic fractures that they need in order to understand and create academic writing messages.

Pushed Output

Throughout the literature of L2 acquisition there has been a distinction between passive and active tasks performed by L2 learners; acquiring the latter is believed a more complex task than acquiring the former. Furthermore, it is argued that the lack of certain 'pushing' exercises and tasks - that elicit the new language skills taught- prevent learners from incorporating the passive linguistic units into free production as a unified piece of academic writing. As Laufer (1998) claims if the learners are not pushed to use the new discorsal system, they may never be activated and therefore only remain in passive bottom-up level. Several aspects of pushed output model should be noted. First, in the process of speech production, conceptualizing the meaning of an intended message precedes articulation. Second, before production, the learner needs to formulate the message through an appropriate linguistic form. Third, the speech comprehension system is an integral part of the production model. Finally, it should be noted that the comprehension system is not limited to taking fully articulated, but may also take internal speech as input. Internal speech is the not-yet-articulated phonetic plan which is the output of formulation and the input to articulation and writing.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

The present study investigates the effects of different oral interactive techniques on comprehension, receptive acquisition, and productive use of free academic writing in L2 setting. The research questions and hypotheses are as follows.

1. Does negotiated interaction benefit the production of academic English writing?

Hypothesis 1. Learners exposed to input (new academic writing) in the process of negotiated interaction will attain higher levels of input production.

2. What is the effect of interactive activities on acquisition of general receptive writing mechanisms?

Hypothesis 2. learners exposed to input in the process of negotiated interaction will attain higher levels of L2 receptive writing abilities than learners exposed to non-negotiated premodified input.

3. What is the effect of interactive tasks on L2 productive writing system?

Hypothesis 3. learners exposed to input in the process of negotiated interaction with pushed output will attain higher levels of L2 productive writing abilities than learners exposed to non-negotiated, premodified input without pushed output.

Method of the Study

Participants: A total of 24 Iranian faculty members participated in the study. Participants, whose native language was Persian, were lecturers of agriculture, basic sciences, and fishery Departments at Guilan University. They belonged to two intact classes of post-intermediate English in the academic language program, and all of them received approximately 100 hours of formal exposure to the L2. They were randomly assigned to one of the two control and experimental groups: non-negotiated premodified writing input; and negotiation of input plus writing output. All participants completed the first stage of the study, but only 22 completed all post-tests.

Procedures

Each group was exposed to two academic-writing production tasks carried out in two sessions of about 30 minutes each. Both of the writing tasks centered on a related EST context by a native speaker's production. In the process of exposure, the participants in the experimental group received modified input before the writing task, engaged in oral interactions in pairs and in groups, and also pushed to free productive use of the new general writing system. The purpose of the premodified task was to expose the participants to the basic meaning of the target linguistic units through different activities such as definition, explanation, paraphrasing, synonyms, antonyms, contextualization, etc. In the pushed-input phase, the instructor makes use of elicitation techniques like question-answer, guessing games, role playing, problem solving, and open-ended tasks. In the control group, the students were exposed to the same writing tasks without going through the pre-modified and pushed-output stages, yet they engaged in some forms of communication and interaction after the writing tasks.

Testing Instruments

Three kinds of post-treatment tests were administered to measure the effects of the treatment. The purpose of the first one, a combination-task test, was to measure the learners' comprehension of the new general writing to which they were exposed in perception tasks. The second measurement which was an academic writing test was used to specify the learners' receptive knowledge of new writing mechanisms. The last one was an open-ended test which required students to use the newly learned writing skills productively. It should be noted that productive knowledge of academic writing was tested first and receptive knowledge later in order to avoid a test effect.

Data Analysis

To test the three formulated hypotheses, a directional one-tailed null hypothesis was set at 0.10 level of significance. The t-value necessary to reject the null hypotheses in order to find support for the positive, directional hypotheses is 1.36.

Results and Discussion

As tables one and two illustrate, the first research hypothesis cannot be supported through the observed results. So, comprehension and production of general academic writing is not affected significantly through pre-modified negotiated interactions.

Comprehension Analysis

Scheffe			
Leve Andv Groupl	N	Subset for alpha = .05	
		1	2
Intermediate G1	12		

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

- a. Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 12.000.

Table 1

Output Analysis

Scheffe

Level and Group	N	Subset for alpha = .05	
		1	2
Intermediate G1	12		
Intermediate G2	12		89.9460 98.2100

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

a. Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 12.000.

Table 2

The results also show no significant difference between the two groups regarding the second hypothesis (tables 3 and 4). Although the subjects in the experimental group could perform much better than the control group on the related receptive post-treatment tests, the null hypothesis cannot be rejected.

Receptive Writing Mechanism

Scheffe

Level and Groups	N	Subset for alpha = .05	
		1	2
Intermediate G1	12		
Intermediate G2	12		94.3750 98.4375

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

a. Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 12.000.

Table 3

Receptive Communicative Skills

Scheffe

Level and Groups	N	Subset for alpha = .05	
		1	2
Intermediate G1	12		55.2030
Intermediate G2	12		66.0320

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

a. Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 12.000.

Table 4

However, conditions are different concerning the third hypothesis- the effect of pushed output on the learners' productive abilities of L2 academic writing use. On the open-ended production measurements, the subjects in the experimental group did significantly better than the other group (table 3). In fact, the L2 learners' productive acquisition of academic writing was greater when they had the opportunities to negotiate and produce the target writing than when they were exposed to pre-modified input. Unlike the findings for writing at comprehension and receptive levels, production of target academic writing during negotiation did appear to have an effect on learners' productive acquisition when compared to non-production of these skills during negotiation.

Pushed Output Analysis

Scheffe

Leve and Groups	N	Subset for alpha = .05	
		1	2
Intermediate G1	12	35.3125	
Intermediate G2	12		76.8750
Sig.		1.000	1.000

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

a. Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 12.000.

Conclusion

Academic paper writing is currently concentrated in EFL contexts where researchers and experts in various fields need to introduce their findings in international science journals and conferences. The main objective is to enable the participants to write down their ideas so as to communicate by well-formed English academic papers. In the present study, we tried to offer a new paradigm to develop the learners' writing competence through making use of both atomic and global techniques of fostering L2 skills. Writing process, we believe, is dynamic, and it also takes place in recycling periods. This is the reason why the time dimension is essential in the functioning of the pushed-out task investigated in this study. Although not directly aimed at analyzing the temporal dimension of writing, our findings can be interpreted as a function of the dynamic character of academic writing, especially regarding the perception and production levels. In addition, our new paradigm for developing L2 writing competence of Iranian faculty members has yielded new insights into the nature of cognitive processes of negotiated interaction while writing academic papers.

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On the Effectiveness of Jigsaw Technique on Reading Comprehension Ability

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Abstract

Cooperative learning refers to a method of teaching in which students are organized in groups of 2 to 6 in that they can work together to obtain a common goal. In a cooperative environment one's success is directly related to the success of other members of the classroom because the focus on the individual shifts towards the group. To test the effectiveness of the method, using Jigsaw technique, a study was conducted to find out how it can improve reading comprehension ability of first year students of Chabahar Maritime University. Administering a Nelson English Language Proficiency test, two homogenous groups of students were selected. After that, as a pretest, a Michigan reading comprehension test was administered to ensure students' reading comprehension ability prior to the study. The first group received instruction using Jigsaw technique and the second one was taught using traditional teacher-fronted method toward teaching Reading Comprehension. Finally, a Michigan Reading comprehension test was administered as the posttest and the results were analyzed by means of Spss software. The mean score of the control group on the posttest was 15.23 while that of the experimental group was 18.03. The mean difference of the two groups, was 2.80 and since the p value was $p=.000 < p=.05$, it can be concluded that the experimental group has performed significantly different from the control group on the posttest. As a conclusion, it was found that Jigsaw technique was effective for teaching reading comprehension ability of first year students of Chabahar Maritime University.

Key words: Cooperative Learning, Jigsaw technique, Reading Comprehension, Information gap, Gender, Zone of Proximal Development, Scaffolding

Background

Experience suggests that in Iran not only Universities but also different kind of schools follow the traditional instruction of English Language Skills. In the

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traditional method of teaching reading comprehension, the teacher manages the class from the beginning to the end. He/she introduces the book and the procedure of the presentation of the course. Then the teacher presents new words, comments, grammatical structures, and other important points and after that, students are asked to answer the proposed questions by the teacher. In such a situation, students are constantly competing with each other to get ahead of other classmates. Moreover, those students who cannot answer the questions gradually become frustrated. Knowing about these negative points of competitive and individualistic way of teaching, there should be a change in the way of teaching language skills. As [Nunan \(2001\)](#) puts it:

“.... Our greatest challenge now is not to throw out well-established practice, as so often happen in the past, but to incorporate new ways of doing things into existing practice. In this sense, change will be evolutionary rather than revolutionary p. 69”.

Many researchers in the teaching profession have cited the importance of cooperative learning. However, within the last decades, a remarkable change in the teachers' viewpoint has happened. Some of them have started to change their viewpoint toward language teaching methodology in a way to promote group work in their classrooms. They have come to the point that in a cooperative learning situation when students interact with each other to get out of a problematic situation of learning or doing a task it seems more authentic. Therefore, they become interested and continue the process of learning. [Edward Anthony 1963, cited in Richards and Rodgers, 1986](#)) proposed a three parts category for language teaching methodology. He gave some definitions for the concepts of approach, method, and technique. He defined an approach as a set of assumptions dealing with the nature of language, learning, and teaching. Then he went through the concept of the method as “an overall plan for systematic presentation of language based upon a selected approach. Finally, he defined technique as a specific activity manifested in the classroom that was consistent with a method and therefore was in harmony with an approach as well. Later, in the process of development of language teaching methodology, [Richards and Rodgers \(1986\)](#) have organized and reformulate another classification. They proposed another three-step classification including approach, design, and procedure. They considered a Method as an umbrella term for the just mentioned three-step classification. Further, they defined approach as assumptions, beliefs, and theories about the nature of language and language learning. Designs then specify the relationship of those theories to classroom materials and activities. Finally, Procedures are the techniques and practices that are derived from one's approach and design.

[Howatt \(1984\)](#) maintained that almost all current issues of language teaching and learning have roots in traditional ways of teaching and learning. As far as teaching

methodology is concerned, in this part of the introduction it is intended to present a short review of the field to see the progress from the very basic aspects of language teaching to the most current ones.

As [Richards and Rodgers \(1986\)](#) put it:

“A glance through the past century or so of language teaching will give an interesting picture of how varied the interpretations have been of the best way to teach a foreign language. As disciplinary schools of thought psychology, linguistics, and education, for example have come and gone, so have language-teaching methods waxed and waned in popularity. Teaching methods, as "approaches in action," are of course the practical application of theoretical findings and positions. In a field such as ours that is relatively young, it should come as no surprise to discover a wide variety of these applications over the last hundred years, some in total philosophical opposition to others (p.16).”

Investigating the history of language teaching methodology, a need for more academic studies on language teaching methodology was felt. Throughout the following parts, all aspects of the study are to be investigated.

Recently, with the growth of the people's knowledge level in Iran, increase in the number of different universities, and specifically increase in the quantity as well as the quality of English institutions, people have started to develop different skills of English such as speaking, listening, writing, and importantly reading. The phrase importantly reading implies that nowadays with the growth of globalization and the incredible numbers of articles in English all over the world, we all have to master the skill of reading comprehension to understand academically what is going on in the other parts of the world. To do that, different courses are added to the current syllabi of different universities to make up the lack of this important skill of English. The interesting aspect of the problem is that, although the majority of universities are presenting different courses to enhance the student's reading comprehension ability, the lack of mastery in this ability is observable through attending these classes. Knowing about the problem, it is intended to consider the effect of cooperative learning using Jigsaw technique on the reading comprehension ability of first year students of Chabahar Maritime University and to see differences between the traditional teacher-fronted method of teaching reading comprehension and the Cooperative one and find a way to help them develop this vital skill. Moreover, this study was about to see differences between male and female with regard to the engagement in the Cooperative Learning situation.

Significance of the study

As [Slavin, \(1982\)](#) asserts One of the most important principles of educational psychology is that teachers cannot simply give students knowledge. Many studies have been done to see how it is possible for teachers to deal with the problem of rendering knowledge and skills to their students. Recently many researchers have used cooperative learning methods and techniques to promote learning within their students. In language teaching methodology, teachers have been using traditional methods to teach language skills. Reading comprehension, as one of important language skills, has been under investigation by many scholars. They wanted to investigate the difference between traditional teacher-fronted methods of teaching reading comprehension and the Cooperative one. One of the outstanding techniques of cooperative learning through which many scholars have gone to see its effectiveness on reading comprehension ability is Jigsaw technique. In many studies, it has been proven useful in teaching Language skills. However, generally the present research will differ from the previous mentioned ones in two ways. First, the majority of these studies have focused on the cooperative learning and Jigsaw technique together with other aspects, such as motivation, attitude, and academic achievement while, the present study was about to investigate the effect of gender as well. The next one refers to the type of subjects. They mainly did their research on students attending Elementary and Secondary schools, EFL in-service teachers, and College students, whereas the present study mainly concentrates on the first year students of Chabahar Maritime University.

Research Questions

This study, based on an experiment, is seeking to find answers to the following questions:

- 1- Can Jigsaw technique enhance students' reading comprehension ability?
- 2- Is Cooperative Learning method applicable in Iran?

Review of the related literature

The theoretical base of the present study is based on the well-known theory of learning called Constructivist theory. As [Slavin \(2006\)](#) asserts One of the most important principles of educational psychology is that teachers cannot simply give students knowledge. He continues that learners must construct knowledge in their own minds and teachers have just the duty of facilitators. This theory views learners as working in cooperative and student-centered classrooms. In addition, the scope of cooperative learning as stated by [Schmuck and Schmuck \(1997\)](#) is built upon the belief that cooperative learning is applicable to both academic excellence and affective development of people. [Johnson and Johnson \(1990\)](#) maintain that the learning environment of all classrooms around the world

generally fits into three social categories the first of which is competitive, the second one is individualistic, and the last one is cooperative. As the name implies, in the competitive classrooms just one clever student can stand at the top point of the classroom. Therefore, they are constantly finding a way to get ahead of one another. In the individualistic classrooms on the other hand, everybody's success depends directly on his/her own actions and there is no link to other's actions. Therefore, there may be one to even more students at the top point of a classroom. At last, in a cooperative environment one's success is directly related to the success of other members of the classroom because the focus on the individual has shifted towards the group.

Moreover, [Johnson and Johnson \(2008\)](#) state:

“In the mid-1960s, Cultural resistance to cooperative learning was based on social Darwinism, with its premise that students must be taught to survive in a "dog-eat-dog" world, and the myth of "ragged individualism" underlying the use of individualistic learning. While competition dominated educational thought, it was being challenged by individualistic learning. ... Cooperative learning is now an accepted and often the preferred instructional procedure at all levels of education. Cooperative learning is presently used in schools and universities in every part of the world, in every subject area, and with every age student (2008, p. 1).”

Based on what was presented on the side of Johnson and Johnson, it should be mentioned that in situations other than cooperative learning learners are more dependent on the teacher than peers. They consider the teacher as the perfect and the only source of learning. In these classrooms teachers are the best model for students to learn from him. However, within the last decades, a remarkable change in the teachers' viewpoint has happened. Some of them started to promote group work in their classrooms. They have come to the point that in a cooperative learning situation when students interact with each other to get out of a problematic situation of learning or doing a task it seems more authentic to them. Therefore they become interested and continue the process of learning. In the same line, [McDonough & Shaw \(2003:194 cited in Tamah, 2011\)](#) maintains:

“Managing classes so that learners 'work in pairs' or 'divide into groups' is now so much part of the everyday practice of large numbers of English language teachers that the instructions leading to these activities sometimes seem to be 'switched on' automatically, occasionally with a frequency difficult to justify. It happens in all kinds of

content - dialogue practice, sharing opinions, reading aloud, comparing answers to questions, doing grammar drills, formulating questions in an information-gap task (p. 2).”

Moreover, The importance of cooperative learning has been cited by many researchers including [Johnson and Johnson \(1989\)](#). They conducted a study in that they considered 122 studies from 1924 to 1989 to see the differences among the three just mentioned types of learning, Competitive, Individualistic, and Cooperative learning.

Their data as cited in [My \(1996\)](#) suggests:

1. “Students achieve more in cooperative learning than in competitive or individualistic interaction and the results hold for several subject areas and a range of age groups from elementary school age through adult ([Johnson, 1980](#)).
2. Students are more positive about school, subject areas and teachers or professors when they are structured to work cooperatively ([Johnson & Johnson, 1975, cited in Johnson and Johnson, 1989](#)).
3. Students are more positive about each other when they learn cooperatively than when they learn alone, competitively or individualistically; regardless of differences in ability, and ethnic background, and whether they are handicapped or not ([Johnson & Johnson, 1975, 1981, cited in Johnson and Johnson, 1989](#)).
4. Students are more interpersonally effective as a result of working cooperatively than when they work alone, competitively or individualistically. Students with cooperative experience are more able to take the perspective of others, are more positive about taking part in controversy, have better-developed interaction skills, and have a more positive expectation about working with others than students from competitive or individualistic settings ([Johnson & Johnson, 1975, 1978; Johnson, 1980, cited in Johnson and Johnson, 1989](#))”

As the results of their study revealed, one more time the importance of cooperative learning has become known to the field.

Considering the short background presented in the last part, throughout the following section, it is intended to go through learning in general and cooperative learning in particular to see what are the basic point of such a doctrine.

Learning

For many years, the concept of learning has been a major concern for most psychologists and educators. Longman Dictionary of Teaching and Applied Linguistics defines Learning as “the process by which change in behavior, knowledge, skills, etc., comes about through practice, instruction or experience and the result of such a process (Richards and Rogers, 1986). Before facing such a definition one may simply consider the question “what is learning?” as a simple one. However, the time he speculates over the question he will come to the complexity of it. Driscoll (2000) defines learning as a change in an individual caused by experience. Of course, some physical changes like growing taller are not kind of learning. Slavin (ibid) considers learning to happen in many ways. He continues to mention two types of learning the first of which is intentional and the other one is unintentional learning. The former is situation in which one learns through paying direct attention to what is going on and the latter refers to the times one learns without being conscious about the process. As with other areas of knowledge, learning theories has passed through some changes. Some of them had a greater effect on educational system and practice than the others, and they have influenced the approaches and methods of language teaching. As a short result of the just mentioned points, it is of high priority to know and internalize the relationship between these theories and the impact of each one on the rest. Knowing the relationship between and among those theories, one can easily figure out his contribution to language teaching. These are all to be explained in details in the form of three successive doctrines of learning starting with Behaviorism and ending with Constructivism.

Different Aspects of Cooperative Learning

For one to have a cooperative learning situation in which learners are able to cooperate with one another and learn many things, it is of high of importance to consider the following aspects of Cooperative learning. We investigate these aspects on the side of Hasaskhah (2005). She considers five factors to be worth of discussing. In addition, she mentioned that these aspects vary from one author to another. However, nearly all agree with the aspects in the following part.

As far as the topic of the present thesis is concerned, these factors are vital to know about in the process of implementation of the project.

Positive Interdependence

Positive interdependence refers to the relationship among learners in groups. All learners should have something to contribute to other members of the group to

achieve the set goal unless they get nowhere. [Hasaskhah \(ibid\)](#) has summarized four ways to promote positive interdependence among members of groups.

First, giving more work than any other member of the group. Second, dividing the members by two and assigning different information for each two. The next way to promote Positive interdependence is assigning each member of the group a role to perform. For example, assign them as a leader, recorder, checker, or encourager. Finally, the grade considered for the group's performance can be a good means to foster Positive interdependence in a group. It means, if one member of the group does not understand the task, the assessment score of other group members will suffer.

Face-to-Face Promotive Interaction

The other needed factor in cooperative learning is Face-to-Face Promotive Interaction. This happens when learners encourage each other, reward one another, and provide assistance to help each other learn. The Face-to-Face Promotive Interaction may be accomplished by trusting and caring relationships formed within each group as they interact. In situations that some learners try to impose their knowledge, and self-esteem on other learners positive interaction does not happen.

Individual Accountability

The third important factor of cooperative learning is individual accountability by which it is meant that learners must consider themselves as responsible for understanding the course content. To test this, teachers usually propose some questions or plan some quizzes. In addition, there are times when some learners try to exclude themselves from doing the activities. In these situations, all group members should be asked to record the process and let the teacher know how everybody is performing within the group. This helps the teacher to find the cheater.

Social Collaborative Skills

Some teachers with low experience of teaching think that all learners have the same ability with regard to their social skills. Some of them are not good in working with others in groups. They may distrust others, or even feel uncomfortable working with minority learners. Others may prefer just to listen rather than participate in groups' activities. However, the cooperative learning environment is a good and useful situation in which learners have the opportunity to grow the needed social skills. Teachers can help them master these skills by encouraging them to engage themselves in effective social interactive activities. Later, Johnson and Johnson (1989) presented the results of a research in that they found that the combination of positive interdependence and the use of effective social skills promotes highest achievement among learners.

Group Processing Skills

Finally, the last aspect of cooperative learning is Group Processing Skills through which [Hsaskhah \(2005\)](#) goes in this way: “group’s self-evaluation of each member’s contribution.” Other’s contributions can help or even hinder the achievement process. In addition, it also consists of an analysis of improvement that could be made to help the group function effectively in the future.

Group processing occurs when the instructor provides feedback to the class based on observations of individual learners contributions. This helps them to learn how to criticize peers effectively.

Different Methods of cooperative Learning

[Kagan \(1992\)](#) has reported that there are over fifty forms of cooperative learning (cited in [Hasaskhah, ibid, p. 98](#)). Each of which has its own application toward education depending upon the characteristics of learners and the nature of learners population. Moreover, each teacher based on the context should decide with the method to use. Here, as with [Hasaskhah](#), the researcher investigates these methods in the order of more teacher-centered to the least teacher-centered. It should be mentioned that the order and the content are extract from [Hasaskhah \(2005\)](#) by her kind permission.

The Structural Approach

As [Kagan \(1989\)](#) puts it the structural approach uses a content-free ways of managing classroom interaction called structures. This approach emphasizes the use of particular structures design to influence students’ interaction patterns ([Agung Dwi Nurcahyo, 2009](#)). He also asserts that the structures developed by [Kagan](#) are intended to be alternatives to the more traditional classrooms structures, such as recitation, in which the teacher poses questions to the whole class and they provide answers after raising the hands. [Kagan’s](#) structures asked students to work in small groups. An example of this method is Numbered Heads Together by [Kagan \(ibid\)](#) in that learners number off within teams then the teacher poses a question and after that, they put their heads together to make sure that all of them know the answer. Finally, the teacher calls a number randomly and the chosen learners with that number answer the question and earn points for their teams.

Group Investigation

Group investigation is perhaps the most complex of the cooperative learning approaches and the most difficult to implement ([Agung Dwi Nurcahyo, 2009](#)). Teacher who use the group investigation approach normally divide their classes into five or six member heterogeneous groups. They are given great freedom in determining how to organize their terms, conduct the research, and present their ideas to the class. Moreover, In contrast to STAD and Jigsaw, the group investigation approach involves students in planning about the topics for study and the way to proceed with their investigation. This required more

sophisticated classroom norms and structures than do approaches that are more teacher-centered.

Student Teams Achievement Division

Throughout this method, students are working in heterogeneous groups based on prior achievement, sex, race, language background, and other factors set by the teacher. Then they receive information via lectures, films, reading, and so on, and then receive a worksheet to complete in teams of four. The intended worksheet may contain problem to solve. The time all of them agreed on the completion of the task, they call the teacher over.

Jigsaw

Being the key point of the present thesis, Jigsaw technique is cooperative means of teaching in that each member of the team is assigned a different mini topic, as Hasaskhah (ibid) puts it, then each of them meets the expert group to master the set part. Then, the member will come back to the home group from which he has been gone. As an expert, he teaches the part to other members of the home group. Later, in the following parts, in more details it would be investigated.

Constructive Controversy

Throughout this cooperative method, learners are organized in pairs, and then pairs within a four-person team are assigned different sides of an issue. Each one researches one aspect of the topic. The two pairs discuss the topic, not to win a debate but to adduce as much information on the topic as possible. At last, pairs switch sides and develop arguments for the opposite side of the same issue.

Student Team Learning

This method of cooperative learning encompasses the Jigsaw method and its variations and the Student Team Achievement Divisions (STAD) method. Jigsaw has five major components such as reading, expert group discussion, team report, testing, and team recognition. Moreover, STAD is organized around the components of teacher presentation, team study, individual quizzes, individual improvement, and team recognition. The main difference between the two methods refers to the kind of material they are used to present. The former is appropriate for presenting material in a narrative way while the latter is suitable for material that require single correct answer such as language rules.

Learning Together

The last cooperative method, Learning Together, is organized by the viewpoints received from the five essential aspects of cooperative learning mentioned just above including, Positive Interdependence, Face-to-Face Promotive Interaction, Individual Accountability, Social Collaborative Skills, and finally, Group

Processing Skills that are explained in details just above. As [Johnson and Johnson \(1998\)](#) maintain:

“... the main differences between the Learning Together and other cooperative learning models is that this model is less discrete and less prescriptive than the Structural and the Student Team Learning models that employ specific steps in lesson planning and somewhat “prepackaged curricula, lessons, and strategies in a prescribed manner. Rather, the Learning together model provides a conceptual framework for teachers to plan and tailor cooperative learning instruction according to their circumstances, student needs, and school contexts (p. 226, cited in [Hasaskhah, 2005, p 103](#))”

Hasaskhah (ibid) maintains that teachers and educators may the above-mentioned models with each other. She continues that it is possible to modify the techniques for different student populations and academic disciplines.

Method

In order to investigate the three research questions, the research was carried out using a quasi-experimental design because it was not possible to randomly assign students to their groups.

TABLE 1. METHOD AND MATERIALS

Group A (Control group)	Traditional Teacher-Fronted instruction	None	Quizzes, mid-term, and final term examination the general English proficiency test (Michigan Reading Comprehension test)
Group B (Experimental Group)	(Cooperative Learning) Jigsaw Technique	Grouping by the Teacher’s decision and the classroom	Quizzes, mid-term, and final term examination the general English proficiency test (Michigan Reading Comprehension test)

The researcher himself taught the two groups including a control group of 30 subjects as well as an experimental group of 30 subjects attending the study. The situation was under close consideration for the students to receive the same teaching materials, homework, and assignments during this study. The control group was taught using the traditional teacher-fronted Method toward reading comprehension. On the other hand, the experimental group used a Cooperative method and specifically Jigsaw technique in teaching reading skill. This study was planned for each session to last for one and half an hour within sixteen weeks. Finally, administering the post-tests, outcomes were compared with those of the

pretests. Then the quantitative analysis was performed using SPSS software to give the results of the study. Throughout the present study, it was set to investigate the effect of Cooperative learning using Jigsaw technique on the students' reading comprehension ability, the usefulness of Cooperative learning on male and female subjects, and finally the learning context of Universities of Iran with different kind of students from different cultural background including, Fars, Baluch, Lore, Tork, Arab, Gilaki, and etc.

Participants

The subjects who were taken in consideration throughout the research were a sample of 60 female and male students studying a course in general English at Chabahar Maritime University. There were one experimental and one control group each including 30 subjects. They all were the researcher's students studying English as a foreign Language. In order for the results to be more reliable, the researcher tried not to allow students know about the study, because it is believed that if students are aware of the purpose of the study in their class, the results may be negatively or positively influenced. The students of this study were tested to determine the level of their language proficiency using a [Nelson Language proficiency Test \(1976\)](#), test 450 part C (see appendix), which is claimed to be standard with regard to the portion of its reliability. By chance, the two selected classes consisted of almost students of the same language proficiency level.

Materials

The textbooks covered throughout the research were developing reading skills by "[linda markstein and louise hirasawa \(1981\)](#)," concepts, and comments by "[patricia ackert \(1999\)](#) at intermediate level of proficiency

Three testing instruments were used throughout the research to answer the research questions. The first of which was the Nelson Proficiency Test that as its writer claims it is reliable. The second testing instrument was Michigan Reading Comprehension test that is claimed to be standardized and reliable. This test was used both for pretest and for posttest. The third instrument was the quizzes administered at the end of each session. They were different reading tests adopted from different books. They helped the teacher to check the progress and to see if they were doing their job appropriately or not. Moreover, they were expected to encourage students for further actions.

Procedure

The teacher of both experimental and control groups was the researcher himself. All classes were held at Chabahar Maritime University (CMU) located in Chabahar, Iran. The class lasted for 16 weeks. Choosing texts, the technique was developed. Throughout developing this technique, at first, home groups were formed. Then, in order to develop the group accountability they were assigned a role in the group. This helped them to monitor each other's job and not to lose any

time. After that, they were sent into their expert groups to work on the intended portion of Reading material divided by the teacher. Mastering the assigned portion, they came back to their home group from which they were sent to their expert groups. Then, they taught whatever they learned in the expert groups to the members of their home groups. They were also asked and encouraged to present their segment to the home group. The teacher observed the process carefully and went through group to group to check if the process was being done correctly or not. At last, a quiz ensured whether learning happened or not.

Data Collection & Analysis

As far as the two already established classes were concerned, first, the students' scores on the Nelson Language proficiency Test were collected from their records. As mentioned before, the Nelson test part 450c (See Appendix) was used to see whether the two groups were at the same level of proficiency or not. In the first session, the researcher handed over the Nelson language proficiency test to the both groups. The process of answering the questions was introduced to them. The test consisted of 50 questions that were to be answered within 75 minutes. Collecting data from the first assessment, the results indicated that subjects of each class were by chance from the same level of proficiency. Then, making sure about the level of language proficiency, the researcher throughout the next session administered the Michigan reading comprehension test (see appendix) to see their proficiency in reading comprehension. The results taken from these data indicated that both groups enjoyed almost the same level of proficiency in that the subjects in Control group had a mean score of 10.33, and those of Experimental group had a mean of 9.97. Following these results, the complete analysis of the data is given in the table (4.1). The participants in the control group were instructed using a traditional teacher-fronted instruction of teaching reading comprehension. On the other hand, the experimental group received the same texts but they were supposed to read and comprehend it through working with others in a cooperative manner using Jigsaw technique. To check their performance and progress, some quizzes were adopted and administered to them. These quizzes were supposed to have some benefits. At first, they indicated the subjects' progress in that the teacher after each session had an account of students' performance in the form of a quiz. Then having this, he could check for their progress. In addition, the function of these quizzes also referred to the indication of the areas of difficulties that subjects had encountered. Throughout the progress, the teacher could see where they had faced difficulty in learning. They also motivated the subjects for further engagement in the process of learning. It should also be mentioned that both groups used these quizzes. The third proficiency test or the posttest was given to the participants at the end of the course of instruction to compare the two groups' grades and to see the effect of using Cooperative learning using Jigsaw technique in their learning and comprehension process. The results of the last proficiency test also are to be presented in the present chapter.

Comparison of Control and Experimental Group Prior to the Experiment

To see whether the two groups were at the same level of ability, a 30-items Michigan reading proficiency test was administered to both Control and Experimental groups. As the results clearly show, the two groups were almost at the same level of proficiency. The results of the analysis are shown in the following Table.

TABLE 1. INDEPENDENT T-TEST FOR CONTROL AND EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS

	Levine's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means							
								95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper	
Scores1	Equal variances assumed	1.322	.255	.878	58	.383	.367	.417	.469	1.202
	Equal variances not assumed			.878	57.220	.383	.367	.417	.469	1.203

The above tables show the results of the independent t-test for control and experimental group. As it can be concluded from the table, the mean score of the control group is 10.33 and the mean score for experimental group is 9.97. Close consideration toward the mean difference of the two groups (.367) and, of course, the p value ($p=.383 > .05$) shows that the groups are almost the same or, at most, there is not a significant difference between them. The following graph shows the results in a more tangible manner.

Comparison of Control Group and Experimental Group on Posttest:

In this part as the concluding section of the comparisons, a comparison of the control group and the experimental group on posttest was done to see whether there was any kind of change in the experimental group. In this section, we are about to see which group performed better, and as a result which method, traditional or Cooperative learning, is more efficient in teaching reading comprehension ability to Iranian students. The results, just like the previous parts, are presented in the following table.

TABLE 2. INDEPENDENT T-TEST FOR CONTROL AND EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of Difference	
								Lower	Upper
Scores2	26.590	.000	8.690	58	.000	7.067	.813	5.439	8.694
			8.690	37.417	.000	7.067	.813	5.420	8.714

According to the statistics in the table, the mean score of the control group on the posttest is 15.23 while that of the experimental group is 18.03. The mean difference of the two groups, as the table shows, is 2.80 and since the p value is $p=.000 < p=.05$, it can be concluded that the experimental group has performed significantly different from the control group on the posttest.

Conclusions

As this study has demonstrated, simply following traditional approaches toward teaching language skills specifically reading comprehension could not satisfy the scholars of the field. Recently with the growth in technology and as a result, an increase in the demand for globalization has convinced many people to start updating themselves to meet the overall requirements of the world. To do so, people should update themselves with the studies conducted and introduced in the world. In addition, the most part of knowledge exists in print and if one is to use it, he/she should be familiar with this skill. As literature shows, the use of traditional approaches toward teaching reading skill was not successful. The fast movement from traditional methods toward Cooperative methods of teaching reading comprehension and other language skills proves the claim. As a conclusion, finally, the findings of this study rejected the null hypotheses and confirmed the effectiveness of Jigsaw technique as a reliable way in increasing the reading comprehension ability as one of the most important language skills needed for development of the knowledge existed in print. All the observed statistics related to the results of the pretests and posttests proved the effectiveness of Cooperative learning in general and the use of Jigsaw technique in teaching reading comprehension in particular. Since the mean difference of the two groups, as table 4.3 suggests, is 2.80 and because of the p value ($p=.000 < .05$), it can be concluded that the experimental group has made a significant progress compared

to the control group, then the null hypothesis is rejected. Considering the statistics presented in the above tables and to answer the second question of the research, it should be mentioned that Iranian students attending this study highly enjoyed the aforementioned method of teaching reading comprehension. Of course, it cannot be exactly generalized to all Iranian students because as it was stated earlier in the study, the research was done using a quasi-experimental design. Therefore, as far as this kind of research design is concerned, there are no exact systematic methods for sampling of participant and as a result, the generalizability of the obtained data should be done carefully.

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گل واژه های قرن بیستم در زبان انگلیسی

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Twentieth-Century's Top New Words

Abstract

This paper provides a unique journey through the twentieth century for those who are interested in English language. It shows how words are language's response to circumstances. Out of thousands of words coined every year only a tiny minority survives and the real indicator of the survival is "usage" which in turn is the official qualification of entry into a dictionary. How we get around (motorways, traffic jams), how we entertain ourselves (radio, cinema, television), how we fight each other (world war), how we communicate with each other (Internet, mobile) – and many more have created certain words that locate themselves as post 1900. The paper falls into two sections. The first section deals with the language innovators, how new words come about. It looks at the mechanisms by which new words are established in their first place. The second section groups words by decade, from 1900s to the 2000s showing how a decade produces its own vocabulary. It shows how we continually create our lexicon anew to reflect our changing world

چکیده

این مقاله سفر کوتاهی را برای علاقمندان زبان انگلیسی فراهم می کند تا آنها را در طول یک قرن با واژه های مهمی که شاهد به وجود آمدن آنها بوده اند، آشنا سازد. در ضمن مقاله نشان می دهد که چگونه کلمات پاسخ زبان به شرایط و محیط اطراف ما هستند: برای جابجا شدن از وسایط نقلیه، برای سرگرم شدن از رادیو، سینما و تلویزیون و برای برقراری ارتباط از اینترنت و موبایل استفاده کرده است. مقاله حاضر از دو بخش تشکیل شده است. بخش اول به شیوه های خلق واژه های نو می پردازد و نشان می دهد که چگونه ترکیب کلمات، پسوند ها و پیشوندها، کلمات قدیم با معانی جدید، تغییر شکل قالب کلمات، اختصارات و سرواژه ها و در نهایت وام گیری از زبان های خارجی، باعث ایجاد کلمات نو می شوند و نویسندگان و مترجمان چه اندازه در ایجاد و شکل دهی واژگان نقش دارند. بخش دوم مقاله، کلمات را با استفاده از دگرگونی های اجتماعی، فرهنگی و سیاسی دهه های قرن بیستم، طبقه بندی کرده است و آنها را در بطن اجتماعی خود معرفی می کند.

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مقدمه

روزنامه دیلی میل (*Daily mail*) در شماره سه شنبه 19 اکتبر 2004 خود همزمان با معرفی واژه جدید سال 2004 یعنی واژه (*chav*) به چاپ لیست یکصد واژه مربوط به یکصد سال گذشته زبان انگلیسی اقدام کرد. انتشارات کالینز نیز در سال 2002 بمنظور بزرگداشت یک صدمین سال انتشار فرهنگ انگلیسی به انگلیسی خود به معرفی یکصد واژه مهم دیگر بین سالهای 1902-2002 اقدام کرده بود. اقدامات فوق نگارنده را که چند سالی است مشغول تهیه فرهنگ جامع فارسی به انگلیسی است بر آن داشت که ضمن تحقیق در این زمینه علاوه بر منابع فوق از فرهنگ های انکارتا (*Encarta*) و لوح فشرده اکسفورد بیست جلدی و فرهنگ چمبرز (*The Chambers*) کمک جوید و گل واژه های قرن بیستم از سال 1900 تا سال 2000 را که ثبت شده اند به علاقمندان معرفی کند. قبل از معرفی این واژگان لازم میدانم در مورد شیوه پیدایش واژگان جدید براساس یافته های هیات تحریریه آکسفورد مطالبی را به اطلاع علاقمندان برسانم.

الف- شیوه پیدایش واژگان جدید

هر سال هزاران لغت به وجود می آیند و تنها تعدادی کمی از آنها، راه خود را به فرهنگ های لغت باز می کنند و بقیه بتدریج از بین می روند. ملاک جدید بودن واژگان را زبانشناسان، استمرار کار برد آنان بمدت حدود پنجاه سال می دادند (دنت، 21). بدین معنا که اگر واژه ای توانسته باشد حدود پنجاه سال در زبان کاربرد داشته باشد می تواند عنوان واژه جدید را به آنها اختصاص داد. اتفاق می افتد که واژه در برهه ای از زمان بوجود آید و کاربرد آن صرفاً در همان بستر و یا زمان خود باشد، لذا این واژه شامل واژگان جدید - که کاربرد مستمر دارند - نمی شود.

سوزی دنت برای این که واژه جزو واژگان جدید به شمار آید یا نیاید، 5 عامل را بر می شمارد. وی این 5 عامل را از شروط آقای گلدن براون (*Golden Brown*)، وزیر خزانه داری سابق انگلستان، گرفته که آنان را شرط ورود انگلستان به واحد پولی اروپا مطرح کرده بود. این عوامل عبارتند از:

1. مفید بودن واژه (usefulness)
2. کاربرد آسان داشتن (user-friendliness)
3. کاربرد عمومی داشتن (exposure)
4. ادامه دار بودن مسمای یک واژه (durability)
5. تداعی بالقوه بستر واژه (potential association)

به عنوان مثال وجود واژه هایی مثل (*dotcom*) (1994) که مربوط به اینترنت است، کاربرد واژه هایی مثل *dotcommer* (به معنی کسی که توسط شرکت *dotcom* استخدام شده) و یا (*dot-bomb*, 1999) به معنی شکست و یا عدم موفقیت در امور تجارت اینترنتی را توجیه می کند.

درصد خیلی کمی از واژگان جدید واقعاً واژه هایی به تمام معنی جدید هستند، بلکه بیشتر آنها واژه های قدیمی ای با معانی جدید و یا واژه های قدیمی ای با ترکیبات جدید هستند. شاید عجیب باشد ولی جالب است بدانیم که، بنا به گزارش دنت (2003)، فقط یک درصد واژگان انگلیسی جدید هستند و این یک درصد هم بیشتر شامل واژه های فنی و تعداد اندکی هم واژگانی هستند که نویسندگان آنها را خلق کرده اند. بیش از نیمی از واژگان جدید حاصل ترکیب کلمات قدیمی خیلی آشنا هستند: مثل کلمه *ladyboy* که از دو واژه *lady* به معنی خانم و *boy* به معنی پسر تشکیل شده است، ولی

معنی این کلمه به "آقای" یا "خانمی" اطلاق می شود که ترجیح می دهد لباس جنس مخالف خود را به پوشد و در ملا عام حضور پیدا کند.
براساس گزارش دنت روش های زیر در ایجاد واژه های جدید مؤثر بوده اند.

1- ترکیبات (combinations)

الف: rage ~

این واژه در اصل به معنی "بروز خشم و غضب" و خود "خشم و غضب" است که هم کاربرد اسمی و هم کاربرد فعلی دارد. در قالب فعلی به معنی "خشم خود را در مورد چیزی نشان دادن" است. با همین مفهوم، این واژه ترکیبات جدیدی را برای خود بوجود آورده است:

air rage بروز خشونت در هواپیما (اشاره به برخورد یک مسافر با خدمه هواپیما و یا با مسافر دیگر)

table rage داد و فریاد ارباب رجوع با کارمند

phone rage برخورد لفظی در حین مکالمه تلفنی

web rage درگیری لفظی از طریق ارتباط و یا چت های کامپیوتری

روزنامه گاردین در شماره چهارشنبه 18 اکتبر 2006 خود، مقاله ای را تحت عنوان "web rage attack after net chats" درگیری لفظی در سایت بعد از چت های اینترنتی " چاپ کرد.

ب: gate ~

این واژه به دنبال واژه Watergate کاربرد پیدا کرد و در واژه های جدید به معنی "رسوایی" است.

به رسوایی چارلز، شاهزاده انگلستان، و رابطه وی با خانم Camilla Parker اشاره دارد که نوار مکالمه تلفنی شاهزاده با خانم کامیلا در 18 دسامبر 1989 بر ملا شد.

Monicagate به رسوایی بیل کلینتن و شایعه ارتباط وی با خانم مانیکا اشاره دارد.

دایره المعارف Wikipedia لیستی از این رسوایی ها را تحت عنوان "list of scandals with ~ gate" suffix تهیه کرده است.

ج: erati ~

این پسوند نشان دهنده "دسته"، "گروه"، "باند" و "جناح" است.

belligerence جنگ و خشونت معنی می دهد و واژه belligerati به نویسندگان و یا طرفداران جنگ و امپریالیسم اشاره دارد.

glitterati به آدم های شیک و پیک و یا کله گنده اشاره دارد.

litterati معنی اهل قلم و یا ادبا می دهد.

د: Uber ~

این پسوند از زبان آلمانی گرفته شده است و معنی "super" ابر، "ماورای" و یا "فوق العاده"، "متخصص" و یا قید "خیلی" می دهد.

Uber Men به انسان هایی که ضریب هوشی خیلی بالایی دارند اشاره دارد و عنوان سایتی اینترنتی نیز است.

Uberchef به معنی سرآشپز خیلی وارد است.

Uber columnist (روزنامه) نویسنده فوق العاده

Uber-regulator مامور انتظامی توانمند

Uber hacker /uber geek دزد خبره کامپیوتر

uber-coal خیلی عالی

Uber babe سوپر مدل

ه: ~athon

از مسابقه دو ماراتون marathon گرفته شده است و در ترکیبات به یک عمل و یا حادثه درازمدت و طولانی اشاره دارد.

backslapathon تعریف و تمجید و یا تشویق خیلی طولانی

hiphopathon موسیقی هیپ هاپ طولانی مدت

thinkathon در اندیشه غرق بودن

blubathon خیلی طولانی گریه کردن

slimathon رژیم طولانی مدت گرفتن

و: ~ista

پسوندی است که از زبان اسپانیولی گرفته شده است و نشان دهنده "هواداری" و یا "علاقمندی" به کسی یا چیزی است.

Blairista هواداران تونی بلر (نخست وزیر سابق انگلستان)

Fashionista علاقمندان مد

2- وندها (affixes)

پسوند ها و پیشوندها در ساختن کلمات جدید نقش بسزایی دارند. با متداول ترین پسوندها و پیشوندها می توان به راحتی کلمات جدید ساخت. بنا به گزارش دنت در چند سال اخیر کلمات زیر جزو متداول ترین واژگانی هستند که با پسوند un ساخته شده اند و در مطبوعات انگلستان کاربرد پیدا کرده اند.

unscruffy مرتب، تر و تمیز

untantramy خوش خلق

unpublish چاپ نکردن

unwant زیادی، اضافی

3- ادغام (blending)

ادغام کلمات روش دیگری برای ساختن کلمات جدید است. طبق گزارش دنت حدود 5 درصد از واژگان جدید را این ملغمه توام با تغییر حالت های دستوری تشکیل می دهند. علیرغم اینکه اینگونه واژه ها عمر طولانی ندارند ولی در چند سال گذشته نقش بسزایی در تولید واژگان جدید داشته اند.

slacktivism از ترکیب دو واژه slack به معنی "شل و ول" و activism به معنی "عمل‌گرایی" بوجود آمده است. لذا واژه slacktivism به معنی "علاقه‌مندی به انجام دادن کارهای خوب تا زمانیکه توام با رنج و زحمت نباشند" است. blipvert- از ترکیب دو واژه blip به معنی "هر مشکل و یا مورد موقتی" و advert به معنی "آگهی تجاری" تشکیل شده است. لذا خود واژه به معنی "آگهی‌های چند لحظه‌ای" اشاره دارد.

flexexecutive از ترکیب واژه flexible به معنی "انعطاف پذیر" و executive به معنی "اداری" بوجود آمده است. خود واژه به "شخص شاغل که در ساعات شناور کار می‌کند، اطلاق می‌شود.

touron از ترکیب واژه tourist به معنی "جهانگرد" و moron به معنی "احمق" حاصل شده است که معنی جهانگردی که حال آدم را به هم بزند و یا توریست کلافه‌کننده، اشاره دارد.

4- کلمات قدیمی با معانی جدید

پانزده درصد از کلمات جدید را معانی جدید کلمات قدیمی تشکیل می‌دهند. معانی جدید ممکن است معانی قدیمی را تکمیل کنند و یا صرفاً معنی جدیدی به معنی‌های پیشین بیفزایند.

portal واژه‌ای مربوط به قرن چهاردهم به معنی "درب ورودی اصلی" است؛ در حالیکه در معنی جدید خود، به "سایتی که راهنمای ورود به سایت دیگری باشد" اشاره دارد.

skimming از معنی قدیمی فعل skim به معنی "دزدیدن پول به مقدار کم و در دوره‌های زمانی متناوب"، در حالت اسمی و در معنی جدید به "جعل مشخصات کارت اعتباری دیگران" اشاره دارد.

fascia به روکش موبایل می‌گویند در حالیکه در قدیم به "سر در مغازه" اشاره داشت.

edgy دارای معنی قدیمی "تیز و لبه‌دار" و یا "عصبانی و کفری" است، ولی در کاربرد جدید، معنی "خلاف‌عرف" و "پیشرو" دارد. مثل edgy scientific discovery (پیشرفت‌های علمی پیشرو).

sticky کلمه‌ای دارای معنی قدیمی "چسبنده" است معنی جدیدی که به آن اضافه شده است عبارت است از برنامه جذاب اینترنتی که کاربرهای زیادی را بمدت طولانی به خود مشغول می‌سازد.

5- تبدیل (conversion)

این روند تشکیل واژه‌های جدید با اینکه درصد کمی از واژه‌های نو را به خود اختصاص می‌دهد ولی روشی است که هر روز رو به افزایش است. کلمه embed که فعلی به معنی "جای دادن" "ثابت نگه داشتن" است، در جنگ خلیج (2003) به خبرنگاری اطلاق می‌شد که برای تهیه و ارسال گزارش‌های خبری جنگ، عضو نیروهای نظامی بود تا بعنوان عضو ارتش وظایف خبرنگاری خود را انجام دهد. یا برعکس، اسم‌هایی که بعنوان فعل بکار می‌روند.

سرآشپز chef ← to chef سرآشپزی کردن

تیغه- لبه‌چاق blade ← to blade با یک ردیف قرقره اسکیت کردن

متن یک پیغام text ← to text پیامک فرستادن، پیغام فرستادن

احساس گناه guilt ← to guilt احساس گناه کردن

صلاحیت credential ← to credential کسی را صلاحیت دار کردن

6- اختصارات و سر واژه ها (Abbreviation and Acronym)

کوتاه کردن کلمات موجود روش دیگری برای افزایش واژه ها است. دنت معتقد است که سه عامل در کوتاه کردن واژه در زبان های غیر رسمی بسیار موثر بوده است: 1. پست الکترونیک (email)، 2. ارسال پیامک (sms)، 3. اتاق های چت (chat rooms). روش هایی که در مکالمات موبایل و یا در فرستادن پیامک بکار گرفته شده اند کم کم کاربرد عمومی پیدا کرده و خارج از سه مورد ذکر شده بالا در کاربرد کلمات کوتاه شده دیده می شوند. مثل B2B که بجای business to business کاربرد پیدا کرده است. یا کلمه 3G که بجای The third generation of mobile phone technology در معنی "نسل سوم تکنولوژی موبایل" کاربرد دارد و حتی این واژه را شرکت تولید کننده موبایل به عنوان اسم شرکت 3G پذیرفته است.

7- قرض گیری (foreign borrowings)

اکثر کلماتی که امروزه در زبان انگلیسی بکار می روند ریشه خارجی دارند، بدین معنی که از نظر تاریخی از زبانهای لاتین و یونانی گرفته شده اند. بنا بر گزارش فرهنگ آکسفورد، 5 درصد از واژه های جدید، ریشه خارجی دارند و در این رابطه یکصد و بیست زبان ثبت شده است (دنت 20). علت این واژگان عاریتی از ارتباط فرهنگی تا ارتباط زبان شناسی شناسایی شده است. تغذیه، روش زندگی، سلامتی، درمان های سلامتی، علوم و گیاهان از منابعی ذکر شده اند که این واژگان عاریتی مربوط به آنهاست.

bammy به نوعی کیک اشاره دارد که از جزایر هند غربی گرفته شده است.

bento به نهاری که به سبک ژاپنی ها بسته شده باشد می گویند.

Macchiato از زبان ایتالیایی گرفته شده است و به قهوه ای که همراه شیر کف کرده باشد می گویند.

bhuna به خورشیدی گویند که از زبان بنگلادشی گرفته شده است.

8- حوادث تاریخی (making history)

بعضی از واژگان از موقعیت های خاص تاریخ نشأت گرفته اند و در ذهن مردم، دنیایی از خاطرات است. سه واژه 9/11 و ground zero و chad از این گونه واژه ها است. 9/11 به یازده سپتامبر سال 2001 اشاره دارد که در آن روز برج های دوقلوی تجاری آمریکا مورد اصابت دو فروند هواپیمای مسافرتی دزدیده شده قرار گرفت. ترتیب نگارش واژه به سبک آمریکایی است که در آن اول ماه (عدد 9 ماه نهم میلادی که همان سپتامبر است) و سپس روز آن ذکر شده است، بر خلاف تقویم انگلستان که اول روز نوشته می شود سپس ماه را می نویسند 11/09/2000.

ground zero به حمله اتمی آمریکا به هیروشیما اشاره دارد که در این بمباران همه شهر با خاک یکسان و همسطح شد. با خاک یکسان شدن برج های دوقلوی آمریکا یادآور همان صحنه هیروشیما است.

chad این واژه به انتخابات ریاست جمهوری آمریکا در سال 2000 اشاره دارد. واژه chad به تکه کاغذهای کوچکی اشاره دارد که هنگام سوراخ کردن کاغذ با دستگاه سوراخ کن، از کاغذ بیرون می ریزد. در شهر فلوریدا برای شمارش آرای انتخابات از دستگاه پانچ برای شمرده کارتهای انتخاباتی استفاده می کردند. طرفداران دموکرات ها معتقد بودند که انتخابات فلوریدا باطل است برای اینکه بعضی از این کاغذهای کوچک به کارت انتخابات چسبیده بودند و مانع شمارش

آرا شدند. در نتیجه آمار متفاوتی از تعداد شرکت کنندگان اعلام شد که این مر باعث سردرگمی مسئولین شد. این امر باعث ایجاد واژه های متعددی با کلمه chad شد:

pregnant chad تکه کاغذ تعیین کننده

dimpled chad تکه کاغذ خمیده

hanging chad تکه کاغذ معلق

swinging chad تکه کاغذ تاب دار

ب- واژه های جدید قرن بیستم

پس از بررسی شیوه های پیدایش واژگان نو، اینک به معرفی تعدادی از واژگان معروف در یکصد سال گذشته می پردازیم.

1- دهه 1900 (the 1900s)

سال 1900 است. هنوز ملکه ویکتوریا (1819-1901) در بریتانیا سلطنت می کند. در آغاز دوره ویکتوریا یعنی حدود یکصد و هفتاد سال پیش، راه آهن یک اختراع جدیدی بود. حق رای دادن مخصوص زمین داران بود. زنان حق نداشتند در دانشگاه تحصیل کنند. در آغاز این دهه، خودروها اولین سر و صدای خود را در جاده ها به راه انداخته بودند.

در امریکا، برادران ویل برایت در حال برنامه ریزی برای اولین پروازی هواپیما بودند و زنان برای رای دادن هیجان زده بودند. در سال 1890 وسایط نقلیه به طور عمومی در دسترس مردم بود، اما تا قرن بیستم، به طور کامل جایگزین اسب ها نشدند. با شروع جنگ جهانی اول حدود 130/000 دستگاه اتومبیل در بریتانیا ثبت شده بود. به محض پیشرفت این صنعت، زبان انگلیسی نیازمند تکامل و جذب واژه های جدید شد. انواع مختلف ماشین و قطعات آن: پدال گاز (accelerators) کارتل (sumps)، سرشاتون (big ends) داشبورد (dashboards)، رادیاتور (radiators) شاسی (chassis) سرعت شمار (speedometers)، شیشه جلو اتومبیل (windcreens) و در امریکا (windshields). انواع مختلف خودروها عبارت بودند از: لندالت (landaulette)، لیموزین، اتومبیل سواری بزرگ و مجلل (saloons, Limousins). در کنار این خودروها، موتور گازی (motor-bike) هم دیده می شد. جاده هایی که در قرن نوزدهم برای ارباب های اسب (hippomobiles) ساخته شده بود به جاده های اتومبیل رو (motor roads, motorways)، تند راه ها (speed ways) با پل های هوایی (flyovers) و زیر گذرها (underpasses) و جاده های کمربندی (loop roads) تبدیل شدند.

راننده و یا شوفر (autoist, chauffeur) لباس رانندگی (motor coat) خود را می پوشد و سپس ماشین رولز رویس (Rolls-Royce) خودش را از گاراژ و یا اصطبل ماشین (garage, motor stable) بیرون می آورد، مقداری بنزین (juice) به آن می ریزد (petrole)، و سپس برای سفر روزانه (day trip) خود عازم می شود.

برای اطمینان از اینکه مسافران ماشین زده (car-sick) نیستند و اینکه توجه پلیس ترافیک (traffic police) را جلب نکند، می بایست از سرعت گرفتن (overspeeding) خودداری کند. علامت های جاده (road signs) او را به مقصد هدایت می کنند. افرادی که تمایل به رانندگی ندارند ترجیح می دهند تاکسی (taxi) بگیرند.

در این دهه شاهد پیشرفت صنعت هواپیمایی هستیم: شهپر (aileron)، بدنه هواپیما (fuselage)، که از زبان فرانسه گرفته شدند. بعضی از واژه ها ماندگار شدند مثل سطح و یا باله های هواپیما (aerofoil)؛ هواپیمای مسافربری (airline) و خلبان

pilot. واژه ها و اصطلاحات دیگری نیز پدیدار شدند ولی پایدار نماندند مثل aerial liner و یا aeroplaneist به معنی خلبان. بر خلاف flying ground (فرودگاه)، واژه hanger (آشیانه هواپیما) هنوز هم کاربرد دارد.

در همین حین، برق رسانی در زیرزمین (electrification)، قطارهای زیر زمینی را به وجود آورد. در لندن قطار زیرزمینی (tube) در حال رشد و توسعه بود. پله های برقی (escalators) یکی دیگر از امکانات رفاهی بود که مسافران را به دل زمین حمل می کرد. از طرفی محققان در حال افشای راز اتم از طریق شکافتن آن (splitting the atom) بودند. الکترونیک (electronic)، متلاشی شدن (decoying) رادیو اکتیو، پیدایش آدرنالین (adrenaline)، پادتن (antibody)، کلون (clone) و ژنتیک (genetics) وارد زبان انگلیسی شدند.

اوایل دهه، شاهد ارتباطات رسانه ای هستیم. واژه های رادیو (radio)، دستگاه بی سیم (wireless)، آنتن (aerial, antenna) وارد زبان می شوند. کلماتی چون تلگرام (telegram)، مارکو نیگرام یا همان رادیو گرام (Marconi gram)، مدیر رادیو (radio operator و marconist) از جمله کلمات رادیویی پیشگام هستند. شما می توانستید پیامی را به دیگران ارسال (marconi) کنید. (عمراین واژه بسیار کوتاه بود). لامپ اشعه کوتاه (cathode ray tube) اختراع شده بود و مردم در مورد امکان وجود تلویزیون (television) بحث می کردند. قبل از پایان دهه بریتانیا در حال ساختن کشتی های توپ دار (dreadnoughts) جهت آماده شدن برای جنگ احتمالی بود. واژه هایی که قرار بود که خود را در ایام جنگ نشان دهند در صدد ورود به زبان بودند: سنگر (dug-out)، کلاه خود (tin hat)، سرزمین بی طرف (no man's land)، جوخه اعدام یا جوخه آتش (firing squad)، حمله ناگهانی (surprise attack)، گاز (gas) ماده ای برای کشتن مردم و بمباران کردن (to bomb) که به عنوان فعل بکار می رفت.

در این دهه کلماتی چون صلح طلبی (pacifism)، جنایات جنگی (war crime) تشنج زدایی (detente) و همچنین توسعه طلبی (expansionism) تبلیغات (propaganda) و قتل عام (pogroms) در زبان وارد شدند.

افراد طبقه بالا نگران مسئله خدمتکاران (servant problem) بودند. اما این دهه، دهه صف مستمندان (line-bread)، تظاهرات بیکاران (hunger march)، و خط فقر (poverty line) بود. این مشکلات باعث شد که کلماتی چون تامین اجتماعی (welfare) و امنیت اجتماعی (social security) به وجود آیند.

در این دهه دید متفاوتی به رابطه های جنسی انداخته می شود. ازدواج های آزمایشی (trial marriage) صورت می گیرد. روابط بین نژادها ظاهر شده است و واژه نژاد پرستی (racialism) به همراه تبعیض رنگ پوست (colour prejudice)، نژادپرستانه (ethnocentric)، تبعیض (segregation) و برتری سفید پوست ها (white supremacy) وارد زبان می شوند.

تنها فردی که در این دهه توانست کارکرد ذهن بشر را بررسی کند، روانشناس اتریشی به نام زیگموند فروید (1856-1939) بود. با ترجمه آثارش به زبان انگلیسی، کلماتی چون روان کاوی (psychoanalysis) و شکل کوتاه شده آن (analysis)، و همچنین عریزه جنسی (libido) در زبان وارد شد. علم روانشناسی باعث ایجاد کلماتی چون روان رنجوری (neurosis)، جنون افسردگی (manic depressive)، آزار جنسی (masochistic)، سرخوردگی (repressed)، عقده (complex)، خود شیفتگی (narcissism) بوجود بیایند. این واژگان گویا کافی نبودند، جنسیت شناسی (sexology) نیز معرفی شد.

برای گریز از واقعیت های احتمالی، سینما (cinema) به وجود می آید. بهترین مکان برای فراموش کردن نگرانی ها، دیدن یک فیلم بود. اگر چه فیلم صامت بود، ولی فردی در گوشه ای از سینما مشغول تولید صدا و یا تولید موسیقی برای فیلم بود. اکران اولین فیلم عمومی در سال 1895 بود، اما در اولین دهه قرن بیستم به یک موقعیت جدی و پیشرفته تر

رسید. سرمایه گذاران سالن های اجتماعی (cinematograph theatres) را ساختند و کلمه های فیلم بردار (camera man) و زیر نویسی (subtitle) وارد زبان شد.

علاقه مندان ورزش، پینگ پنگ (ping-pong) و فوتبال دستی (table football) را برای سرگرمی انتخاب می کردند. برای مردان کت و شلوار (lounge slit) برای اولین بار تولید شد. زنان موهای خود را فر دائمی (permanent wave) می کردند.

امکانات رفاهی (home helps) مانند جاروبرقی (vacuum cleaner) و شوفاژ (central heating) اختراع شد. ضد عفونی کننده ها (Jeyes fluid, floor polish) کمک زیاد به بهداشت خانه می کردند. برای صبحانه برشته کت (corn flakes) و مربای اکسفورد (Oxford marmalade) روی نان تست مالیده می شد و به جای کره بکار می رفت. صنعت کنسروسازی کمپوت آناناس (pineapple chunks) را به جهانیان عرضه کرد. و غذاهای حاضری (fast food) با غذاهایی چون سوسیس (hot dogs) و ساندویچ (club sandwich) که همراه با کوکا کولا، و یا با رقیب جدید این نوشیدنی یعنی پیسی کولا، نوش جان می کردند. افراد گوشت خوار از غذاهای گوشتی (meat-lozenges) استفاده می کردند و به افرادی که گیاهخوار بودند (marmite) و کتلت فندق (nun cutlet) معرفی شد. غذاهای چینی، از همین دهه نخست قرن بیستم، با غذاهای chow mien راه خود را به رستوران های غربی باز کرد.

در آمریکا فعالیت های تجاری بزرگ (big business) رونق می گرفت. سیستم بایگانی در ادارات شکل می گرفت و مدیران (executives) مطالب را به ماشین نویس ها (shorthand typists) دیکته می کردند. از نظر علمی نیز نوعی از دایناسورها (tyrannosaurus) کشف شدند. بی شک واژه معروف این دوره teddy bear یا همان خرس عروسکی است که هنوز هم بچه های انگلیسی و استرالیایی هر یک عروسک خرسی خود را دارند.

2- دهه 1910 (the 1910s)

قرن بیستم در دهه دوم خود شاهد چهار سال جنگ هولناک بود، جنگی که به جنگ کبیر یا بزرگ (the Great War) معروف است. زمانی که آتش بس موقت در نوامبر سال 1918 اعلام شد، تمام ملل انگلیسی زبان دنیا درگیر جنگ شده بودند و بیش از هشت و نیم میلیون نفر جان خود را از دست داده بودند. گزارش جزء به جزء این شرایط هولناک در مطبوعات علاوه بر تاثیر عمیق در روح و روان مردم دنیا، بی شک سهم عظیمی در دامنه لغات جدید وارد شده به زبان انگلیسی داشت. این گزارشات مستلزم خلق واژه های جدید می شد: شیوه جدید جنگ، انواع جدید سلاح، پیدایش هواپیماهای نظامی. گذشته از سطح بی سابقه دخالت غیر نظامیان، همه در گسترش دامنه واژگان انگلیسی نقش بسزایی داشتند. در سنگرهای جبهه غرب (the western front) سربازان انگلیسی توسط آلمانی ها با خمپاره ها و نارنجک ها (pipsqueaks) شدیداً بمباران (strafed) می شدند.

در جنگ Ypres در سال 1915، آلمانی ها برای اولین بار از گاز سمی (poison gas) استفاده کردند و حمله با گازهای شیمیایی (gas attack) به بزرگترین خوف تبدیل شد. ماسکهای ضد گاز (gas masks) برای محافظت در برابر گازهای مرگ آسای خردل (mustard gas) گسترش یافت. زندگی درون سنگری در میان گل و لای و حفره های ایجاد شده توسط گلوله های توپ (shell holes) چیزی جز انتظار برای به هوا رفتن (to go over the top) توسط آتش متحدین با مسلسل های سبک یا گازی، که با هوا خنک می شدند (Lewis guns)، نبود. موارد موجی (shell shock) خیلی زیاد بود. جراحات های فجاج مثل قانقاریای گازی (gas gangrene) و پاهای زخمی پر درد (trench foot)، بیمارستانهای صحرایی و مناطق پاکسازی شده (clearing stations) را از دست و پای قطع شده (amputees) و بیماران روحی و روانی (basket cases) پرکرده بود. جانبازان (the walking wounded)

خوشحال بودند که اگر زخم آنها بقدری جدی می بود که بتوانند جبهه ها را ترک کنند و به وطن خود انگلستان (the Blighty) باز گردند. در سال 1916 ارتش آلمان از پشت خاکریزهای خود برای اولین بار با دوربین های خود (trenchscope) می توانستند ببینند که تانک های (tanks) دشمن به طرف آنها در حرکت است. در بالا سر میادین، جنگک حمله هوایی (air warfare) توسط نیروهای هوایی (air forces) طرفین قابل مشاهده بود. نبرد هوایی (dog fights) و هنرنمایی خلبانان زبده (aces) نقش مهمی را در جنگ ایفا می کردند. اما گشت های هوایی (aerial reconnaissance) نیز نقش مهمی در جنگ داشتند. میان جنگنده ها (fighters) و بمب افکن ها (bombers) تفاوت ایجاد شد. بمب افکن ها در موعد مقرر به مخازن بمب (bomb bays) مجهز می شدند. اگر چه آنها با استتار (camouflage) محافظت می شدند، ولی دشمن با گلوله های ضد هوایی (anti-aircraft)، یا به طور عامیانه با Archibald، و گلوله رسام (tracer) جلوی آنها در می آمدند. هم متفقین (Allies) و هم آلمانی ها می دانستند که در نبرد جدید قرن بیستم شرط لازم برای پیروزی برتری هوایی (air supremacy) است. مهمات سازان (munitioneers) شب و روز در کارخانجات زحمت می کشیدند. کالاهای اسقاطی (salvages) باز یافت می شدند. غذا جیره بندی (rationed) شده بود. زندگی مردم با کوپن (coupons) می چرخید و سودجویان (profiteers) در پی سود خویش بودند. برای اولین بار در یک جنگ، غیر نظامیان در معرض حمله هوایی (air raid) قرار گرفتند. گشتی های هوایی (zeps) آلمانی ها بر فراز انگلستان در پرواز بودند و شهرها در خاموشی موقت (blacked out) به سر می برد. آتش بس (cease fire) در یازده نوامبر سال 1918 اعلام شد از آن به بعد این روز به یاد بود "روز آتش بس" (Armistice day) گرامی داشته شد. آنهایی که در طول جنگ (duration) زنده مانده بودند و یا اسیر جنگی (p.o.w) بودند به دنیایی متفاوت از آنچه در آن بودند برگشتند. خلبانان می توانستند هواپیمای خود را در یک فرودگاه فرود بیاورند (land) و روی باند حرکت کنند (taxi) و یا با تاسف سقوط کنند (crash). در این ایام طرح هایی برای جامعه ملل (League of Nations) ریخته شد.

با رخ دادن انقلاب در روسیه، اصطلاحاتی از قبیل بلشویک (Belshevik)، کمیسر (commissar)، طرفدار تروتسکی (Trotskyite)، طرفدار لنین (Leninist) و شوروی (Soviet) وارد زبان انگلیسی شد.

دنیای صنعت خودرو در حین جنگ پیشرفت چندانی نداشت. استفاده از خودرو (motorism) نسبت به دهه قبل کمتر بود. اتومبیل کروکی (convertible) با واژه قالیاق (hubcup) تولید شد، و برای نخستین بار صدای بوق اتومبیل (klaxon) شنیده شد. قوانین راهنمایی و رانندگی توسعه یافتند. به همراه آنها، واژگان خیابان یک طرفه (one way streets)، و علائم راهنمای رانندگی (traffic signals) که توسط عابرین بی احتیاط (jay walkers) نادیده گرفته می شد وارد زبان شدند. شما می توانستید ماشین خودتان را در پارکینگ (park) رها کنید، و یا اینکه راه بندان (traffic jam) ایجاد کنید.

در دنیای علم، آلبرت اینشتین نظریه های نسبت خاص خودش را با نظریه نسبیت عمومی تکمیل کرده و مفهوم زمان و دنیای سه بعدی، و یا به عبارتی، فضای چهار بعدی (space-time) خود را برای اولین بار عرضه کرد. علوم زیستی صاحب کروموزوم (chromosomes)، ژن (genes)، و ویتامین (vitamins) شد.

از اوایل قرن بیستم، اصطلاحات فرویدی آغاز شده بود و در دهه اول به سلی از واژگان که شامل خود واژه فرویدی (Freudian) بود، رسید. واژگانی مثل "عقد ادیپ" (Oedipus complex)، مشغله ذهنی (fixation)، انکار (denial)، واپس زدگی (repression)، و ضمیر ناخود آگاه (unconscious) بوجود آمدند. در این دهه، با یک سری از واژگان جدید که توسط همکار فروید، روان شناس سوئسی، یعنی کارل گوستاو یانگ ایجاد شدند مواجه هستیم.

واژه‌هایی مثل برون‌گرا (extrovert)، درون‌گرا (introvert)، ناخودآگاه جمعی (collective unconscious)، وجهه اجتماعی (persona)، و روان (psyche) در این دهه ظهور کردند.

این دهه برای علم روان‌شناسی فرصت خوبی بود تا واژگان دیگری مانند در خودماندگی (autism)، رفتارگرایی (behaviorism)، روان‌گسیختگی (schizophrenia) و تمایل جنسی (sex drive) را معرفی کند. همین دهه بود که برای نخستین بار واژه "هم‌جنس‌باز" (homosexual) به عنوان یک اسم بکار رفت. دو جنس‌باز (bisexual) و مبدل پوشی (cross dressing) به وجود آمدند. برای جلوگیری از باردار شدن واژه (control birth) عرضه شد. ظهور رادیو به عنوان سرگرمی عمومی در جنگ جهانی اول تاثیر خود را گذاشت. واژه‌های جدید مثل موج‌یاب (cat's whisker) گیرنده کریستالی (crystal receiver) و پارازیت (static) - که کاربرد اصلی آنها از دهه بعد قرار بود شروع شود - رایج شد. در نبود سرگرمی، مردم به حل جدول متقاطع (crossword puzzles) می‌پرداختند. اما سرگرمی عمومی، به مراتب بهتر، سینما (cinema) بود. فیلم‌های سینمایی (movies) صامت بودند، اگر چه صحبت از سینمای ناطق (talkies) هم مطرح بود. در داخل سالن سینما (picturedrome)، و به قول آمریکایی‌های (movie theater)، علاقمندان می‌توانستند جدیدترین فیلم کامل (feature film) و یا (picture play) و شاید یک فیلم وسترنی (western) را ببینید و هنرپیشه محبوب (film star و یا movie star) خودشان را انتخاب کنند. علاوه بر فیلم مورد علاقه‌شان، تماشاچی‌ها می‌توانستند یک فیلم خبری (topical و یا newsreel) و یا یک کارتون (cartoon) را مشاهده کنند.

دهه 1920 (the 1920s)

دهه بیست، دهه بعد از جنگ و بعد از رعب و وحشت و نگرانی‌های جنگ است. نسل جوان از بین رفته است و آن‌هایی که مانده‌اند و پا توی کفش جوان‌ها کرده بودند می‌خواستند قدر زنده ماندن خود را بدانند و از زندگی لذت ببرند. با این دید می‌توان حدس زد که در این دهه باید شاهد به وجود آمدن واژه‌هایی باشیم که شادی، خوشی و مهمانی‌ها و رقص، خوش‌گذرانی را نشان دهند. این دهه برای ثروتمندان دهه خوش‌گذرانی با زنهای سبک (flappers) و آنهایی که دنبال پول (gold-diggers) بودند، بود. مردم ترجیح می‌دادند نوشیدنی‌های خوشمزه (delish) بنوشند. نوشیدنی‌های خود را با تکه یخ (ice cubes) خنک‌سازند و برای خود خوش بگذارند؛ مخصوصاً اگر این شادی‌ها توام با داشتن پول (lettuce) نقد بود.

پرداختن به جزئیات ظاهر افراد مورد توجه بود. اولین آرایشگر (beautician) و آرایشگاه‌ها (beauty shop, beauty salon) پیدا شدند. به برنده مسابقه زیبایی (beauty queen) ملکه زیبایی اطلاق شد. جراحی پلاستیکی روی صورت (face-lifting) جهت از بین بردن چین و چروک صورت گرفت. داشتن موی کوتاه (shingled) و یا (bingled) و یا داشتن فر دائمی (perm) برای اولین بار مد شد.

شلوارهای کوزه‌ای (Oxford bags) و سه‌ربعی (plus four) و شلوار لی (Levi's) به همراه تی شرت (T-shirt) و پلی‌ور آستین بلند (sweatshirts) و لباس‌های زیر (scanties, teddies) به بازار وارد گردید. بزرگترین پیشرفت دهه در مورد لباس استفاده از زیپ (zip) بجای دکمه برای باز و بسته کردن جلو شلوار بود. به جای تلف کردن پنج و یا شش ثانیه برای باز و بسته کردن دکمه‌های شلوار، آن‌ها هم بعضاً به سختی، می‌توان آن‌ها را در یک ثانیه با زیپ انجام داد. صحبت درباره روابط جنسی (sex) و مطرح شدن جاذبه جنسی (sex appeal) فراوان بود و بدنیاال این بی‌بند و باری، بیماری جنسی (v.d.= venereal disease) و یا (std=sexually transmitted disease) بطور طبیعی مطرح بود. همگی این مفاهیم در جامعه کشورهای ثروتمند رایج بود.

پس از پایان جنگ و پایان خدمت سربازی (demob) و برداشتن سهمیه بندی ها (deration)، بازماندگان جنگ به امید داشتن جامعه و شغلی بهتر به خانه های خود بازگشته بودند. اما با رکود اقتصادی (recession) و بیکاری بخاطر مازاد بودن (redundant) و تورم (deflation) روبرو شدند. این واژه ها همه متعلق به دهه بیست می باشند.

از دید بین المللی عواقب جنگ روز به روز وخیم تر می شد. در اوایل این دهه برای اولین بار صحبت از فاشیسم (Fascism)، می شد. سوسیالیست های ناسیونال (national socialites)، طرفداران فاشیسم (blackshirts) طرفداران کودتا (putsches)، پیاده نظام ها (goose-steppers)، و رهبر فاشیست ها (Duce) از واژه ها این دهه هستند.

حکومت تک خربی (totalitarian)، از بین بردن مخالفین (liquidate)، جنگ شیمیایی (bacteriological warfare) و سلاح های شیمیایی (chemical weapon) از دیگر واژه های دهه می باشد که همراه با واژه هایی از قبیل (peaceful coexistence) همزیستی مسالمت آمیز، (که از روسیه نشأت گرفته بود)، عدم خشونت (non-violence)، که به زندگی بهتر در آینده امید می دادند، بکار می رفتند. علم و تکنولوژی هم مسیرهای خود را می پیمودند. در این دهه، شاهد کلماتی مثل انسولین (insulin)، پنی سیلین (penicillin)، پروتون (proton)، فوتون (photon) هستیم. واژه های مربوط به سفر هوایی از قبیل فضاورد (astronaut)، لباس فضایی (spacesuit)، سفینه فضایی (rocket ship) مطرح هستند.

برجسته ترین پیشرفت علمی دهه، مربوط به معرفی روبات (robot) است؛ که از زبان چک گرفته شده است و به هر نوع ماشین اتوماتیک که عملیات خاص برنامه ریزی شده ای مثل یک انسان انجام دهد، اطلاق می شد. با اختراع این وسیله انسان توانست کارهای روزمره خود را به ربات بسپارد، و خودش به دنبال خوشی ها و مشغله های ذهنی خود باشد.

در این دهه واژه های اساسی خودرو، رانندگی و جاده و فرهنگ رانندگی (road sense) و امنیت جاده ها (road safety) وارد زبان می شوند. بزن و در رو (hit and run)، سواری مفتی گرفتن (hitch-hike)، جاده کمربندی (ring road)، فلکه (roundabout)، چراغ های راهنمایی (traffic lights)، خطوط سفید وسط و کنار جاده ها (white lines)، پمپ بنزین (petrol /filing/gas station) مطرح می شوند. برای راحتی مسافرت فرودگاه (air terminals) ساخته می شود. صنعت رادیو و تلویزیون هم به نوبه خود پیشرفت هایی داشتند.

بولتن خبر (news bulletin)، خواننده خبر (news reader)، روی آنتن بودن (on the air)، پخش از طریق رادیو و تلویزیون (broadcast)، و خود برنامه (programme)، تفسیر برنامه (commentary) از واژه های این دهه هستند. صنعت سینما هم شاهد پیشرفت و محبوبیت نامه های چارلین چاپلین (chaplinsque) بودند. سینما بطرف صدا گذاری پیش می رفت تا فیلم های ناطق (talkies) معرفی شوند.

در دنیای حیوانات شاهد جفت گیری قو با مرغابی (swooses)، و یا بچه بعمل آمده از جفت گیری شیر و ببر (tigons) - از ترکیب (lion و tiger) - هستیم. مطلب دیگر این که در این دهه شاهد معرفی (Summer Time) هستیم که ساعت ها یک ساعت در تابستان عقب کشیده می شود تا بیشتر به توان از روشنایی روز استفاده کرد.

دهه 1930 (the 1930s)

دهه سی، دهه ناامیدی و تاریکی است. علیرغم اینکه بعد از تب و تاب و نشاط دهه بیست واقع شده است، ولی این دهه در حال انتظار بسر می برد، انتظار برای سرنوشتی که قطعی بود. دهه ای با بحران و رکود اقتصادی (depression) آغاز می

شود؛ و چند ماه به پایان دهه نمانده است که جنگ جهانی دوم آغاز می شود. رکود اقتصادی باعث شد میلیون ها نفر بیکار شوند. این بحران آغاز دوره زاغه نشینی ها (skid row) بود.

این تورم عنان گسیخته (hyperinflation) در آلمان به ظهور جنبش نازی (Nazi, 1930) کمک کرد. واژه "نازی" به عضو کارگران سوسیالیست ملی آلمان اطلاق می شد که هیتلر رهبری آنها را به عهده داشت. تا پایان دهه زبان انگلیسی شاهد واژه های زیادی است که از زبان آلمانی گرفته شده اند. نگاه به هر کدام از این واژه ها ترسی را در تمام وجود یک انگلیسی ایجاد می کرد. قهوه ای پوش ها (brownshirts به معنی نازی)، چریک نازی (Sturmabteilung)، صلیب شکسته (swastikas)، گشتاپو (Gestapo پلیس امنیتی آلمان)، رایش سوم (the third Reich) دولت زیر حکومت هیتلر) یادآور این دهه هستند.

در غرب کلمه "نازی" به عنوان نماد اهریمن بکار می رفت. در بلوک شرق نیز، دهه سی مصادف با ایامی بود که استالین بعد از سرکوب تزارها در دهه بیست، به از بین بردن طرفداران خود هم از حزب کمونیست و هم از ارتش سرخ اقدام می کرد. انقلابیون وفادار را خائن می نامید؛ یا آنها را اعدام می کرد و یا به اتهام های واهی در دادگاه های تشریفاتی (show trial) محاکمه و سپس وادار به جلای وطن می کرد.

در طیف دیگر دیپلماسی، آرام نگه داشتن دشمن (appeasement) وجود داشت، واژه ای که در پایان جنگ جهانی اول به وجود آمد.

صحنه های بین المللی با افتخار واژه های جدید را تولید میکرد. بدین معنی که عصر، عصر هم زیستی (coexistence)، امنیت جمعی (collective security)، دفاع (defence)، سیاست زور (power politics)، و یک دنیای قشنگ نو (a brave new world) بود. ولی این حرف های قشنگ چیزی را برای آلمانی ها در بر نداشت. دنیا برای جنگ جهانی 1939 داشت آماده می شد. قبل از شروع جنگ، واژه های مربوطه به خوبی پیش بینی می شد: ستون پنجم (fifth columnists, 1936)، طرفداران نهضت کمونیستی (fellow travelers)، افراد بدون ملیت (stateless) persons، خاموشی (black-out)، دفاع غیر نظامی (civil defiance)، دادگاه های فرمایشی (show-trials)، پناهگاه های از پیش ساخته شده (Anderson shelters)، شلیک ضد هوایی (flak)، و جنگ میکروبی (germ warfare).

علیرغم وجود رعب و وحشت و آمادگی برای جنگ، شکل های جدیدی از سرگرمی ها در دهه سی به وجود آمدند. پخش برنامه های تلویزیونی با تصاویر گویا، شروع شده بود. مردم برای دیدن برندگان اسکار (Oscar) - لوح طلایی کوچک که توسط آکادمی علوم و هنرهای تصویری اهدا می شد- و یا یک کارتون به سالن های سینما (Odeon) می رفتند. از طریق برنامه های رادیویی و سریال های خانوادگی (soap operas) - که هزینه این برنامه ها توسط کارخانه های صابون سازی تامین می شد- پیشرفت های دنیا به خانه های مردم راه می یافت. درخواست های پخش آواز (request) و پیام های بازرگانی (commercials) از رادیو به گوش می رسید. از گرامافون (players) و ضبط صوت (tape recorder) می توانستند صدای آواز خوان های محبوب خود را بشنوند. می توانستند برنامه های جدید تلویزیون (telecasts) را تماشا کنند و جزو بینندگان (televise wers) آن باشند و برنامه زنده (live) نیز ببینند. واژگانی چون کت شلوار زنانه (trouser suit) و کفش لژدار (platform shoes) شنیده می شد. معرفی لوازم آرایش، سایه چشم (eye shadow)، برق لب (lip gloss) صورت گرفت.

بدون شک در زمینه مد، نایلن (nylon) اولین لیاف دست سازی بود که قرار بود به لباس هایی که در نیمه دوم قرن بیست می پوشیدیم تغییر شکل دهد.

در این دهه سلیقه های غذایی خیلی تغییر نیافت. از کدو (courgette) کوژت و یا (zucchini) زوکی نی، ماکارونی (pasta) و پیتزا (pizza) استفاده می شد. منتهی از واژه burger که قبلاً بعنوان پسوند استفاده می شد، مثل chickenburger, 1936، cheeseburger، 1938) در پایان دهه، به معنی همبرگر استفاده شد که در قرن بیست و یکم به جای واژه hamburger از خود واژه ham استفاده می شود که از اسم "هامبورگ" آلمان گرفته شده است. برای بچه ها، آدامس (bubble-gum) و یا شکلات (Mars bars) داریم.

برای جلوگیری از فشار ترافیک بزرگ راه های دوطرفه (dual carriage way)، تقاطع شبدری (clover leaves)، و برای استراحت در کنار جاده ها، پارکینگ های مخصوص استراحت (lay-bys) ساخته شد. برای کنترل میزان ساعات توقف مجاز در کنار خیابان ها از پارکومترها (parking-meters) استفاده می شد. از همه مهم تر نصب چراغ های زرد مخصوص عابر پیاده (Belisha beacons) است که نشان از حق عبور عابرین است این واژه از نام وزیر حمل و نقل وقت انگلستان که خطوط عابر پیاده را معرفی کرد (Hower Billisha) گرفته شده است. برای کنترل و جلوگیری از رانندگی افراد مست، از دستگاه (drunk meter) استفاده می شد. هنرجوهای رانندگی مجبور بودند علامت L - به معنی نوآموز (Learner driver) - را به ماشین خود نصب کند.

از نظر علمی، شاهد کشف نوترون (neutrons)، پوزیترون (positron) و پیشرفت فیزیک اتمی (nuclear physics)، شکافت (fission)، آب سنگین (heavy water) و نیدروژن سنگین (deuterium) هستیم که مقدمه ای برای انفجار اولین بمب اتمی خواهند بود. واژه های میکروسکوپ الکترونی (electron microscope)، ماهواره (satellite)، بچه آزمایشگاهی (test-tube baby)، اولین جلوه خود را در این دهه نشان دادند. سیاره جدیدی به نام پلوتو (Pluto) کشف شد.

از دید اجتماعی، خدمات اجتماعی (social service) به افراد بی بضاعت (under privileged) داده شد. پرستارانی برای نگهداری از بچه ها (baby-sitters) به وجود آمدند. جهت رفاه مردم، ماشین ظرفشویی (washing-up machines)، جام ظرفشویی (sink units)، و برای گرم نگه داشتن، پتوی برقی (electric blanket) وارد بازار شد. مشهورترین واژه حسن تعبیر برای افراد بازنشسته و سالخورده واژه (senior citizen) مطرح و بجای توال (lavatory) از واژه (smallest room) استفاده شد.

دههٔ چهل 1940 (the 1940s)

جنگ جهانی دوم در ماههای آخر سال 1939 شروع شد، و انرژی و سرمایه ملت ها را به مدت شش سال به خود اختصاص داد. دو انفجار اتمی در هیروشیما و ناگازاکی، که در سال 1945 صورت گرفت، اوج جنگ و از مسائل محوری قرن بیستم بودند. نیمه دوم دهه چهل پایه گذار حوادث چهل سال آینده بود: حوادثی از قبل جنگ ایدئولوژیکی بین شرق و غرب، استعمار زدایی، همکاری های بین المللی، توسعه سلاح های هسته ای و کامپیوتر. جنگ جهانی دوم سهم بسزایی در ایجاد واژه ها داشت، از جنگ نمایشی (phony war) در آغاز گرفته تا دادگاههای نظامی (war trials) در پایان؛ از کاربرد سر واژه ها (acronyms) توسط پروکرات های نظامی گرفته تا واژه های عامیانه توسط سربازان، مثل راه حل نهایی (final solution)، همکاری خیانت آمیز با دشمن (collaboration). جنگ بود که نخست چنگال های خود را برای نابودی افراد غیر نظامی باز کرد. در بریتانیا از سال 1940 حملات سنگین هوایی ارتش آلمان (blitz) باعث شد خانواده های جنگ زده (bombed-out) خانه های دود شده خود را نظاره کنند. مناطق جنگ زده (bomb-sites) پدید آمدند که چهره انگلستان را برای دهه بعد بد منظر می کرد. شهر کاونتری بطور سنگین بمباران شد (coventrated). این واژه در سال 1940 بر اثر بمباران آلمانی ها کاربرد پیدا کرد و سپس نوبت بمباران سایر مکان های

مهم تاریخی و فرهنگی انگلستان بود که بر اثر بمباران های شدید هوایی آلمانی ها ویران می شدند. به این بمباران ها، بدنبال کتاب راهنمای مسافرتی که نام (Baedeker) گرفته شده از اسم کارل بی دیکر بود، حملات بی دیگر (Baedeker raids) گفته می شد.

در اواخر جنگ برای بمباران مناطق از هواپیماهای بدون خلبان ولی مجهز به کلاهک های بمبی، (V-1 یا buss-bombs, doodlebugs یا flying bomb) که همه این واژه ها معنی V-1 می دادند، استفاده می شد. برای مواجهه با خطر، مردم بریتانیا به عضویت "بسیج" (Home Guards) در می آمدند. دوران جنگ دوران خراب کردن (cannibalizing) و دوران سازندگی (make do and mend) بود.

برای صرف غذا می توانستید از رستوران های داخل شهر (British restaurants) و یا در منزل از غذاهای خوشمزه کنسرو گوشت (luncheon meat) تولید شرکت اسپم (Spam 1937)، شیر محلی (national milk) و کره استفاده کنید. بدنبال پیمان "تامین ابزار جنگی" (lend-lease) از طرف کشور آمریکا، نیروهای آمریکایی وارد عمل شدند.

کشورهای دیگر در پاسخ به فراخوان نظامی (call-up)، جنگ را با استفاده از ادوات جنگی خود مثل ضد تانک (bazookas)، مسلسل های سبک (sten gun) - که توسط ارتش بریتانیا استفاده می شد - خمیر بمب های آتش زا (napalm)، و بمباران همه جانبه (saturation) بطرف دشمن پیش بردند. با استفاده از جیب (jeeps)، وسایط نقلیه آبی-خاکی (dukes)، و کشتی های مخصوص پیاده کردن نیرو (landing craft)، جنگ را با نیروهای کماندو (commandos)، چتر باز (paratroops)، خلبانان هدف یاب و یا بلدهای زمینی (pathfinders)، و یا موش های صحرایی (desert rats) - کنایه از بلدهای زمینی، و نیروهای متحدین در برمه تحت نام (chindits) جنگ را علیه ناوچه ها (e-boats) و زره پوشان (panzers) آلمانی پیش می بردند. از جنگ های روانی (psychological warfare) استفاده می کردند تا اینکه روز موعود (D-Day) فرا رسید. بندرهای شناور (mulberry harbors) و پل های موقت (bailey bridge) به موازات پیشرفت جبهه دوم سریع آماده شدند. سپس از جنایات نسل کشی (genocide) نازی ها بعنوان راه حل نهایی (final solution) و هولوکاست (Holocaust, 1957) که شامل اردوگاه های زندانیان غیرنظامی (concentration camps, 1901)، اردوگاه های زندانیان اعدامی (extermination camps) و اتاق های گاز بود، پرده برداشته شد.

وجود سازمان های مختلف و همکاری های گسترده بین ارگانهای دولتی - نظامی و غیر نظامی و بسیج مردم باعث رشد سر وازده ها در این دهه شد. به عنوان مثال:

BABS: blind approach beacon system سیستم چراغ راهنما برای عبور ناینایان از خط عابر پیاده

BAOR: British Army of the Rhine ارتش بریتانیا مستقر در راین

PLUTO: Pipeline under the ocean خطوط نفتی زیر اقیانوس

الگوی استفاده از سر وازده ها در قرن بیستم، از سال 1943 به بعد رواج پیدا کرد. در سوی دیگر این گستره واژگانی - تاثیرات روانی جنگ منجر به پیدایش انبوهی از واژگان عامیانه (slang) شد. به عنوان مثال، یک عملیات نظامی خطرناک و خشن نام party به خود گرفت. نیروی هوایی سلطنتی انگلستان (the Royal Air Force) که بیشترین تلفات را داشت، منشأ غنی زبان عامیانه شد: (angels) معنی خلبان می داد؛ هواپیمای دشمن (bandits)، پرواز بدون هدف (stouging)، سریع آماده حرکت شدن (getting weaving)، کشته شدن (going for a burton)، مشکلات فنی

(gremlins)، سانحه هواپیمایی (prangs)، سربازان پشت حمله (tail-end Charlies)، اصلاح صورت از ته (shaky dos) . این گونه واژه ها هر روز به افراد غیر نظامی که علاقمند به پیگیری حوادث جنگ بودند معرفی می شدند . در سال های 46-1945 با مرخص شدن سربازان (demob, 1934) و مشکلات صلح روبرو هستیم. در قاره اروپا هنوز با آوارگان جنگ (displaced persons) و اردوگاههای موقت پناهندگان (transit camps) سروکار داریم. در آلمان مسئله نازی زدایی (denazification) باید صورت می گرفت. در انگلستان، سختی های بعد از جنگ همراه با شادی های کم و بیش همگام با گسترش زاد و ولد (baby boom)، خود را نشان می داد. لذا وعده زندگی بهتر، همراه با خدمات رفاهی (welfare state) و بیمه عمومی (National Health) و خدمات عمومی (National Assistance) در کنار آموزش همگانی (comprehensive education) به مردم داده می شد. در اروپا طرح مارشال (Marshall Plan)، که همان طرح مشارکت مالی آمریکا بود، همراه با دیگر کمکهای مالی (aid) سبب شد اقتصاد جنگ زده روی پا بایستد. افراد بد بین از دیکتاتور کبیر (Big Brother) می ترسیدند. نوجوانان (teenagers) نگران موضوعات دیگر بودند. در پایان جنگ قدرت های غربی و اتحاد جماهیر شوروی متحدین نسبتاً بی ثباتی بودند. جنگ سرد (cold war) شروع شد و دنیا به دو قطب سرمایه دار و بلوک کمونیسم تقسیم گردید. برای چهار دهه غرب و شرق (East, 1951) بطور گسترده، تحت نفوذ دو ابر قدرت در آمد. حصار پرده آهنین (iron curtain, 1920) اطراف چین و دیوار ایدئولوژیک کمونیستی چین (bamboo curtain) پایین کشیده شد. در صحنه بین المللی، واژه تروریست (terrorist) مطرح شد. کلمه تبعیض نژادی (apartheid) در زبان انگلیسی کاربرد پیدا کرد. در تعامل پیشرفت های ناامید کننده سیاسی سازمان نهایی نظیر سازمان ملل (United Nations) و شورای امنیت (Security Council) بوجود آمدند. در اروپا اتحادیه بنلوکس (Benelux)، متشکل از بلژیک، هلند و لوگزامبورک، شکل گرفت. دستاورد مهم دوره، کامپیوتر و یامغز الکترونیکی (electronic brain) بود که برای محاسبه الکترونیکی اعداد به کار می رفت. توسعه چنین دستگاه هایی در ابتدای پیشرفت های علمی بود. این عنصر الکترونیکی واژه های مخصوص خود را به دنبال داشت: آنالوگ (analogue)، دیجیتال (digital)، داده ها (data)، حافظه (memory)، سخت افزار (hardware) و کارت پانچ (punch card) و غیره. عصر فضا (space age) در دنیای قصه های علمی مطرح می شد، و واژه های مربوط به خود، مانند موجودات فضایی (aliens) را معرفی می کرد.

مصرف گرایی، واژه های خود را مثل مخلوط کن (blender) بوجود می آورد. چک های بانکی را می شد با خودکار (biro, ball-point pen) امضاء کرد. ساندویچ خودتان را می توانستید با مشما (foil) بسته بندی کنید. جوانان می توانستند شلوارهای کوتاه (pedal pushers) و یا جوراب ساق کوتاه (bobby sox) و کت و شلوار جلقه دار (zoot suits) به پوشند.

دهه پنجاه 1950 (the 1950s)

اقتصاد آمریکا سختی های پس از جنگ را از میان برداشت. ملت های غربی دوباره دولت مند شدند. دهه پنجاه آغاز جهش " مصرف گرایی" بود که در دهه 1960 به اوج خود رسید. تا فرا رسیدن بحران نفت در دهه هفتاد، این فرهنگ مصرفی مورد بررسی جدی قرار نگرفت. زمینه این رشد (growth) اقتصادی، تداوم پیشرفت های علمی در همه ی زمینه ها از دارو تا کامپیوتر بود؛ تا اینکه در اواخر دهه بزرگترین موفقیت علمی بشر، یعنی سفر به فضا، تحقق یافت. اما علم تماماً آرامش و موفقیت نبود؛ علم بمب هسته ای را نیز تولید کرد. خطر نابودی انسان، درست مثل ابر قارچ مانند (mushroom cloud)

بمب، از دور نمایان بود. در دهه 1940 سلاح های هسته ای منشأ رعب و وحشت برای مردم بودند، ولی در دهه پنجاه این سلاح ها بخشی از زندگی روزانه به حساب می آمدند. به طوری که طبق گزارش جان ای تون (2007:135) واژه نیوکس (nukes) نام یک حیوان خانگی را عهده دار گردید. هر چه این سلاح ها در جهت تخریب بیشتر پیشرفت می کردند، واژه های مخصوص خود را به وجود می آوردند: بمب های هیدروژنی (the H. bombs, 1950) بمب افکن ها (v bombers). موشک های بالیستیک بین قاره ای (ICBM, international ballistic missiles). واژه های دیگری نیز در مقابل استفاده از این ابزار بودند: مثل فضولات ناشی از بمب هسته ای (fall-out)، قتل عام (overkill) و مرگ میلیونی (mega death). اواخر این دهه، حرکت اعتراض آمیز علیه کاربرد سلاح های هسته ای آغاز شد. گروه هایی مثل مبارزه برای خلع سلاح هسته ای (CND= Campaign for Nuclear Disarmament) شکل می گرفت و واژه unilateralist به معنی "مدافع خلع سلاح هسته ای از جانب هر کشوری که باشد به واژگان هسته ای افزوده شد. در چنین زمینه ای، تضاد ایدئولوژیکی جنگ سرد بین جهان آزاد (free world) یعنی غرب، و شرق (the East) شکل گرفت. ناتو (NATO) و نیروهای "پیمان ورشو" (Warsaw pact) از پس پره آهنین بین شرق و غرب (The Iron Curtain) با بد بینی همدیگر را می پائیدند. در حالیکه متخصصین امور سیاسی کرملین (kremlinologists) سعی داشتند به نیات شوروی پی ببرند. کنفرانس های نشست سران (summit) بر پا گردید. امید می رفت اختلافات بین دو طرف حل خواهد شد، اما نتیجه این نشست ها، به قول روس ها، "نه" (niet) بود.

راه اندازی ماهواره شوروی (sputnik) در سال 1957، از نگران کننده ترین موانع بهبود روابط دهه برای غرب بود. تا این زمان آمریکا تصور می کرد که در رقابت فضایی (space race) به راحتی جلو دار است، اما ناگهان متوجه شد که برندگان این رقابت فضایی به جای اینکه فضانوردان آمریکایی باشند کیهان نوردان (cosmonauts) روسی هستند. در سال های پایانی دهه پنجاه، جامعه آمریکا و بینندگان جهانی در حال تماشای شمارش معکوس (count-down) برای پرتاب موشک (blast-off) از تلویزیون بودند.

همگام با این پیشرفت های فضایی، جراحان عمل قلب باز (open heart) را انجام دادند. اتصال رگ های فرعی (-by-passes) و پیوند اندام (transplants) انجام گرفت. واکسن پولیو (salk vaccine) بالای نیم قرن فلج اطفال را دور کرد.

سال های دهه پنجاه دوره جوان های عصبانی (angry young men)، نسل جوانان هنردوست و معترض (beat generation)، فرشتگان جهنم (Hell's Angels)، هیپی ها (Hippies) بود. دهه اعتراض و دهه چاقوی ضامن دار (flick knife) بود (Ayton, 136). زبان عامیانه دوره، زبان نوجوانان آمریکا بود که بیشتر آنها از زبان مخصوص جاز به ارث مانده بود: محشر، فوق العاده (far-out)، عجیب و غریب (way-out)، ترک کردن سن (split the scene)، خداحافظ رفیق (see you later alligator). یا کلمه های که به ville ختم می شدند: (dullsville) به معنی خسته کننده، (squares ville) به معنی "هر جا و مکان سنتی. جوانان مشکل مالی نداشتند و به راحتی می توانستند محبوب ترین آهنگ های (hit parade) خود را یا ده آهنگ برتر (the top ten) و یا بهترین پاپ ها را (top of pops) تهیه کنند. بعضی ها می توانستند آهنگ های آلبوهایشان (albums) را روی سیستم های استریو (stereo) و یا سیستم های صوتی قوی تر (hi-fi) پخش کنند.

نقطه عطف این دهه در تاریخ انگلستان، تاجگذاری ملکه الیزابت دوم در سال 1953 بود که مردم می توانستند این مراسم را روی تلویزیون کوچک خود (goggle-box) و یا (the box) تماشا کنند. در عرصه سینما مردم می توانستند فیلم های سینمایی را روی پرده ای بزرگ یا سینما اسکوپ (cinema-scope) تماشا کنند.

محیط زندگی هم از این پیشرفت ها بی نصیب نبود. ساختمان های بلند (high-rise) محوطه های عابر پیاده (pedestrian precincts) شکل زندگی شهر را عوض می کرد. تکنولوژی به تولید بلوزهای " بشور وپوش" (drip-dry) کمک کرده بود. خانم ها می توانستند مدل موی خود را با استفاده از اسپری مو (hair spray) و پوش دادن (black-combing) پف دار (bouffant) کنند. آقایان هم موهای کناره های سر را به عقب شانه زده و مدل تونی کرتیس (Tony Curtis) را امتحان کنند.

برای تغذیه، نان تست برش داده (sliced bread) با لقمه ماهی (fish fingers) نشان از غذاهای آماده یخ زده می دادند. غذاهای آماده (fast food) در خیابان دیده می شدند. غذاهای خارجی نیز وارد فرهنگ انگلیسی می شد: دونار کباب (doner kebabs)، نان سیر (garlic bread)، غذاهای تنوری (tandoori)، و تابه های چینی مخصوص سرخ کردن (woks).

جاده ها نیز شاهد پیشرفت های خودرو بودند. اگر دوست نداشتید سوار ماشین های کوچک سقف شیشه ای (bubble cars) یا سوار ماشین های مینی (minis) بشوید، می توانستید سوار موتور گازی (moped) ویا وسپا (vespa) بشوید و اطراف شهر چرخی بزنند (scooter). مامورانی نیز کنترل پارک اتومبیل ها را (traffic wardens) عهده دار بودند. سال های بی بند و باری (permissive) دهه شصت از راه می رسید.

دهه شصت 1960 (the 1960s)

دهه 1960 به قول ای تو (Ayto, 157) دهه ای است که خود را با خیال راحت از گذشته جدا کرد و مسیر جدیدی را برای خود برگزید. بچه های دهه چهل خودشان را با قدرت تمام، همراه با اکتشافات فضایی و پیشرفت های علمی در این دوره احساس می کردند. کامپیوتر راه خود را در مسیر زندگی انسان ها باز کرده بود. در این دوره اختراعات و اکتشافات فراوانی صورت نگرفت، اما مردم به دنبال راه های جدید برای نگرستن به دنیا بودند. در نتیجه کلمات جدیدی را برای توصیف تجربیات خود پیدا می کردند.

در دهه 1960، کلمات مرکب و واژه های اختصاری وارد زبان شدند. پیشوندها و پسوندها وجود خود را نمایان کردند. سر واژه ها (acronyms) که به طور کلی حاصل جنگ جهانی دوم بودند، در این دهه خارج از زمینه های نظامی به کاربرد پیدا کردند. زبان کوبول در کامپیوتر (cobol)، لیزر (laser)، کد پستی (zip code)، ماهنورد (Lem)، هواپیمای آواکس (AWACS) وارد زبان شدند و بدون جلب توجه وجود خود را در زبان تحکیم بخشیدند. واژگان مرکب - واژگانی که از ترکیب دو کلمه تشکیل می شدند - وارد زبان شدند: advertorial به معنی آگهی که صورت کلی سر مقاله ای دارد، چهره نگاشت (identikit)، تخلیه محل از افراد زخمی (medevac) - از ترکیب medical و evacuation، و تورم توام با رکود (stagflation) وارد زبان شدند. این کلمات مرکب حتی به ایجاد نام جدید برای برخی از کشورها منجر شدند مثل تانزانیا که از ترکیب دو کلمه (Zanzibar و Tanganyika) شکل گرفت (Ayto, 157).

روند ساخت فعل با استفاده از اسم ادامه یافت. کلماتی چون access (دست یافتن به)، action (اقدام کردن)، format (فرمت کردن)، keyboard (وارد کردن اطلاعات به کامپیوتر) به فرهنگ واژگان افزوده شدند.

پیشروی پیشوند به قلمرو صفت یکی دیگر از ویژگی های زبان انگلیسی در قرن بیستم بود و در هیچ دهه ای بیشتر از دهه 1960 چشمگیر نبود. در بخش مد، از پیشوند mini استقبال پرشوری به عمل آمد: لباس کوتاه (minidress) دامن کوتاه (miniskirt)؛ پیشوندها دیگر عبارت بودند از Euro, Eco, maxi, midi. این دهه دوره اصلی پیدایش پسوند in بود،

مثل love-in به معنی نشست صمیمانه و عاشقانه؛ laugh-in گرفته شده از برنامه کمدی آمریکایی به معنی برنامه یا مراسمی که پر از خنده باشد؛ phone-in برنامه زنده رادیویی و تلویزیونی که فرد می تواند با آن تماس تلفنی برقرار کند؛ sit-in اعتصاب نشسته؛ teach-in بحث غیر رسمی مربوط به مسائل سیاسی مردم. در مورد کلمه in لازم به یادآوری است که در این دهه خود کلمه در قالب صفت به معنی "مد شده" کاربرد پیدا کرد (مثل چیزی که تازه مد شده است = the new in thing).

آشنایی با جهان نامتناهی منجر به پیدایش کلمات وسیع تری همچون "سیاه چال" (singularity) در کیهان شناسی شد. در آوریل 1961، موشک یوری گاگارین به فضا پرتاب شد و رویای سفر به فضا به یک واقعیت تبدیل گردید و سال های بعدی این دهه، ما را با واژه هایی مثل پرتاب کردن (launch)، بازگشت به جو زمین (re-entry)، در دریا فرود آمدن (splash down)، قدم زدن بر روی کره ماه (moon-walks)، سفینه ای که برای حمل و نقل افراد و تجهیزات به فضا استفاده می شود (shuttle)، و خودرو قابل استفاده در کره ماه (moon-buggy) آشنا کرد.

اما بی شک، برترین فناوری دهه 1960 علم کامپیوتر بود. با کامپیوتری شدن هر گوشه ای از زندگی مان با کلمات مثل بایت (bytes)، چیپس (chips)، مکان نما (cursors)، پایگاه داده ها (data bases)، موشواره (mouse)، نرم افزار (soft ware) و تجهیزات جانبی (peripheral) آشنا شدیم.

این دوره، دوره ظهور داروهای نشاط آور (upper) و داروهای آرام بخش (downer) چون قرص های آمفتامین (purple hearts)، و یا (angel dust)، والیوم (valium) و دیازپام (diazepam) بود. با ظهور ماهواره های مخابراتی (com sat)، دستگاه های پیام گیر (bleepers, pagers)، مدیر روابط عمومی (image-makers) تحویل عظیمی در ارتباطات رخ داد. ما به راحتی می توانستیم میز گرد تلویزیونی (chat shows)، فیلم یا سریال های کمدی (sitcoms)، فیلم های مستند (docudrama)، برنامه های ارتباط مستقیم (phone-ins) را از رادیو و تلویزیون ببینیم و بشنویم. در صورت نیاز می توانستیم از کاست (cassettes) و ویدئو (videos) استفاده کنیم. عکاس و خبرنگار جنجالی که برای تهیه مستندات جنجال برانگیز دنبال افراد سرشناس بود (paparazzi) در این دهه پدید آمد. از نخستین نشانه های دهه های بعدی برقراری حقوق اجتماعی و لغو تبعیض نژادی در امریکا و همچنین آغاز گرایش به محیط زیست بود. واژه های تبعیض جنسی (sexism)، پرستیزی (ageism)، ظاهر سازی (tokenism)، دهکده جهانی (global village)، بنزین بدون سرب (unleaded)، گونه های در معرض خطر (endangered) و یا در معرض تهدید (threatened) وارد زبان شدند.

Eco پیشوندی در معانی محیط زیست، پیشوند برتر دوره بود. در جهانی که هنوز در جنگ سرد بسر می برد، طالبان صلح (dove) در مورد منع گسترش سلاح های اتمی (non-proliferation) بحث می کردند. در حالیکه جنگ طلبان (hawks) در فکر عکس العمل انعطاف پذیر (flexible response) و حملات حساب شده و دقیق (surgical strikers) بودند.

دهه هفتاد 1970 (the 1970s)

دهه هفتاد عکس العملی در برابر خوشی های دهه 1960 بود. در پایان قرن بیستم آنان که دهه های آخر را تجربه کرده بودند هیچ وقت نمی خواستند به دهه هفتاد فکر کنند، و تنها دلخوشی آنها این بود که دیگر در دهه هفتاد نیستند. افزایش سریع قیمت نفت در اوایل دهه، تورم و بیکاری از مشکلات عمده دنیای غرب بود. رهبر قوی ترین ملت جهان مجبور شد

با بی شرمی استعفا دهد. این وقایع را می توانستید در واژه "واتر گیت" (Watergate) خلاصه کنید که منجر به استفاده نیکسون رئیس جمهور وقت آمریکا شد.

در این دهه بشر از بین بردن محیط زیست خود را آغاز کرد. بیماری های جدید تاب و توان مردم را گرفت. "تب لاسا" (Lassa fever)، برگرفته از نام دهکده ای در نیجریه، و همچنین بیماری ذات الریه در آمریکا (legionnaires' disease) مردم را از پا در می آورد. با اینکه انسان به کره ماه رسیده بود ولی نمی دانست که مسیر بعدی کجاست. پاسخ این سؤال که "با محیط اطراف خود چه می کنیم" را در علم شناخت محیط (environmentalism) که در برابر آلودگی ها مقاومت می کرد می توانستیم پیدا کنیم. دهه 1970، اولین دهه سبز قرن (green decade) که دهه طرفداری از طبیعت است تلقی شده است.

شیوه های جدید زندگی (counterculture) که نرم های سنتی را رد می کرد خواستار تکنولوژی نوین بود که بر حفظ محیط زیست تاکید داشت و مانع از آسیب رساندن به محیط زیست بود. بحران انرژی (energy crisis) در اوایل دهه سبب شد که مردم خیلی جدیدی به مصرف سوخت اتومبیل های بزرگ بنزین سوز (gas guzzlers) بیاندیشند، و به فکر منابع انرژی جایگزین (renewable) باشند.

توجه به خطرات آسیب رسانی به محیط زیست (doomwatch) در راس امور بود. واژه doomwatch از عنوان سریال تلویزیونی BBC گرفته شده بود که برای اولین بار در سال 1970 بعنوان یک برنامه علمی به آلودگی های طبیعت و یا خرابی های جنگ هسته ای و نحوه تغییر مسیر ناشی از این آسیب ها می پرداخت. در این ایام گرم شدن جهان (global warming) مطرح شد. مردم یاد گرفتند که چگونه از بطری های استفاده شده مجدداً از طریق دور نه ریختن (recycle) می توانند به اقتصاد خود کمک کنند و در نتیجه، ظرف های زباله مخصوص بطری (bottle banks) در کنار خیابان ها برای اولین بار به چشم می خورد. حتی صدا نیز می توانست مولد آلودگی (noise pollution) باشد. در این دهه تبعیض میان حیوانات (speciesism) نیز محکوم بود.

از طرفداری از جنبه های اخلاقی حیات (bioethics) استقبال شد. وجود منطقه بزرگی از کره زمین، تحت عنوان جنوب (the South) که منطقه ای عقب مانده تر از سایر نقاط جهان بود، بطور کامل شناسایی شد.

جامعه دهه هفتاد محیطی بود که بچه های متولد شده بعد از جنگ جهانی (baby boomers) در آن زندگی می کردند. جامعه ای بود پر از بیکاری و فقر. زن بی سرپرست و خیابان گرد (bag lady)، که وسایل زندگی خود را داخل یک کیسه پلاستیک حمل می کرد، در خیابان ها دیده می شد که شب را روی یک تشک پر از پنبه (futon) می خوابید. افراد دیگری نیز مطرح بودند؛ آنان که شغل شان مراقبت (carers) از افراد سالمند (wrinklie و یا crumblie)، بیماران و افراد معلول بود. افرادی هم بودند که بجای والدین تربیت بچه را در اوقات مفید و کیفی روز (quality time) به عهده داشتند. این افراد بخشی از خانواده به شمار می آمدند. اگر بخواهیم از یک پدیده مهم که مختص دهه 1970 باشد صحبت کنیم، آن مسئله جنسیت است. حرکت بانوان علیه برتری مردان که از دهه 60 آغاز شده بود، در این دهه به بار نشست؛ زنان آزادی پیدا کردند (liberated).

رفتارهای جنسی (sexual politics) را دیگر نمی شد نادیده گرفت، دروس مربوط به زنان (womens studies) در سرفصل دروس دانشگاهی گنجانده شدند. طرفداران جنبش زنان (libbers) به مبارزات خود در مقابل برتری مردان (male chauvinist pigs) ادامه دادند. فاصله بین جنس مرد و جنس زن (gender gap) کمتر شد. آقایان نیز برای مراقبت از زنان پا به ماه حامله، از مرخصی زایمان (paternity leave) استفاده کردند. برای "رئیس جلسه" به جای chairman قرار شد از chairperson استفاده شود. چرا که رئیس ممکن بود یک خانم باشد. حتی در مواردی از

خود chair در همین قالب استفاده شد. در همین رابطه، به جای واژه fireman از واژه fire-fighter استفاده شد. این کشمکش ها تا جایی پیش رفت که بعضی ها به جای واژه history که با his شروع می شود، واژه herstory را پیشنهاد کردند. در مورد استفاده از ضمائر he و she باید گفت که ترجیحاً از ضمیر they بجای he و یا she استفاده شود. اگر قرار باشد ضمیری برای somebody و یا anyone انتخاب شود، they مقبول تر خواهد بود. استاد این بحث ها متون قدیمی بودند که در آنها نیز برای جلوگیری از طرح مسئله جنسیت she و یا he از they استفاده می شد. دهه 1970، دهه بیکاری و نارضایتی کارگران بود. فعالیت های صنفی (industrial action) مثل اعتصاب، کم کاری و ساعات شناور (flexitime) پدیدار شد. کارگران می توانستند اعتصابات خود را از محل کار خود به فضاهای بیرون به کشند. از محلی به محل دیگر می رفتند (flying pickets) تا کارگران اعتصاب کننده را از نظر روحی تقویت کنند. برای پیدا کردن کار می توانستند به مراکز کاریابی (job centres) مراجعه کنند. برای اخراج یک کارگر و یا کارمند واژه هایی مثل release, outplace, deselect, dehire در زبان کاربرد پیدا کردند. برای اخراج بخش قابل توجهی از کارگران به منظور کوچکتر کردن بدنه مجموعه از واژه downsizing استفاده شد. سیستم های بانکی در این دوره به مراتب راحت تر از قبل بود. برای گرفتن پول می توانستید با استفاده از کارت بانکی خود (plastic money) به عابر بانک (automated teller و یا cashpoint) مراجعه کنید.

صنعت کامپیوتر سریعاً در حال پیشرفت. واژه های window, hard disk, floppy disk و کامپیوترهای شخصی PC و یا word processors همک کردن (hacking) جای خود را در زبان باز می کردند. برنامه هایی که مردم به راحتی بتوانند با آنها کار کنند (user-friendly) در اختیار کاربران قرار می گرفت. در پایان دهه برنامه های ویدئویی بازار جهان را فرا گرفت. علاقمند این برنامه ها (couch potatoes) می توانستند از صبح تا شب پای تلویزیون بنشینند. تنقلات وارد بازار شد. مردم می توانستند برای رفع گرسنگی و بجای ناهار یا شام همبرگر دو لایه مکدونالد (Big Mac) بخورند.

دهه هشتاد 1980 (the 1980s)

دهه هشتاد بطور عمده بخاطر "پول" (dosh) در خاطره ها مانده است. در این دوره نه تنها پول زیاد بود بلکه آن که آنرا داشتند به آن افتخار می کردند؛ به راحتی آنرا مصرف می کردند و حتی بعضی آن را می پرستیدند. واقعا ثروتمند بودن یک مسئله خیلی جدی بود. همانطور که وجود ثروت تحولات تازه ای را برای جامعه وجود می آورد، بخش مالی و اقتصاد جامعه واژه های جدیدی را وارد زبان انگلیسی می کرد. در بریتانیا دولت خانم تاچر در سال 1979 قدرت را بدست گرفت، و در آمریکا نیز رونالد ریگان به ریاست جمهوری برگزیده شد. هر دو دولت تلاش داشتند موانع مالی را از سر پیشرفت بردارند. در بازار سهام انگلستان، رفع محدودیت و حذف نظارت دولت (Big Bang) در اکتبر 1986 تمام محدودیت های قبلی را از بین برد. واژه های جدیدی برای توصیف وضع اقتصادی جامعه به وجود آمد: عملیات سریع اول وقت که بازار سهام را تحت تاثیر قرار می داد (dawn raid)، شرکت تجاری که به کمک شرکت دیگر بیاید (white knight)، پرداخت حقوق قلمبه (golden hello)، عقد قرارداد خرید خدمت با مدیر عالی رتبه شرکت (golden parachute).

پرداخت ها بطور عمده از طریق وارد کردن (swipe) کارت بانکی (smart card) خود داخل دستگاه عابر بانک، صورت می گرفت. در این ایام انگلستان صاحب پوند سکه ای (pound coins) شد. اما جایجایی پول توسط تلفن بانک (tele banking) خالی از خطر نبود. افرادی که پول زیادی در جیب داشتند، می بایست بدون اینکه جلب نظر کنند باید

آنرا خرج می کردند. متداول ترین واژه دهه هشتاد، هم در آمریکا و هم در انگلستان، واژه (yuppie) بود که به جوان حرفه ای و پولدار شهری اطلاق می شد که از واژه های (young urban professional) تشکیل می شد. این جوان، سوار ماشین آخرین سیستم می شد که مجهز به بی سیم (mobile phone, 1945) و یک کامپیوتر کوچک شخصی (personal organizer) بود.

در این دهه اگر کسی ثروتمند می بود، ثروتمندتر می شد و اگر فقیر بود، فقیرتر می شد. لذا تعدادی با توجه به پائین بودن درآمد از دولت کمک مالی (income support) دریافت می کردند.

دهه نود و سال دو هزار (the 1990s and 2000)

با فرا رسیدن عصر جدید، دنیای هستی به یک مکان تکه تکه شده می نمود. انسجام موجود جهان، در سال 1900 توسط دو جنگ بزرگ جهان از بین رفته بود. در اواخر دهه 1980 با آب شدن یخ جنگ سرد، بی ثباتی و عدم اطمینان در جهان به وجود آمده بود. جامعه طبقاتی به جا مانده از قرن نوزدهم، جای خود را به آزادی مطلق مردم (people's) داده بود. اعتقاد و اطمینان خوش بینانه به پیشرفت جهانی کم رنگ تر شده بود. در اواخر قرن بیستم، بشریت نسبت به کارآمدی و فناوری بی توجه شده بودند، و از خساراتی که این فناوری به دنیا و ساکنان آن وارد کرده بود، آگاه شدند. فرانسیس فوکویاما پایان تاریخ (the end of history) را اعلام کرد (Ayto, 227). مردم خویشتر دار انگلیس، ملتی با احساسات و رماتیکیک شده بودند. مگر می شد از واکنش جنون آمیز (Dianamania) عموم مردم نسبت به مرگ دیانا، شاهزاده ولز گذشت.

جنگ داخلی در سال 1991 با جدایی کرواسی و اسلونی از هم در گرفت و آتش این جنگ تا پایان دهه شعله ور بود. جنگ واژه تلخ قومیت زدایی و نسل کشی (ethnic cleansing) را وارد زبان انگلیسی کرد. جنگ دیگر دهه نود، جنگ کشورهای خلیج فارس (Gulf War) در سال 1991 بود، که عملیات سنگینی را سازمان ملل برای بیرون راندن مهاجمان عراقی از کویت انجام داد. در نتیجه، شماری از تعابیر نظامی آمریکایی مخصوصاً تعابیری چون خسارتهای جانبی (collateral damage, 1925) و آتش خودی (friendly fire, 1925) و خطاهای ممتد و پشت سرهم (mission creep) مورد توجه توده مردم قرار گرفت.

پائین آمدن ارزش پوند در این دهه باعث شد که دولت محافظه کار بریتانیا، که از سال 1979 در راس قدرت بود، به سر آید. بدلیل فسادهای موجود بین مسئولین (sleaze, 1983) و یا بطور روشن، فسادهای مالی (cash for question, 1994) دولت تلاش می کرد روزه هایی از بهبود اقتصاد (green shoots, 1989) کشور را شناسایی کند و اختلاف اعتقادی شفاف موجود (clear blue water) بین خود و رقیبان سیاسی را آشکار سازد. با این همه، رای دهندگان متقاعد نشدند. در انتخابات عمومی سال 1997 دولت با شکست فجیعی روبرو شد. نمایندگان که حتی برای احتیاط کرسی های حاشیه ای را نیز واگذار کرده بودند (chicken run) نتوانستند از زیر اکثریت قاطع فرار کنند.

حزب کارگر جدید (New Labour)، که شکل تغییر یافته همان حزب کارگر سابق بود، بر سر کار آمد. در سایه حکومت تونی بلر (Blairism) واژه های مالیات و هزینه ها (tax and spend) از رده خارج شدند و واژه هایی چون تامین اجتماعی (welfare work)، بالا بردن رفتار و یا وجدان کاری (tough love) شکل گرفتند. جدا شدن از خط مشی حزب (off message) بزرگترین جنایت به شمار می آمد. هر گونه انحراف مفسر باشی ها (spin doctors, 1984) به مسیر اولیه خود بازگردانده می شد.

آنچه که گذشت نگاهی به شیوه پیدایش کلمات جدید بود و اینکه چگونه هر دهه با توجه به موقعیت های اجتماعی، فرهنگی و سیاسی خود، واژه های جدید خاق می کند. مطلب دیگر اینکه هر دهه به نوعی تلاش می کند عکس العملی به دهه قبلی خود داشته باشد، نگاهی که در روند تاریخ ادبی انگلستان نیز مشهود است. بدین معنا که هر دهه به گونه ای عکس العملی به دوره های قبلی است.

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